ontemporary Issues of
Education Quality

Editors:
Miomir Despotović
Emina Hebib
Balázs Németh

Table of contents

Editors' Introduction

The need and the opportunities for the development of the quality of education are being discussed more and more intensively, from different aspects. Quality assurance and development of education quality have been recognized as a declared tendency to develop the education system and represent the key aim of modern reform processes in the education field in the European countries. Therefore, it is no wonder that the issue of quality assurance and development of education is becoming an increasingly popular topic in the broad circles of educational public: it is the topic of current scientific research projects and scientific and professional papers; it is included in the official documents which practically implement certain political solutions in the field of education; it is a question discussed by practitioners more and more frequently …

The *Contemporary Issues of Education Quality* proceedings is the result of cooperation between the Institute for Pedagogy and Andragogy of the Faculty of Philosophy of Belgrade's University and the Institute of Adult Education of the University of Pécs.

The Institute for Pedagogy and Andragogy of the Faculty of Philosophy of Belgrade's University has been implementing the *Models of Assessment and Strategies to Improve Education Quality in Serbia* project (no. 179060, 2011-2014) for the past three years. Within the project mentioned above, two thematic proceedings were published: *Quality in Education* (2011) which represents different approaches to the overview of quality in education and its dimensions, and *Particular Issues of Education Quality* (2012), in which particular approaches to education quality are analyzed from different perspectives – pedagogical, andragogical, historical, ethical, educational/political, etc. The *Contemporary Issues of Education Quality* is the third proceedings which resulted from the work invested in the aforementioned project.

The Contemporary Issues of Education Quality proceedings consist of 32 papers, which have been grouped in the four following units according to their content: quality of pre-school, elementary and higher education; quality of adult education; education reform and education policy; methodological approaches and solutions in the study of education quality. Individual papers, according to the topics listed, have been presented in the order that follows the level of generality in the analysis of relevant topics.

Apart from the authors from Serbia (31 authors), authors from the following countries have also contributed: Hungary (3 authors); Slovenia (2 authors); Germany, Austria, Finland, Turkey, Montenegro, Slovenia and Croatia (1 author each).

We would like to use this opportunity to express our gratitude to the reviewers, Prof. Balàzs Nemeth, Prof. Sabina Jelenc-Krašovec, Prof. Snežana Medić, Prof. Nataša Matović for their constructive suggestions in the process of preparation of this thematic proceedings.

Miomir Despotović

University of Belgrade, Faculty of Philosophy

Emina Hebib

University of Belgrade, Faculty of Philosophy

I
THE QUALITY OF PRESCHOOL, ELEMENTARY AND UNIVERSITY EDUCATION

*Živka Krnjaja**

Dragana Pavlović Breneselović**

Quality Early Childhood Education Curriculum Framework in Postmodern Perspective

This paper deals from postmodern perspective to issue of the quality of the early childhood education curriculum framework. The postmodern approach to the ECE curriculum framework is based on the postulates of the sociocultural theory of development and learning, sociology of childhood, postmodernism and poststructuralism. The paper identifies the main characteristics of the postmodern approach to the ECE curriculum framework: developing curriculum framework as a process; using metaphor for the name of the framework; schematic representation as the representation of the holism, networking and dynamism of the curriculum; conceptualisation of the curriculum by toposes; internal and external networking of document. The postmodern curriculum approach and characteristics of curriculum framework from this perspective can contribute to a better understanding of the issue of the quality of preschool programs as documents and provide the guidelines for the development of the quality curriculum framework.

Key words: postmodernism, curriculum framework, networking, quality.

*   University of Belgrade, Faculty of Philosophy, Belgrade, Serbia
**   University of Belgrade, Faculty of Philosophy, Belgrade, Serbia

Introduction

The early childhood education curriculum framework can be defined broadly as "an attempt to communicate the essential principles and features of an educational proposal in such a form that it is open to critical scrutiny and capable of effective translation into practice" (Stenhouse, 1975 in McKernan, 2008:12). Stenhouse defines program as "a flexible framework for curricular experimentation and innovation" (ibid). The above definition shows that this is a framework that is being developed through educational practice and depends on the culture, values and expectations of community, social construction of childhood ant relation to the child, previous practice of the institutionalised education, practitioners' implicit pedagogy, scientific research and theoretical postulates. Defining ECE curriculum framework contemporary education policies recognize as an important dimension of quality in early childhood education (OECD, 2004; Benett, 2004). In OECD studies (OECD, 2004; 2012) the following reasons for paying a particular attention to that issue:

- Neuroscience research have confirmed the importance of early childhood age as a period of intense learning and development and its long term effects on the future functioning (Bertrand, 2007 in OECD, 2012; OECD, 2004). This accentuated the importance of the organized early childhood education and its programmatic foundations;

- On the one hand, curriculum framework as a unique national framework ensure fulfilment of a right *to* and right *in* education for each child and family, regardless to social, economic, cultural and local specificities. On the other hand, the curriculum framework outlines the general conditions, functions, assumptions and guidelines for the quality education of all children contextually adjusted to the specific conditions, needs and aspirations.

- Curriculum framework assures the continuity of preschool and school education and sets the basis for a lifelong learning (UNESCO, 2004);

- Curriculum framework, being developed and actualized in the practice, provides the basis for the practitioners' learning and their professional development;

- Curriculum framework opens the possibility of concretization aligned to the specific context, expectations and needs of different stakeholders in the preschool education. At the same time, it contributes to the development of shared goals and values of different actors in educational practice (Bennett, 2004; Mac Naughton, 2003).

Despite general consensus on the necessity to define the preschool curriculum framework on the national level, the opinions on what is "quality curriculum framework" or "what is a right approach to the preschool program as document" differ (OECD, 2004). Usual classifications of preschool curriculums are on a pre-primary and social pedagogy tradition (Bennett, 2004) or on academic and comprehensive (holistic) program approach (Bertrand, 2007 in OECD, 2012). Program based on academic approach is oriented to the preschool teacher and cognitive outcomes as the goal for school preparation. Program based on holistic or comprehensive approach is a child centred and oriented towards child holistic development. Academic approach emphasis subject-discipline learning and teaching and holistic approach emphasis learning by self-initiative, self-orientation and self-expression (Bertrand, 2007 in OECD, 2012). OECD study on a quality of early childhood education points out that the development of the "mixed model", combining those two approaches, has not proven well in the practice and that the "mixed models' are less effective than each of them individually (OECD, 2012).

Contemporary theoreticians point out that we live in a qualitative new postmodern society which implies changes in understanding of a world and values system (Capra, 2003) and paradigm shift in science, technology and education. This perspective gives new meanings to the key characteristics of the holistic programs. Our paper deals with the issues of the quality of the early childhood education curriculum framework from the postmodern perspective.

The postmodern approach to curriculum framework

According to Slattery (Slattery, 2006:19) the general characteristics of postmodernity are:

- Post-anthropocentrism of living as networking with and within the world and nature, as opposed to anthropocentrism where the human relation to the world is reduced to the resources which are controlled and exploited;
- Values like belonging to and development of community versus competitiveness and individualism;
- Post Euro centrism as an opinion that the western civilization values and practice are not more valuable than the others and should not be imposed on the other cultures as the only development solutions;

- Post militarism as an opinion that disputes can be solved by dialogue and collaboration rather than force;
- Post scientism as an approach where along the positivistic approach to the scientific research based on the measurements and objectivity originating from the natural sciences, there is a development of research approaches based on the understanding and the language which is poetic, allegoric and metaphoric;
- Post disciplinary, ecological systemic approach to viewing social, natural and physical phenomena instead of mechanistic approach of the separated disciplines and understanding of the world from one science perspective;
- Post nationalistic view that surpasses the individual nationalism by developing the "planetary awareness" on the humanity wellbeing.

The postmodern approach to the early childhood curriculum is based on the theoretical postulates of the socio-cultural theory of development and learning, new sociology of childhood, postmodernism and post structuralism. Common to all those orientation understands of child as an active, competent participant in own education, reach with capacities, recognition of agency and participation of children and the collaborative development of community of practice.

Socio-cultural theory. Socio-cultural theory reconceptualises the understanding of the development. The development is viewed as a change of identity through the change of the participation in the cultural activities of community (Rogoff et al., 2001). In the conceptualisation of the postmodern curriculum frameworks, socio cultural theory postulates promote:

- Focusing on the importance of the participation in the joint community activities as a mean of learning and development. Understanding the development as a socio-cultural process implies curriculum orientation toward operationalization of children involvement in different activities and relations in the community of practice;
- Emphasis of the sociocultural context for children learning. Through social interactions children learn to use the cultural tools, behaviour patterns and the ways of knowledge coconstruction and meaning making (Rogoff, 2003). The usage of the cultural tools (like speech, symbols, objects, habits...) and different strategies for meaning making, children learn primary in the dai-

ly family life and the community in which they live. Therefore, a curriculum strives to maintain the continuity with the children experience from the family life and the cultural community they belong to. The individuals develop through "the collective activities of the community members; therefore they are a part of the cultural community and the learning should be understood within the specific cultural and social context" (Rogoff, 2003:77).

- Learning as co-construction of meaning through participation. Learning situation is where the personal, interpersonal and social relations intertwine, with each participant contributing with his/her experience. This leads to the common understanding and the co-construction of meaning. The ways of participation can be "guided", "developmental" and "through apprenticeship" (Lave and Wenger, 1990; Rogoff et al., 2001).

Sociology of childhood. Sociology of childhood has contributed to viewing childhood as a valuable and visible social category per se (Arthur et al, 2012). This shifts the accent from viewing the child from the point of individual development to the issues of the sociocultural childhood construction and the child's position in a given cultural, social and political context. Sociology of childhood postulates is reflected in the conceptualisation of the postmodern curriculum framework as:

- Respect for a child perspective and acting in accordance with it;
- Operationalization of the children rights *to* education and *in* education. Taking children as the competent social actors capable to decide on the issues important for their education does not undermine a role of an adult but emphasises the importance of the adult support which is responsible and flexible to child's perspective (Prout and Hallet, 2003) and fulfilment of children rights in education.
- Emphasis on research with children as a way to include children's perspective, listening and consulting with children and children participation. Instead of a curriculum designed for and implemented on children with a goal to "normalisation", the curriculum is developed together with children to empower their participation.
- Children well– being as a program pillar (Pavlović Breneselović, 2010). A child is "being and becoming", not a set of 'potentials', a 'project in the making' (Verhellen, 1997 in Vudhed, 2012).

Postmodernism and poststructuralism. Postmodernism and poststructuralism promote the approach that views education as a complex system

which does not change by universal and objective laws and truths but incorporates a number of "truths", patterns and ways of thinking (Dahlberg et al, 2007; Mac Naughton, 2003). Regarding preschool curriculum that means:

- Preschool curriculum is not "taken for granted" as the model which have to be just implement in practice. Instead, it is a framework of basic values and principles to be operationalized in a specific context.
- Understanding of a child and his/her position in a preschool education incorporates different education actors' perspectives, including children's ones.
- In the process of curriculum development the cultural capital which children build through family habitus and bring into the education is taken into account. Curriculum is oriented to its transformation through development of social capital and not to acceptance of dominant social group's cultural capital (Bourdieu, 1993).

Poststructuralism. According to poststructuralism there are number of realities and interpretations which are built by the discourse and reflect different perspectives and interests. This underlines the importance of discourse in which knowledge can be perceived as different and as the expression of different perspectives (Slattery, 2006). An awareness of different meanings and readiness to acknowledge differences contribute to questioning of meaning of curriculum for different actors in education (Tzuo et al, 2011). Hence, the poststruralism provides the following approach to preschool curriculum:

- Discursive nature of the curriculum. For poststructuralists, the essential question is not the way of constructing knowledge but how is knowledge coconstructed. Therefore, the curriculum supports the participants in education to reconsider and reflect on the program discourse, to challenge actively the dominant discourses and de-construct them;
- Power sharing in a program design, de-construction of power, control and social justice issues (Arthur et al, 2012; Fuko, 2007);
- Encouraging reflexive and pro-active attitude to the identity. Poststructuralist approach to formation of identity oppose the developmental psychology identity understanding as "predetermined, rigid and universal pattern developed through socialization an reproduction" stating that "children have agency in building multifaceted identities" (Dahlberg et al, 2007: 57; MacNaugton, 2003) .

Characteristic of postmodern curriculum framework

Developing curriculum framework as a process

The process of development curriculum framework is "a part of the curriculum." This process reflects the approach to curriculum and curriculum philosophy. It is based on the multiperspectivity, collaboration and common meaning making. Therefore, it is realized as a multiyear project of consultation with policy makers, researchers, practitioners, parents, children and the relevant local community stakeholders. The process of development curriculum framework includes research of theoretical postulates, international experiences cultural-historical and curent context as well as different perspectives. It also assumes a continuous development, monitoring and evaluation in the practice.

This has been a way of development ECE curriculum frameworks for example in New Zealand and the Republic of Ireland (Krnjaja and Pavlović Breneselović, 2013). In the Republic of Ireland findings and results from the research and consultation process in developing the national curriculum framework, named Aistear, have been summed up in the four studies which have been used as the theoretical foundation for the conceptualisation of the curriculum framework: study on linking nurturing, upbringing and education; study on children learning and development; study on a play as the learning and development context; study on support to learning and development through the evaluation and assessment. The curriculum framework itself has the four units: Principles and topics; Good practice guide; Key research messages; Manuals for different preschool settings. The curriculum framework has been implemented through the collaborative project "Aister in Action." The project goal has been to investigate the ways of development and enrichment of kindergarten curriculum based on the Aistear. The project has encouraged and supported the practitioners to: reflect on and develop own practice for support children learning and development; explore the ways in which to use Aistear with the existing programs; share and disseminate good practice examples. The two publications, documenting Aister in Action have been issued.

Name of the curriculum framework as metaphor

One of the characteristics of the curriculum frameworks based on the postmodern approach is their name – instead the usual administrative-bureaucratic titles (program of preschool education, document, rulebook), their name is metaphoric. New Zealand curriculum`s name "*Te Whariki*", in Maori language means "weaved surface, everything what is on it". The

name of Irish curriculum framework "Aistear" means travelling in Gaelic language. *"Being, belonging, becoming"* is the name of the Australian curriculum framework while in one of its states curriculum framework has been named "*The Practice of Relationships*"**.**

The power of metaphor is in its poetic, innovative and interactive function. Metaphor is a "creative energy" that integrates imagination, cognition and understanding (Cameron, 2003:38). Its driving power comes from the fact that metaphor simultaneously communicates with feelings, experience and knowledge. Metaphor has the power to "engender thought in their coactivity, to open up spaces of imagination and action" (Cook-Sather, 2003:961) and to direct actions. Metaphor helps to express the essence through the "prosaic uses of language" (Bakhtin, in Cameron 2003:265).

The function of metaphor in curriculum framework is to express a new vision of education and to move the participants and community in action. Metaphor is the analogy to the main curriculum concept and approach that integrates and interweaves all segments of it. Metaphor enables the description and interpretation of the curriculum conception through familiar symbolic representations. However, metaphor is not only a comparison of two meanings or the replacement of one meaning by other. As an interaction between two semantic fields, it "shifts" the meaning of each one and leads to the new meaning. Therefore, metaphors are the best way to bridge epistemological gap between the previous and new knowledge.

For example, Te Whariki metaphor represents the idea that the program "as document and process and practice is a tapestry woven jointly by many hands, from many perspectives, approaches and cultures" (OECD, 2004: 17). It reflects networking approach and shifting of the early childhood education philosophy from the developmental to sociocultural orientation as a new "thread" (Krnjaja and Pavlović Breneselović, 2013).

Aistear metaphor reflects: interconnection and external networking with other education policy documents; guidelines to all adults involved in the pre-school children education; continuity between family, preschool and school education; a route of knowledge and experience sharing between practitioners, and practitioners and parents; child learning and development as a road that child makes (Krnjaja and Pavlović Breneselović, 2013).

Postmodern curriculum conceptualization

Curriculum framework conceptualization includes our understanding of child, his/her development and learning, relations, actors' positions and roles as well as their operationalization. We have introduced two con-

cepts for understanding postmodern way of conceptualizing the curriculum – curriculum toposes and networking as operationalization method.

Toposes of the curriculum are the key "places" from which content of curriculum framework and its operationalization are derived. The meaning od topos implies aiming for a center or source of activities (Rämö, 1999). French philosopher Roland Barthes describes topos (place) as follows:" ...Because, says Aristotle, in order to remember things it suffices to recognize the place where they happen to be (place is therefore the element of an association of ideas, of a conditioning, of a training, of a mnemonics); places then are not the arguments themselves but the compartments in which they are arranged. Hence every image conjoining the notion of a space with that of storage, of a localization with an extraction: a region (where one can find arguments), a *vein of some minerals*, a *circle*, a *sphere*, a *spring*, a *well*, an *arsenal*, a *treasury*, and even a *pigeon-hole*" (Barthes, 1988: 65 in Rämö, 1999).

Based on the literature review and analyze of curriculum frameworks (Arthur et al, 2012; McLachlan et al, 2010; OECD, 2012; Wilks, 2008), the following toposes have been identified:

A child as a competent being with evolving capacities and as rights holder. A child is perceived as powerful, with capacities that are supported and built on through the participation with adults and peers. Support to children stems from the belief and the faith in their competence, in what they know and can, not from the perception on what children lack and need. It does not mean that postmodernistic approach neglect and undermine the development theories but that we have to reconsider those theoretical postulates, review them critically and constantly reinvestigate their meaning in the given context.

Reflexive practice, critical thinking and actions. Rather than directing the practitioners to the external standards and practice codification, the postmodern approach is oriented to the explorative and reflexive approach to the practice in order to deepen the understanding of the practice. Therefore, the curriculum framework does not provide the practitioners with a "set of rules" and ready– made solutions to be implemented but provides the set of principles to encourage the critical reconsideration of the practice (Mac Naughton, 2003). By curriculum framework practitioners are encouraged to research own practice, to question the practice in different circumstances, to challenge dominant education discourses and seek for the alternative solutions.

Contextually appropriate practice. Postmodernistic programs are not based on the developmentally appropriate practice but on the contextu-

ally adjusted practice. The limits of programs based on the developmentally appropriate practice are: 1) Insufficient consideration of the social and cultural contexts in which children grow; 2) They are based on the normative developmental approach as an universal and predictive pattern of child development stages; 3) They focus on an individual child development rather than on a child in a socio-cultural perspective and viewing childhood in a social, cultural and political context.; 4) A child is seen as somebody coming into being, education and development are seen as a process of "becoming adult.“; 5) Child development patterns are based on the values and understanding child and childhood in a so called Western culture (Arthur et al., 2012; Mac Naughton, 2003; Vudhed, 2012).

Orientation toward the contextuality stresses that curriculum development has to take into account the "context in which children live, material and cultural resources available to their parents and community, the parents' and community striving and expectations regarding the children" (Vudhed, 2012:40) and the context, structure and culture of each preschool setting.

Chid wellbeing. Wellbeing is not an outcome of the pedagogical-psychological-didactic foundation of curriculum as an external framework made for a child. Instead, wellbeing is seen as inner property and quality of a child which is developed through the relations and activity with the adults, other children and the physical environment in a given community of practice. The development of well-being is multidimensional, interactive, dynamic and contextual process that integrates healthy and successful individual functioning, positive social relations and social environment characteristics (Pavlović Breneselović, 2010).

Respecting diversities. Postmodern curriculums emphasise diversity as a value and basis of education justice and equity, not as a deficit. They build on the cultural capital which children bring from their families and the communities they live in. By supporting interaction and networking they strive to build the sense of belonging and acceptance and the development of cultural capital through the social capital (Bourdieu, 1993). Diversities are seen as learning opportunities for exploration of power relations and construction of subjectivity as a multifaceted identity (Mac Naughton, 2003).

Collaboration and partnership. Postmodern curriculums are based on paradigm of mutual support and belief that "family and public education spheres of function overlap, creating a space for mutual support" (Pavlović Breneselović, 2012:129) and that the family is a primary child's educator.

That means orientation to the trust building between family and practitioners through the dialogue and joint activities in which the common understanding is build and family and community strengthened through the transformation of program, family and community. The function of collaboration and partnership between family, kindergarten and community also is to provide the real life experiences and the continuity of children learning and participation in different social settings.

Focus on the relations and development of learning community. The essence of education is interactions. The nature and quality of relations established with and by child are taken as the basis for the successful learning, development and wellbeing of a child. The issue of relations quality does not refer to the specific and single activities and interactions of and with child but to the overall child relation *with* and *within* the environments as the contextual and dyadic systems (Pavlović Breneselović, 2012a).

Postmodern approach focuses on the development of a learning community in which the culture is constructed and re-constructed through the interchange between child and adults and child and other children. Sometimes children lead this interchange and adults follow and vice versa. Such interactions provide the opportunity also for an adult to learn, develop and change gaining understanding of child, him/herself, and purpose of human functioning (Pavlović Breneselović, 2012a).

Intertwining learning, teaching and assessment. Intertwining of learning, teaching and assessment is supported through development a "meaningful program" for children and adults (Mac Noughton, 2003: 217; OECD, 2012). Meaningful program integrates real life situations and empower children to understand the complex social patterns or to discover the new meanings of the familiar concepts. Teaching situations are not viewed as the isolated "concentrated" learning situations independent from life situations and situational learning. Instead of one-off learning sequences on the topics selected according to adult's perspective what children should know, the learning happens through the projects that support integrated, exploratory and creative learning approach in which the "planned" and "spontaneous" experiences are equally important. The curriculum is developed through continuous adults' and children's self-evaluation, not only to strengthen their reflexive capacities in own learning but as the field of the joint reconsideration. Learning environment is "the third educator" (Rinaldi, 2002) which covers not only the environment as a physical space and equipment but also the social and symbolic space.

Documenting as process of curriculum development. The focus in documentation is shifted from documenting activities to documenting the meaning which these activities have for children and teacher and from documenting children individual characteristics to documenting the entire situation (Pavlović Breneselović, Krnjaja, Matović, 2012). Documenting is a preschool teacher's reflective practice tool to help him/her to understand better practice. It is a tool for emancipation and dialogue, exploration and reflection, the media for collaboration, multi-perceptivity, retrospective and perspective, re-construction of child's and preschool teacher's roles and synthesis of experiences, insights and meaning (more details in Krnjaja and Pavlović Breneselović, 2012).

Play as the core of curriculum. The play, due to its adaptive and flexible capacities has a key role in a child wellbeing development. Programs are oriented to adult`s reconsideration about play and about supporting children's participation in playing, non-discrimination, development of creativity and the child's best interest in "playing experience". The play is seen as learning context in which children explore the world and "possibly", build own cultural identity, discover and test different communication models and the world of symbolic expressions (Krnjaja, 2012). Learning *through* playing is operationalized regarding the time, space and ways of engaging the adults as well as respecting the continuity with the first primary education years. The special attention is given to the role of adults in children play and ways of supporting the play in order to protect the play from the two extremes: leaving play to itself or didactisation of play.

Postmodern curriculum frameworks key characteristic is networking. Their internal structure relies on the networking topology – a specific kind of network that connects each point with all the others (Capra, 1998). Postmodern curriculum framework conceptualisation follows basic network topology principles: 1) curriculum parts, points or network knots constitute the inter-connected whole. 2) Curriculum postulates are concretised through the operationalization of toposes interaction, not by the toposes' elaboration per se; 3) frameworks are open structures that can broaden indefinitely and include new toposes in the integrative code.

Postmodern curriculum frameworks use schemes to present the principles of interaction and networking. Scheme, as the other kind of symbolic language, reflect wholeness, networking and the process. Schematic representation has several functions:

- Scheme represents the complexity which could not be reduced to several selected key elements or themes as content that make the program. It presents multiple links and functions as the curricu-

lum framework in whole. It reflects the wholeness and toposes' connection and harmonization in the unpredictable context of curriculum development in every day practice.

- Scheme explicitly shows networking. Scheme allows connection of different parts and construction of different patterns but it always reflects the coherence of their relations. This kind of networking shows "the harmony of the whole connected with the preserved individual meaning and the conflict nature of pluralism "(Slattery, 2006:287).

- Scheme is an articulation of a dynamic process. It reflects cyclic action and hermeneutic process as opposed to the linear action and casual connections.

Schemes 2 and 3 are the examples of graphic representation of the New South Wales (NSW) and New Zealand curriculum frameworks.

Scheme 2. Graphic representation of NSW curriculum framework
(NSW Curriculum... 2001)
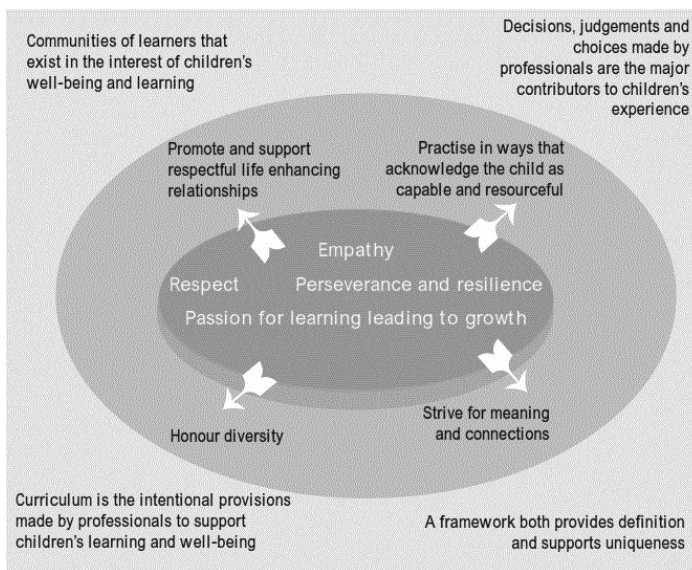
Scheme 3. Graphic representation of Te Whariki curriculum framework
(Ministry ..., 1996)
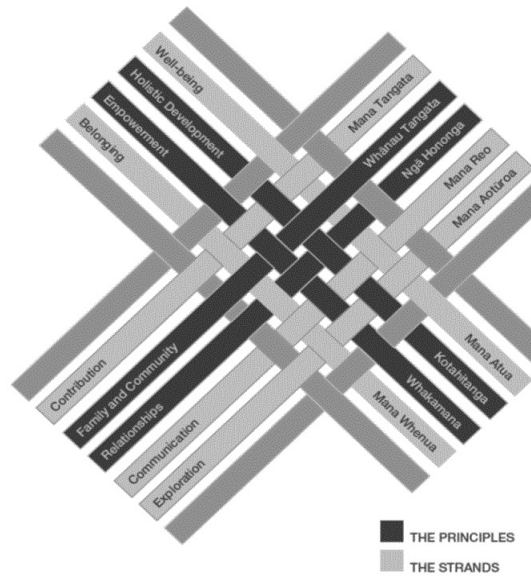
External networking

Provision of the conditions for external networking respects the principle of networking and enables interaction as the generic link through which the curriculum becomes the cultural and social project of the entire community, not the document written by experts (Moss, 2007; Wilks, 2008). External networking includes:

Conceptual linking of pre-school and primary school education. This ensures unique values as bases of the education policy and practice, the general social consensus, education system coherence and the continuity in children's education experiences.

Resources. Curriculum implementation implies parallel reorganization of all capacities and development of resources, for example: redesigning the space, organization of work and the additional equipment appropriate to the curriculum conception; provision of the relevant literature and ICT support through web-pages and virtual networking; development of local support centres and model centres as sites for collaboration and learning of practitioners, education policy designers and researchers. Program document must be complemented with a number of guides and manuals for the practitioners to help them in understanding the basic values of the curriculum and re-consider own practice accordingly.

Teacher initial education and professional development in the function of curriculum development. The initial education reform is due to make it coherent with the curriculum framework ideology and provides opportunities for preschool teachers to develop competence for the curriculum development. The practitioners' in-service education for the curriculum framework development is not reduced to introduction with the program document but focuses on the support to the practitioners' research and participatory evaluation as a means for curriculum development.

Support for contextualisation of curriculum framework. Curriculum is viewed as a process that develops and changes according to the given context. Also, the curriculum is perceived as the constantly supported and changing practice which does not remain on the level of once written document realized by the repetition of the same steps and actions. Furthermore, the curriculum development assumes re-structuring, re-culturation of kindergarten and diversification of the models and programs on the local community level.

System competence for the reflective practice. The support to the preschool teacher as the reflective practitioner is achieved by:

Promoting the development of communities of practice that re-consider the curriculum framework in the process of co-construction with colleagues, children and community members;

The role of the inspection/supervising bodies as a supporters in identifying difficulties and questions in curriculum development to be followed by their integration and solving through the regional or national projects;

Connecting practitioners, education policy decision makers and researchers through joint projects. That means abandoning administrative, controlling, bureaucratic and expert positions and development of collaborative partnerships between researchers, practitioners and policy makers.

Conclusion

From the position of researchers, in this paper we attempted to give our contribution on the issue of quality preschool curriculum framework. Understanding of the postmodern perspective on curriculum framework provides the foundation for a critical reconsideration of our curriculum-making practices and it could be the starting point for making recommendations for the future practice.

References:

Arthur, L., Beecher, B., Death, E., Dockett,S., Farmer, S. (2012). *Programming and planning in early childhood settings.* Melbourne: Cengage Learning.

Bennett, J. (2004). *Curriculum issues in national policy-making.* Keynote address. Paris: OECD//Malta, EECERA.

Bourdieu, P. (1993). *Sociology in question.* London: Sage.

Cameron, L. (2003). *Metaphor in educational discourse.* London:Continuum.

Capra, F. (1998). *Mreža života*: novo znanstveno razumijevanje živih sustava. Zagreb:Liberata.

Cook-Sather, A. (2003). Movements of Mind: The Matrix, Metaphors, and Re-Imagining Education. *Teachers College Record* (105): 946–977.

Dahlberg, G., Moss, P., Pence, A. (2007). *Beyond Quality in Early Childhood Education and*

Care, New York: Routledge.

Fuko, M. (2007). *Poredak diskursa.* Loznica: Karpos.

Hallett,C. and Prout, A. (eds) (2003). *Hearing the voices of children: Social policy for a new century*. London: RoutledgeFalmer.

Krnjaja, Ž. (2012). Igra kao susret: Koautorski prostor u zajednickoj igri dece i odraslih, *Etnoantropološki problemi*, (1): 251–267.

Krnjaja, Ž., Pavlović Breneselović, D. (2013). *Gde stanuje kvalitet. Politike građenja kvaliteta u predškolskom vaspitanju. Knjiga1.* Beograd: Institut za pedagogiju i andragogiju.

Lave, J., Wenger, E. (1990). *Situated Learning:Legitimate Peripheral Participation.* Cambidge: University Press.

Mac Naughton, G. (2003). *Shaping Early Childhood Learners, Curriculum and Contexts*. Berkshire: Open University Press.

McKernan, J. (2008). *Curriculum and imagination: process theory, pedagogy and action research.* London: Routledge.

McLachlan, C., Fleer, M., Edwards, S. (2010). *Early Childhood Curriculum: Planning, assessment and implementation.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Ministry of Education (1996). *Te Whariki – Early Childhood Curriculum*, Wellington: Ministry of Education New Zealand.

Moss, P. (2007). *Bringing Politics into the Nursery: Early Childhood Education as a democratic practice.* London: Institute of Education University of London.

NSW Curriculum Framework for Children's Services – The Practice of Relationships, Essential Provisions for Children's Services (2001). Sidney: NSW Department of Community Services. Office of Childcare.

OECD (2004). *Starting strong: Curricula and Pedagogies In Early Childhood Education and Care,* Paris:OECD.

OECD (2012). *Starting Strong III.* Paris: OECD.

Pavlovic, Breneselovic, D. (2010). Dobrobit deteta u programu naspram programa za dobrobit, *Nastava i vaspitanje,* (2): 251–264.

Pavlović Breneselović, D. (2012). *Od prirodnih neprijatelja do partnera.* Beograd: Filozofski fakultet Univerzitet u Beogradu.

Pavlović Breneselović, D.(2012a). Odnosi na ranim uzrastima. U: Baucal, A.(ur.) *Standardi za razvoj i učenje dece ranih uzrasta u Srbiji.* Beograd: UNICEF i Institut za psihologiju Filozofksi fakultet Beograd, str.133–149.

Pavlović Breneselović, D., Krnjaja, Ž., Matović, N. (2012). Pedagoška dokumentacija: perspektiva vaspitača, *Zbornik Instituta za pedagoška istraživanja*, 44 (2): 349–367.

Rämö, Hans (1999). An Aristotelian Human Time-Space Manifold: from chronochora to kairotopos**.** *Time&Society,* 8(2): 309–328.

Rinaldi, C. (2001). Documentation and assessment: What is the relationship? In Giudici*,* C., Rinaldi, C., Krechevsky, M. (Eds) *Making learning visible: Children as individual and group learners.* Reggio Emilia,: Reggio Children.

Rogoff, B., Goodman Turkanis, C., Bartlett, L. (2001). *Learning together: Children and adults in a school community*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Rogoff, B. (2003). *The cultural nature of human development*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Slattery, P. (2006). *Curriculum development in the postmodern era.* London: Routledge.

Tzuo, P., W., Yang, C., H., Wright, S. K. (2011). Child-centered education: Incorporating reconceptualism and poststructuralism. *Educational Research and Reviews* 6 (8): 554–559.

Vudhed, M. (2012). *Različite perspektive o ranom detinjstvu: teorija,istraživanje i politika.* Beograd: Institut za pedagogiju i andragogiju Filozofskog fakulteta u Beogradu i Centar za interaktivnu pedagogiju.

Wilks, A., Nyland, B., Chancellor, B., Elliot, S. (2008). *Analysis of Curriculum / Learning Frameworks for the Early Years (Birth to Age 8).* Melbourne: Victorian Curriculum and Assessment Authority.

*Matti Meri**

Some Old and New Approaches in Teaching-Studying-Learning Process – How to Find Connection Between Learning to Set Aims and to Use Teaching Methods

Abstract

In the discussion of using different kind of teaching methods there are two opposite opinions. Some researcher and teachers are thinking that for teaching any subject in the school teaching methods are needed which are typical for that subject. Some others will suppose that many school subjects can be teach with similar kind of method. In the article is discussed how one can understand teaching method and what is the nature of teaching method. Do different school subjects vary so much that

* University of Helsinki, Department of Teacher Education, Helsinki, Finland

for effect teaching unique teaching method is needed? Should the targets of teaching-studying-learning process influence in the teaching method that the teacher will use, or should the specific content of subject matter determine the method. Some theoretical ideas and also some practical solutions are presented.

Key words: teaching methods, learning aims, teaching and learning process.

When a researcher or someone who is interested in teaching in some classroom will enter to the class he cannot avoid the experience of following observation: teachers are mostly using same kind of teaching method and this method seems to be one-head-speaking method. When the visitor can stay longer time in the classroom he will recognize that there is one head, which is speaking, talking, telling and explaining. Sometimes it happens with very monotonous voice. Students are trying to follow this lesson more and less concentrated by writing some notes as well as the can. Students seem to be frustrated and if you are asking their opinions of this lesson you can hear often: not interesting and boring. It happens wherever teachers are socialized to use the simplest teaching method, direct instruction.

Direct instruction is the most common form of instruction. This is the lecturing method of teaching. Many teachers use this teaching method almost exclusively, as it is considered the simplest, and you can cover large amounts of material in a short period of time. However, this is not the most effective teaching method to reach all students, especially younger ones, who often need a more engaging, hands-on strategy in order to learn effectively. In addition, it is hard for teachers to tailor instruction to students at different levels.

Teachers and teacher educators who prefer pedagogical recipes and advices can find one very interesting and for them useful list of possible teaching methods from webpage http://teaching.uncc.edu/articles-books/best-practice-articles/instructional-methods/150-teaching-methods. Center for teaching and learning of the University of Carolina has published 150 different teaching method, in which teacher-centred and direct are i.e.:

Lecture by teacher

Class discussion conducted by teacher

Recitation oral questions by teacher answered orally by students

Lecture-demonstration by teacher

Lecture-demonstration by another instructor(s) from a special field, guest speaker

Finnish reality of teacher-centred approach in teaching is quite influential. Although Finnish nine graders (15 year old students) has got ex-

cellent results in international evaluations, Finnish teachers cannot claim that Pisa success would be doe to very innovative teaching approaches. Also in Finland the fact is that teaching in all school subjects is still quite traditional (Norris et al., 1996). After Pehkonen (2007) teaching in mathematics is mainly teacher centered, frontal teaching of the whole group of pupils but nevertheless pupils' active listening and involvement seem to be high. Many Finnish teachers want not to be too hasty and they want to be sure that pupils are following lesson seriously, maybe also trying to learn. Niemi (2004) investigated mathematic teaching in the primary classroom by a questionnaire of primary teachers. She found out that more than 60 % of teachers told that they use very often or often various cooperative teaching methods. But could one result in the same conclusion if he will visit the classroom.

As any good teacher knows, all students do not learn in the same way. In addition, it is common for a class of students to be at a variety of levels in any particular subject. Teachers need to use different teaching methods in order to reach all students effectively. A variety of teaching strategies, a knowledge of student levels, and an implementation of which strategies are best for particular students can help teachers to know which teaching methods will be most effective for their class.

Could individualization of lessons in the school be one solution? Many times one can recognize that the teacher is teaching the whole class, not individuals in the class. Frontal lessons (one head speaking) which are directed to all students sitting in the class (one head hearing and not listening) is still the most common teaching method because the teachers would like to be sure, that they have taught everything needed after curriculum. It is not so important what the students exactly have learnt.

For giving the students possibility to be more independent from the teacher and organizing student-orientated lessons Center for teaching and learning of the University of Carolina has given following tips as teaching methods:

> Tutorial: students assigned to other students for assistance, peer teaching
>
> Coaching: special assistance provided for students having difficulty in the course
>
> Tutorial: students assigned to other students for assistance, peer teaching
>
> Coaching: special assistance provided for students having difficulty in the course
>
> Discussion groups conducted by selected student chairpersons

Presentation by a panel of instructors or students
Student reports by individuals
Student-group reports by committees from the class
Debate (informal) on current issues by students from class
Panel discussion
Small groups such as task oriented, discussion,
Socratic method
Student construction of diagrams, charts, or graphs
Making of posters by students
Students drawing pictures or cartoons vividly portray principles or facts

Using student-orientated methods allows the teacher also to individualize more. Individualization means to understand accomplishment of teaching each student. They are given room to make and learn their own way, without too much teacher direction. To individuals directed way to teach starts when the students learn to put their own aims and targets for learning. The students cannot easily start to use any target putting methods because they are waiting for the teacher to give targets of the lesson. He/she should know the aims of the lesson but not the students. What is why the students do not learn to put their own learning target.

For giving evidence of common content matter discussion in classroom situation Lavonen and Juuti (2012) are describing the research from Lavonen and Laaksonen made 2009 where many Finnish students think that in most lessons they are given opportunities to explain their ideas and express their opinions about topics. Still the students do not usually are aware to put learning aims or targets to the lesson. Also In the classroom, a class debate or discussion occurs in few lessons. Finnish students seem to value the reciprocal interaction with the teacher instead of that in small groups or individual activities. In science education teachers frequently explain how science ideas can be applied to a number of different phenomena and for understanding the world as large. Students also encountered the relevance of broad science concepts to their lives through explanations by their classroom teachers.

Many teachers have learnt to use inquiry-based learning. They know that using inquiry-based learning takes a lot of time, energy, and planning, but it is often very effective. Students practice problem solving strategies and critical thinking skills to arrive at a conclusion. This teaching method is extremely student-oriented and student-directed, and can be modified for students at any level, reaching them where they are. Teachers will generally need to start by modeling inquiry-based the process to the students.

Center for teaching and learning of the University of Carolina propose following inquiry-based methods for teaching-studying-learning process:

Laboratory experiments performed by more than two students working together

Problem solving or case studies

Reports on published research studies and experiments by students

Library research on topics or problems

Applying statistical techniques

Interviews

Surveys

Also cooperative learning is a teaching method that is considered highly effective when done correctly. With this method students are put in small groups to work together. They are usually not grouped by ability, but put in a group with student at a variety of levels. The students are then given tasks to accomplish together. Teachers may need to monitor these groups carefully, to make sure they are staying on task and that all students are participating. This form of instruction also lends itself well to differentiation, because the teacher can assign specific tasks to students at different ability levels.

One application of cooperative learning has its origin from drama pedagogy. Toivanen (2012, 232–233) says that drama is method that can be used to shape groups in school classes emerging structural factors as well as the social competence of the group members. As a content of that method one can use storytelling, construction of a drama, role playing, group dynamics' techniques, plays, skits and dramatization.

Those methods can help all students to feel secure and enable school classes to perform their learning tasks better. Drama method can develop the knowledge of norms, statuses, roles, way of communication and especially cohesion in the class. This happens after Pennington et al. (1999, 358) in the continuing interaction among the group members and also influence in those interactions. Many researchers in several studies (e.g. Cooper 2010, Catterall 2009, Laakso 2004, Toivanen 2002) have got the result that using different forms of drama pedagogy will affect the development of the personality of the students. Those students who has have possibilities to take part to lessons where the teacher has used drama as teaching method are more confident, creative, better at solving problems and at coping stress situations.

One more common teaching method is to teach information processing strategies. While it is often advisable to have students really understand the teaching methods and not just memorize facts, there are some cases when facts need to be memorized. Facts and concepts may also need to be grouped or organized in order to facilitate better understanding. Teachers can use various teaching methods to help students with memorization, or they can use graphic organizers, mind maps, story webs, or other ways to represent information visually.

There are many, many more teaching methods, but these are the most common. If the teacher finds the best teaching method for a particular group of students, the students are likely to learn more quickly and be more engaged. In addition, using a variety of teaching methods will keep children from being bored, and help them encounter the information in new and exciting ways.

During the past years a debate about school education and the role of subject matter takes place constantly in a world where knowledge and ways of learning become progressively more fragmented. In one study of Meri and Maararen (2003, 47–48) the subject teacher students in the University of Helsinki were asked to analyze how adequate are there skills and competences to work as a subject teacher. They answered that the most important issue by teaching is the pedagogical knowledge and as the second place was the knowledge of teaching methods. After managing the classroom events they mentioned subject knowledge as a relevant factor.

Our economy standards demand and often promote a specialized working force in various fields with a lot of knowledge about a specific small area of science, who must act by only using their mind, without embracing the heart. Shulman (1974, 328) points out by quoting Brownell (1948), that school subjects are quite different and, therefore, require different acts of teaching. Brownell writes: From subject to subject, and within the same subject, arbitrary associations differ, skills differ; concepts differ, and withal students behavior differ. The differences reside, in part, in the intrinsic relations involved; trey reside in the opportunities afforded for the use of previous experience; they reside in varying amounts of complexity, the reside in sheer difficulty with respect to mastery.

But our lives cannot be dominated only by learning different subject knowledge. We do understand that we need much more than fragmented knowledge, something that many of us try to learn outside our usual studying and educational environment though hobbies for example. This process is based on the fact that people do not behave and act as Chaplin in his famous film Modern times, by just using their brains to do their usual activities, but they also have emotions and spiritual thoughts that

make them human and separate them for the machines. Arguelles (2011, 1) points out that actually for most of the world's ancient cultures mind and heart are not considered separately but as complementary dimensions of one unit, that work and act together to reach a state of intelligence. This view that the heart is a major center of cognition, emotion, will, insight, wisdom and spirit is the most important common feature of different cultures, tradition and world religions in the history of mankind).

The basic ideal of a holistic approach lies in the understanding of its key words: connectedness, parts and wholeness/unit. Holism describes the world and everything in it as wholeness, consisted of many identical parts, which are totalized by the unit. In fact the unit is important but only when it is seen though its parts. Parts and unit do not act separated but always together, and every change in a part influences immediately the unit! According to Miller (2005), "holism asserts that everything exists in relationship, in a context of connection and meaning– and that any change or event causes an realignment, however slight, throughout the entire pattern".

The ideas of the whole (Holon) and the total (pan) are widely spread in the ancient world. The well known Aristotelian phrase that "the whole is greater than the sum of its parts" has dominated the holistic movement so much that it has become one of its axioms. The integration of this thought in the education field has caused various influences to and from psychology, didactics, linguistics, even neuroscience that have supplied the environment on which various holistic aspects immerged.

Schreiner (2005) stresses that a holistic approach can be described with various adjectives also in modern education sciences. For a large group of modern educators the word holistic has the meaning of a multi– or interdisciplinary approach in teaching process. Speaking of such an approach in education we should imagine this as a process, where a student does not come along with separated lessons and subject contents in the implementation of her/his school curriculum, but instead subjects are taught her/him by teachers who can understand the relationship between different topics of the school curriculum and at the same time aiming better the knowledge the students should learn (Argyros 2009, 182).

Integration of teaching subjects and at the same time to educate students can be one method in achieving the development of them. Holism approach can be a method of integration, where teaching-studying-learning process occurs with all senses, with mind and body. Holistic process refers to an integral part of the pedagogy of action-oriented concepts based on Pestalozzi´s idea where learning with head, heart and hand, and where physical and emotional aspects are involved (Meyer 1998, 34). In this type

of teaching errors and misbehaving of the students are very important. On the one side they can be seen as an opportunity for perfection for the teacher, who sees in them the needs of his students, while at the same time he can strongly support the student, who in most cases feels disorientated. This "method" focuses less on progression based on rules and the collection of standard knowledge, but more on the individual learning process and on imitation, practical procedures and creativity.

Leinhardt (2001, 344–353) gives tools for using holistic teaching method when she suggest that one possibility to understand the similarities in subject teaching could be to analyze the method used in different lessons and to work with frame what he has developed. To that frame belongs a sense of query, the use and generation of examples, the role of intermediate representations such as analogies and models and lately the system of devices that limits or bounds explanations: identification of errors, common principles, and conditions of use. She gives several examples especially in history and mathematics. She pays great attention to goal setting: what kind of knowledge the teacher has what to teach and how to teach. She thinks that the teacher not only needs the knowledge of what and how to teach but also knowledge about the specific meanings of student actions. Leinhardt stresses that when analyzing teaching the analyst should concentrate to the system of setting goals. To that belong same issues that he includes in analyzing the use of teaching methods. Something interesting one can reveal in her thinking, namely why to teach do not belong to her goal setting process.

When analyzing the curriculum of Finnish schools, it is easy to find out what is the most important aim of school education. Many can guess that it is the content knowledge of different school subject, but maybe the development of personality will be the correct answer. (Curricula for basic education, 2005. Helsinki: Finnish national board of education). Also the arguments behind of this understanding one can find. What does that mean for using teaching methods in school lessons? Should the teachers of all school subject truly concentrate to try to fulfill this aim and if yes what happens with different subject contents? Is it enough that every society has members who know quite a lot or who are human beings in many ways.

After on international study made in Finland, Greece, Serbia and Slovenia at 2006 the teachers in those countries understand as every teacher's core competences in the field of subject content and using of teaching methods following. The think that already in learning and exercising teaching they should learn:

- to set targets and aims with pupils
- to plan lessons together with other colleagues and pupils
- to use coherent teaching approaches when teaching
- to individualize and differentiate
- to produce Teaching-Studying-Learning materials

Also they think that learning organizational competences, such as

- to organize a motivating Teaching-Studying-Learning environment
- to use students' knowledge and experiences when teaching
- to evaluate and control the Teaching-Studying-Learning process and students' behavior
- to guide the students to follow the common rules is highly needed.

What does those competences mean concerning learning to set aims and to use teaching methods? Key seems to be interaction in planning lessons together with students and in using their knowledge, to use broad variation of teaching methods whereby creating a motivating classroom environment is essential and the ability to individualize and differentiate. Although the students should be able to evaluate themselves it is also the teachers' task to evaluate and to guide students' learning and behavior.

After teacher education one young teacher started her lessons in very unusual learning environment. As her pupils started their school education they all entered to the empty classroom without any furniture, any picture, any plans. Only the pupils with their parents were staying in the empty classroom. And she started the discussion with her pupils with asking: Where are we now? Answer: in the school in the classroom. Have you been earlier in the classroom? Yes. When? Last spring when we visited this school. How the classroom looked at? Oh, it was full of tables and chairs and flowers and pictures. Do you think that we also need some of them. Yes. Why? Because we need tables for learning to write and we would like to sit when writing because we want to learn to write beautiful letters. This Socratian and holistic way to teach was her method and later every object and accessory which her pupils needed for learning could be carried into the class just before deep discussion of learning aims and of need of those objects and accessories. She used a simply and effective teaching method which opened the pupils' curiosity and inner motivation and will to learn. What we can learn from her?

References:

Arguelles, L. (2013). *The Heart in Holistic Education.*

http://www.livingwisdomschool.org/howtoapply/qsparsask/research/pdf.   (Stand 10.10.2013)

Argyros, I. (2009): *Der „fachübergreifende" Ansatz als holistische Revolution bei der DaF-Didaktik mittels neuer Medien in Griechenland.* In: Yuan Li und Jieping Fan (Hg.): Deutsch als Fremdsprache aus internationaler Perspektive. München: Iudicium, pages. 180–192.

Brownell, W. A. (1948). *Introduction: Purpose and scope of a yearbook. Measurement and Understanding.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Catterall, J. S. (2009). *Dooing Well and Dooing Good by Dooing Art: The Effects of Education in the Visual and Performing Arts on the Achievements and Valuesof Young Adults.* Los Angeles: Imagination Group/I-Group Books.

Cooper, C. (Ed.). (2010). *Making a World of Difference. A DICE Resource for Practitioners on Educational Theatre and Drama.*

www.dramanetwork.eu/file/Education%20Resource%20long.pdf   (Stand 10.10.2013)

Curricula for basic education (2005). Helsinki: Finnish national board of education.

Laakso, E. (2004). *Draamakokemusten äärellä. Prosessidraaman potentiaali opettajaksi opiskelevien kokemusten valossa.* Jyväskylä: Jyväskylä University Printing House.

Lavonen, J. and Juuti, K. (2012). *Science at Finnish Compulsory School.* In Niemi, H. & al. (Eds.) The Principles and Practices of Teaching and Learning in Finnish Schools. (pp. 131–148). Rotterdam/Boston/Taipei: Sense Publishers.

Lavonen, J. and Laaksonen, S. (2009). *Context of teaching and learning school science in Finland. Reflections on Pisa 2006 results.* Journal of Research in Science teaching, 46(8), 922–944.

Leinhardt, G. (2001). *Instructional Explanations: A Commonplace for teaching and Location for Contrast.* In Handbook of Research on Teaching. Fourth Edition. (pp. 333–369). American Educational Research Asociation.

Meri, M. and Maaranen K. (2003). *Only Practice, No Theory. Subject Teacher Students' Conceptions of the Pedagogical Studies.* Pedagogica 15. University of Helsinki, Faculty of Education.

Meyer, Hilbert. (1988). *UnterrichtsMethoden. I: Theorieband. 4. Auflage.* Frankfurt am Main: Cornelsen Verlag Scriptor GmbH & Co.

Miller, J. P. (2005): *Conclusion: Seeking Wholeness.* In: John P. Miller (Hg.): Holistic learning and spirituality in education. Breaking new ground. Albany: State University of New York Press, pages. 233–236.

Norris, N., Aspland, R., MacDonald, B., Schostak, J. & Zamorski, B. (1996). *An independent evaluation of comprehensive curriculum reform in Finland.* Helsinki: National Board of Education.

Niemi, E. (2004). *The national evaluation and exploitation in education policy of learning results in primary education.* University of Turku. Publications C216.

Pennington, D. C. et al. (1999). *Social Psychology*. London: Arnold.

Pehkonen, E. (2007). *To change or not to change – How primary school teachers speak about stability and change*. Nordic Studies in Mathematics education 12(1).

Schreiner, P. (2005): *Towards Holistic Education: A Challenge for Education Philosophy*.

http://ci-muenster.de/pdfs/themen/bildung 2.pdf.

Shulman, L. S. (1974). *The Psychology of School Subjects: A Premature Obituary.* Journal of Research in Science Teaching 2.4: 319–339.

Toivanen, T. (2002). *Mä en ois kyllä ikinä uskonu itsestäni sellaista. Peruskoulun viides– ja kuudesluokkalaisten kokemuksia teatterityöstä*. Helsinki: Yliopistopaino.

Toivanen, T. (2012). *Drama Education in the Finnish School System*. In Niemi, H. & al. (Eds.) The Principles and Practices of Teaching and Learning in Finnish Schools. (pp. 227–235). Rotterdam/Boston/Taipei: Sense Publishers.

http://teaching.uncc.edu/articles-books/best-practice-articles/instructional-methods/150-teaching-methods. (Stand 11.10.2013)

*Milan Stančić, Milica Mitrović, Lidija Radulović**

From Glorifying Method Toward Post-Method Stance: Searching For Quality of Teaching/Learning

Abstract

This paper deals with the changes in the way of conceptualizing method in the context of teaching and learning and their meaning for the study of quality in education. We have used two sources of information: didactic terminology relevant for understanding the methods and the way of conceptualizing the method. Overview and analysis of the relation of method with the related didactic terms (teaching approach, strategy, technique and organisational forms) have shown that the process of conceptualising method is still open. The paper discusses four ways of conceptualizing the method: teaching method, teaching/learning methods, post-method and methods taken as the expression of the mutual understanding of the participants in teaching/learning process. Both sources of information suggest that: (1) the current didactic moment can be considered as a period of re-defining comprehension of methods and position to the methods; (2) didactic literature includes modern, post-modern and critical concept of methods; (3) there are no uniform responses on what is quality of teaching/learning in respect to the methods; and (4) different tendencies in considering methods are linked to the different criteria for understanding the quality of teaching/learning. We have reached the conclusion that there are two opposed tendencies in conceptualising the methods: (1) glorification of

*　　University of Belgrade, Faculty of Philosophy, Belgrade, Serbia

method(s) by assiduous search for "good" – "quality" method(s) and (2) abandonment of the method concept in the favour of teachers' search for a "good" relation to the methods in teaching/learning context.

Key words: teaching method, teaching/learning methods, post-method concept, the ways of method conceptualisation, quality of teaching/learning.

Introduction

Even a cursory glance at the pedagogic theory and practice, particularly the one that could be considered contemporary, indicates different understanding and approaches to the study and practice of methods in teaching/learning[1]. The differences are not only about which methods are considered appropriate for the contemporary teaching (what assumes acceptance of the specific conception of education, including everything it covers) but also about the way of understanding what is the method, how it can be defined and how it is decided on in the process of planning and implementation of teaching/learning. Consideration and analysis of changes in the way of conceptualizing method may lead to comprehension of changes in the understanding of teaching/learning, thus provide one of the reference points for consideration of the quality of teaching/learning.

Starting from the belief that search for the understanding of teaching/learning quality can start from didactic theories and different ways of understanding teaching/learning (and not only from documents and papers on quality in education), this paper attempts to find the understanding of teaching/learning quality from didactic tendencies perspective with methods being in the centre of attention. We shall deliberate the ways of conceptualising and changes in understanding the method by reviewing:

- Didactic terminology relevant for understanding method and discussions of changes in the meaning of relevant terms and the relation of the method with those terms,
- New approaches to method, that is, new concepts of method and views on what a method is in the context of teaching/learning.

Based on this, we shall try to notice some tendencies in understanding the method and their meaning for understanding and exploration of the quality of teaching/learning.

---

1   In this paper we will use the term *method* or *methods* as generic terms which encompass various ways of conceptualising method which will be discussed further in the paper.

What the Terminology Can Tell Us

A look at didactic terminology definitely shows that there are many terms linked to the method, that the new terms occasionally appear, but also that their meaning is not always completely clear and same in each context. These terms are often intertwined, sometimes equalised, partially overlapping or are mutually exclusive. Besides the term method, the didactic literature also uses the terms like techniques, strategies, organisational forms, teaching approaches, teaching models, etc. The very number of terms proves the importance of this issue for the didactic theory and practice, while their different meanings indicate the connection with the different didactic views. All of this suggests that *the current moment in didactics is characterized by the changes in understanding rather that a particular understanding of a method.* We can get more insights on this by clarifying the essential meaning of the method concept and separating it from the other related terms/concepts.

Method, in its broadest sense, denotes the way in which something is done (from Greek word *methodos* that in an abstract sense mean a path, a journey), especially if this way is systematic and clearly determined (Oxford Dictionaries). The contemporary didactic conceptions complement this basic meaning with some other characteristics. Namely, this term is used for a way to achieve some pre-set goal (Meyer, 2002), to denote the established practice which can serve as a regulation, recipe (Bell, 2003; Richards & Rodgers, 2001), or theoretically and scientifically based way of work (Kumaravadivelu, 1994). The variations in the meaning of the concept of method bring it more or less closer to some related didactic terms.

Teaching approach and method. When establishing method ensues directly from the major changes in understanding teaching/learning process (and emphasis such shift), the term method may mean both – the way of teaching in practice and the comprehensive understanding of teaching, *i.e.* approach to teaching. Here is one example. Starting from the constructivist perspective critique of traditional teaching, the accent in determining the method is shifted from teaching (as teacher's activity) to the learning process (of pupils); in other words, method is perceived as a plan for initiating pupils' learning. This deviation from the traditional Herbartian didactics in the modern way of conceptualising method is reflected in determining method as a relation between organising teaching activities and desired learning processes to be ensured for pupils (Klafki, 1994: 29). Accordingly, the way of teaching is based on the pupils' activities and interactions between pupils, teacher and pupils and pupils with different sources of knowledge. Such way of work is called «interactive teaching methods»

but the phrase «interactive teaching» is also widely used. Therefore, in this case a term method is linked both to the way of teaching (in the sense of interactive feature of pupils' activities) and the comprehensive understanding of education in teaching, namely the teaching approach oriented to the pupils' activities and experience, with the emphasize on importance of various education goals, and not on education contents and their transmission. Such teaching/learning approach is also known as Deweyan – as opposed to Herbartian, constructivist – opposed to instructivist (Westwood, 2008) or experiential and revealing – versus explanatory (Jacobsen, Eggen & Kauchak, 1993). If we were to develop a short vocabulary making a strict distinction between the basic didactic terms, it would be possible to distinguish the meaning of terms approach and method. However, it does not change the fact that some of the contemporary understandings of method bear the characteristics of teaching approach.

Even when the usage of terms denoting connection between method and approach is not so obviously synonymous, it is impossible to present the concept of method in its full sense separating it from the approach to teaching. Although some methods may initially seem to depict the characteristics of certain teaching approach (or even that they are alone characteristics of them), the presence of method itself does not tell enough about the teaching approach. Furthermore, the same method gets different qualities in different teaching approaches. For example, although a lecture is at the first sight common method in the traditional teaching, it is no less important method in the interactive type of teaching. However, in this approach, the lecture as a method changes significantly: for example, the choice of content, duration of lecture, senses engaged during the lecture, the role of those listening the lecture, place and role of lecture in the teaching/learning process are different. In other words, lecture is a method of both traditional (instructive, explanatory) and constructivist (interactive, experiential and exploratory) teaching/learning, but in these approaches it differs to such an extent that it is questionable whether this really is the same method. This applies to other methods as well because their purpose and meaning can be seen only within the comprehensive approach to the teaching/learning they are a part of.

Hence, the name of a method and the "application" of certain method in teaching (particularly if this is occasional) do not tell us enough about the approach to teaching and the essential nature of the teaching/learning process taking place with a certain method. This is also important from the perspective of assessing the quality of certain teaching in practice. The recent years teaching practice in Serbia shows the usage of methods enabling more interaction than before. However, it is possible that these meth-

ods sometimes increase the dynamic in a classroom and are attractive, but it does not mean that this kind of teaching is based on constructivism, that it reflects all the characteristics of interactive methods and that such teaching is verily interactive. To achieve this, it is necessary to comprehensively base teaching on the new standpoints, while "the implementation of the interactive methods, within the didactic-psychological contextual basis denoting transmission type of teaching, except the manifest appeal, does not mean much" (Mitrović, 2011: 170).

The above is just an example to clarify the relation between the concepts method and approach. The same logic is applicable even if replace the previous bipolar distinction of approaches (traditional and interactive) with some else. Nowadays, there are various categorisations of teaching approaches. They are sometimes referred as models of teaching or teaching perspectives (see: Bruner, 2000; Havelka, 2000; Joyce & Weil, 1986; Mitrović & Radulović, 2011, Pratt et al., 1998; UNESCO, 2004). Although discussion of different teaching approaches and their classifications are beyond the scope of this paper, we should point out that their substance is always about the comprehensive and fairly coherent understanding of the goals of education, teaching/learning process, position, roles and nature of those who learn, etc. This entity provides the framework for more than understanding and functioning of methods. In a certain sense, the method is not only one element of the teaching approaches, but the approach itself determines the method, represents the component of a method. Method becomes what it is only within a certain approach.

Teaching strategy and method. The substance of discussion on drawing a line between terms method and approach very much resembles drawing a line between method and teaching strategy. This term, usual in English language literature, refers to the general action plan, the teaching pattern in function of achieving the desired goals (Smith, 1960; Van der Horst & McDonald, 1997), that is, the tactic used by teachers to promote students' learning during the class (Friedman & Fisher, 1998). It is obvious that such definition highly overlaps with the concept of method – in a sense of a way to achieve the goal, or the concept of approach – as a kind of guiding idea for the choice of methods and actions to ensure learning. We can say that the strategy is the link between the approach, as a comprehensive understanding of teaching, and method, in a sense of the individual lesson activities (method in a narrow sense). However, the relation between the terms method and strategy is not always the same. Strategy is usually the reference point in making choice on the specific methods and techniques to use. For example, this is the meaning of individual, cooperative and competitive teaching strategies discussed by Johnson i Johnson

(1989) who emphasize that the application of different strategies leads to the realization of different teaching/learning goals. It is obvious that each method cannot be appropriate for each strategy. However, the meaning of the method and the possibility to achieve the goal with it depend on the systemic and consistent adherence to the one kind of strategy. The same authors in their study show that some of the goals may be achieved only if the teaching is organized in a cooperative learning way, systematically and consistently over a longer time. This is particularly important for the goals such as accepting and respecting differences, development of positive attitude to the school and learning, development of the positive self-image etc. Therefore, occasional application of a certain method requiring the cooperation between pupils is not sufficient to achieve those goals. Although the quoted authors do not use the term teaching approach, we may add that the choice of strategies and specific methods are directly connected with the teaching approach. For example, it is logically improbable that the cooperative strategy can yield from understanding teaching as transmission or that the cognitive teaching approach will attempt to realize psychosocial education goals. Therefore, *the essence of the individual method can be viewed only in the context of approach and strategy of teaching/learning.* The method in the above case represents the elaboration and realisation of the strategy. In other words, it stems from the selected strategy and gets the meaning according to the strategy.

Some contemporary didactic views replace methods with strategies. While the advocates of the post-method approach criticize closeness and contextual insensitivity of methods, they do not deny a need for landmarks in making decisions on the activities and paths to the achievement of goals in teaching. Therefore, with abandoning of the term method, they suggest usage of the term teaching strategy (Brown, 2001; Marton, 1988). The advocates of such perspective on methods speak about macro strategies as universal theoretical, research and experiential based tactics or principles (Kumaravadivelu 1994, 2001, 2003). For example, some of the micro strategies in teaching foreign languages, which could also be used for the other areas, are: to facilitate interaction, promote pupils' autonomy, ensure social relevance, etc. (*Ibid.*, 2003). Starting from them, the teachers could find micro strategies as the way to implement macro strategies in a specific situation and context. In this sense, strategies become a replacement for methods or at least an attempt to assure both scientific foundation and contextual sensitivity to the method.

Technique and method. The above terminological distinctions show that the method is often viewed as a way to realize ideas of some theoreti-

cal base of teaching or a preset goal. Reducing the understanding of method to an action or procedure to fulfil the task or achieve the preset goal brings the terms method and technique closer. Sometimes the method and technique are even seen as a kind of recipe or routine procedure leading to the achievement of a goal (Bell, 2003; Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Such understanding of method corresponds to the use of terminology "choice" and "implementation" of methods and techniques. This may imply that methods and techniques exist independently from the teaching approach and specific context, that is, they can be transferred and implemented in any context. Such understanding of methods develops in parallel with and opposed to the understanding of methods as inseparable from teaching approach. When method is understood narrowly, as the elaborated way to achieve preset goal, it could be said that the terms method and technique are of the same level, although technique may also stand for various ways of the concretisation of a certain method through a detailed specification of steps and procedures to be taken.

Organisational forms and method. Forms of organisation are yet another didactic term often used to precisely explain the way in which teaching and learning activities occur. This term refers to the social way of organisation: frontal, in groups, pairs, individually. As it basically does not describe a kind of activity, but only the way of social organisation during the activity, traditional didactic terminology, especially in Serbian literature, usually uses it separately from the method – as one more information about the way of teaching and learning. Therefore, traditional classifications of methods are completely separated from the classifications of the organisational forms, which implies that the social relations during learning are not seen as a part of the process itself. As the contemporary knowledge on education and teaching/learning indicate that the learner's interaction and its kind are the key aspect of the teaching/learning process, the methods are viewed from the perspective of the learner's activity (learning). In this context, *the (social) organisational forms of teaching and learning become the aspect of method.* In other words, the form of social organisation (and social relations) determines the method. Accordingly, didactic terminology nowadays blends the social form of organisation with the name of methods (for example in: Ivić, Pešikan & Janković-Antić, 2001; Macpherson, 2007; Pavlović Breneselović & Pavlovski, 2000; Velat & Radić Dudić, 2008). For example, there is a method called "small groups discussion" (indicating that this kind of discussion differs from the frontal discussion method) or "problem solving in pairs" (indicating that this kind of learning is not the same as when the problem is solved individually), etc.

The Four Ways of Conceptualizing Method

This review of the relation between method and other relevant didactic terms and of the changes in the meaning of their inter relations shows that the *process of conceptualizing method is still open.* Not only that new projections of education and new concepts of teaching and learning are developed, which repeatedly re-set relations between didactic entities, but also new conceptualizations of method and completely new methods emerge. This process has been especially intense during the last decades. We see it as a part of more and more pronounced tendency to explore teaching and learning and its phenomena in the given socio-cultural context with integrating relevant findings about the socio-cultural approach to teaching and learning, curriculum and literacy studies and other related interdisciplinary studies that share the common approach to teaching and education within the post-modern tradition. The issue of method in this new scientific context is still very current, but the ways of considering method have been enriched and changed. Phenomenologically speaking, we can distinguish at least *four ways of conceptualizing method.* We shall name them in the manner they are used in the didactic literature: (1) teaching method, (2) teaching/learning methods, (3) post-method concept and (4) method as the expression of the mutual understanding of intentions of the participants in teaching/learning process. We shall proceed with a brief presentation of each of them and continue with discussing the meaning of these changes for the study of the teaching/learning quality.

Teaching method. This is the oldest and the best-known conceptualization of method in European didactic tradition. Method has been the focus of all esteemed pedagogical theoreticians and even today it is unavoidable theme in the university didactic textbooks. This conceptualisation has always been underpinned by several intentions: (1) to ground the method scientifically so that it represents "purposeful and systematic way of managing pupils' work during the teaching process" (Trnavac & Đorđević, 2007: 276); (2) to develop universal system of methods applicable in different formal education areas and (3) to give a detailed description of the method's characteristics, conditions and the ways of its application. The above has resulted in many definitions of methods, classifications based on different criteria, descriptions of the concrete methods and attempts to apply and specify them in the subject didactics. This marks the beginning of glorifying teaching method or a kind of pan-methodism (after J. A. Comenius). From today's distance, it seems that the adjective "teaching" in the phrase "teaching method" has acquired by time and for a long time kept expressing the meaning of method as something *obligatory, unchangeable and closed.*

Over time, such understanding of method has proven to be insufficient in the different areas: goals of formal education (tensions between teaching and education methods), multimedia education environment (new media are source of new types of interactions), different education concepts and teaching models (as already pointed out – nominally same method does not function in the same way in the different teaching approaches). Moreover, the system of universally applicable methods for different areas of educational work has never been found. The awareness has risen that the teaching method concept has been developed for the transmission type of teaching and that it is insufficient in the context of different understanding of teaching. There are also tensions between didactic and subject didactics of the education work, thus some authors today deem that didactic should be „[...] freed from the tasks it cannot solve" and that it is time to confess that teaching methods and their elaboration are the issue of subject didactics. (Bognar & Matijević, 2005: 268).

Teaching/learning methods. Used up and exploited meaning ascribed to the "teaching method" is one of the reasons to think in terms of "teaching/learning methods." This conceptualisation (which does not have a single starting point) offers several novelties. Firstly, the method is seen flexibly in the structure of teaching/learning process. Meyer (2002: 46) has given the most comprehensive explanation. He explains the methods on the three methodic levels and shows that sometimes "large methodic forms" on the macro level (like project work, learning on public squares, etc) are long-lasting and provide the framework for the selection and usage of other methods on the mezzo-methodic level. On the mezzo level, the author distinguishes following „dimensions of methodic action": (1) social forms of work (2) action patterns (teaching method in a sense of the earlier conceptualisation) and (3) the organization of teaching course; on the micro level, there are "staged" teacher's and pupils' techniques during the concrete class. This explanation shows that the answer to question "what is method" – depends on the methodic level from which we look at it and that the same method can have different functions and meanings in relation to the course and goals of teaching/learning. The answer is also different from the perspective of different pedagogic disciplines, different didactic theories, models and teaching conception. As an illustration, Kiper i Mische (2008: 109) point out that in "the didactic oriented to achieving learning goals" the method is seen in the function of achieving a goal, while in the "constructivist didactic" [...] "method has a crucial role in the construction, deconstruction and reconstruction" of the subject of learning. The conceptualization of method also involves an attempt to broaden the concept of method by including certain research methods

pertinent to the scientific area. In this sense, method „[...] should never be developed isolated from the content" and they can also sometimes be the teaching "themes" or the important elements of teaching theme (Klafki, 1994: 25). We should also note that the *number of the described methods and techniques is constantly increasing* justified by the argument that the "pluralism of the forms of learning calls for the pluralism of methods." (Terhart, 2001: 47). Thus, Winkel (1994) distinguishes 173 methods; Meyer (*Ibid.*) lists 250 methods and about 1000 techniques. Also, some methods are drawn closer to the forms of learning, new methods to change/develop certain qualities of teaching are developed and completely new methods appear which, like "broad methodical forms", make the frame of reference and are realised by the application of several other methods. A particular novelty regarding the concept of method are the attempts to consider and define the function of method in *establishing relation between teaching and learning* and to *increase teachers' and pupils' ownership of the methods*. In this sense, the methods that would lead pupils to their own methods or the methods that would ensure pupils' subject position in the teaching and learning process are mentioned (Mitrović, 2011).

Post-method Concept. This way of conceptualisation is mainly developed within the applied linguistic and as a form of the foreign languages teachers resistance to the non-functionality of the previous concepts of method. During the decades of adherence to the general didactic views on the teaching method and different pedagogic projection of the language education, the lists of the desired methods have been replacing each other in the foreign language teaching. Kumaravadivelu (2006) presents them as the three generations of differently oriented methods (methods oriented to language, *i.e.* to content, methods oriented to pupils, methods oriented to the learning process) always accompanied by new myths on efficiency. In this area, as of 1991 the symbolic „*death" of the teaching method concept* has been proclaimed and the post-method concept and so called post-method pedagogy have been developed. The post-method logic is expressed in the necessity to „[...] substantially change the perception of language in the education, teacher education and the pedagogic perspectives on teaching" (*Ibid.*: 169). In his papers, this author projects post-method pedagogy as a "three-dimensional system" of pedagogical parameters (1) particularity (2) practicality and (3) possibility. The first parameter denotes sensibility to the specificity of the teachers and pupils community in the concrete socio-cultural context embedded in the socio-cultural environment. Practicality is considered responsible for a new relation between theory and practice, for the teachers' capacity to monitor own practice and the effectiveness of teaching, and for the transformative

role of education. Parameter of possibility is considered in the light of P. Freire's philosophy, particularly his notions on the possibility of developing education practice where the experience from the social environment are brought into the classroom and have a potential to change (prescribed) education goals and activities in accordance with the educational needs of concrete pupils. In this orientation, design, choice, application and evaluation of the applied methods are completely transferred to the teacher. To apply this concept, the professional teacher education should make teachers competent to develop own theories in practice.

Method as the expression of the mutual understanding of intentions of the participants in teaching/learning. This conceptualisation stems from the critical pedagogy and understanding the teaching/learning process as essentially contextualised process: regardless of how we name or project the method, its final verification comes from sharing the intentions and achieved understanding between pupils and teachers in the teaching/learning process. There are a number of goals in advocating for such understanding of method. First, it is a reaction to the eclecticism in the choice of method and a reaction to the policy of standardising achievements which often has a manifestation in delivered "packages" (prescribed goals – prescribed contents, prescribed textbooks and methods – prescribed outcomes). Secondly, it presents the resistance to the frequent practice of proclaiming changes in methods (and not their footholds) as the reform of education. Last, but not least, it is a resistance to the centuries of forgetting that pupils are the ultimate beneficiaries of teaching/learning methods, thus presents a strive to change the education practice on the principles of new knowledge on language and learning in the institutional context. This is also a devotion for the teachers' autonomy in a post-method sense (with accent on the meaning of *method in the context*) and for the teachers' reconsideration of methods. Edelsky, Altwerger & Flores (1991: 43) argue that not a single method is "good" or "bad" *per se*, but the "same" method used with different professional beliefs "becomes a different method", that is, professional beliefs of teachers, paradigm and the framework of work "in action" give the meaning to a certain method. Similarly, Huitt (2003) argues that the teaching models and methods differ due to the specific interpretation of the learning/teaching concepts and principles. It is important that the teachers master the methods but it is even more important that they understand the concepts and principles underpinning them. He quotes (*Ibid.*) R. W. Emerson's statement: "If you learn only the methods, you will be tied to them, but if you learn the principles you can design your own methods."

Tendencies in Conceptualising Method and Studies of Teaching/Learning Quality

The given brief overview of the meaning of terms used in the contemporary didactics regarding methods and the contemporary understanding of methods leads to the conclusion that the current didactic moment can be called *a period of redefining methods and relation to them.* Instead one answer to the question which methods represent contemporary understanding of teaching and what are the characteristics of the teaching that may be considered a quality one, we will show different tendencies in considering the issue of methods that yield different types of criteria for understanding the quality of teaching. Through the integration (and probably simplification) of different aspects of understanding methods, the two kinds of tendencies appear:

- Starting from the assumption that the presence of a specific method (or methods) in teaching may be taken as the characteristic of the quality teaching, this tendency is oriented to the search for "good" – "the best" – "quality" methods, their detailed elaboration, scientific basis and empirical testing. In the contemporary understanding of teaching/learning, these probably are interactive and cooperative methods oriented to the pupils activities and not to the knowledge transmission. In this sense, the method itself is glorified: *choice and application of a "good" method* (implicitly from the list of different methods and independently from the specific students, teachers and context) is the indicator of quality teaching/learning and perhaps a magic wand that leads to the achievement of the desired goals in a quality manner. In a certain way, this applies to the concepts of teaching method and methods of teaching/learning because both assume that the methods *per se* determine the quality of teaching/learning. It is not usually explicitly stated that there is only one good method but the selection and usage of the methods is viewed as takeover (in principle from the specific scientific knowledge system) and application (according to the specific guidelines). The selection is made according to the preset teaching goals and contents (the goals and contents themselves are independent in this process). It is appropriate to state that the teacher applies a method (which is pre-designed, finalised and closed). The understanding of method very much resembles the understanding of the technique which teacher will use provided s/he is well prepared to do so. This tendency may be considered as modernistic.

- Starting from the critique of mono-methodism and the glorification of methods as closed, contextually independent and standardised, searching for "good" method(s) is replaced by searching for "good" stance to the methods. This perspective implies that methods can be good in different ways and that the *adequacy and value of a method can be judged only in the context*, thus it depends on the specific pupils and teachers. This assumes consideration, selection, application and adjustment of methods as well as the reflection on and re-consideration of the contents, goals, needs and capacities of pupils, teachers and environment. The teacher's personal theories, strategies and his/her ways of work are important in this process. Understanding methods is brought closer to the understanding of approaches or at least teaching strategies. Therefore, even in this case the teacher has certain landmarks (principles) but they do not stem only from a micro-plan and are not recipes, but they assist in monitoring and decision making process, and their meaning should also be reconsidered in the context. The typical contemporary landmarks are connected with the contemporary theories of education and didactic theories, as well as with the social values (*e.g.* participatory and subject position of the pupil, education justice). This tendency may be considered as post-modern or critical.

Conclusion

This paper discussed the changes in the way of conceptualizing method and their meaning for studying the quality of teaching/learning. Our starting points were the didactic terminology relevant for understanding methods and the current conceptualisations of method. This has led us to the following conclusions: the didactic literature contains modern, post-modern and the critical concepts of method; different tendencies in considering the issue of method are the source of different types of criteria to understand the quality of teaching/learning; there are opposing tendencies in this area – tendency of glorifying method through persistent search for "good"/"quality" method(s) and the tendency of abandoning the teaching method concept in a favour of teachers' search for a "good" relation to methods in the context of teaching/learning.

References:

Bell, D. M. (2003). Do teachers think that methods are dead? *ELT Journal.* 61, pp. 135–143.

Bognar, L., & Matijević, M. (2005). *Didaktika* [The didactics]. Zagreb: Školska knjiga.

Brown, D. H. (2001). *Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Bruner, J. (2000). *Kultura obrazovanja* [The culture of education]. Zagreb: Educa.

*Edelsky**, C.**, Altwerger**, B.**, & Flores**, B.** (1991). *Whole Language**: What's the. Difference*? Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann Publishers.

Friedman, M. I., & Fisher, S. P. (1998). *Handbook on effective instructional strategies: Evidence for decision-making. Columbia**, SC**:* Institute for Evidence-Based Decision Making in Education.

Havelka, N. (2000). *Učenik i nastavnik u obrazovnom procesu* [Student and teacher in the education process]. Beograd: Zavod za udžbenike i nastavna sredstva.

Huitt, W. (2003). Classroom instruction. *Educational Psychology Interactive.* Valdosta, GA: Valdosta State University.

Ivić, I. D., Pešikan, A. Ž., & Janković-Antić, S. V. (2001). *Aktivno učenje 2 – Priručnik za primenu metoda aktivnog učenja – nastave* [Active learning 2 – Guidebook for the use of active learning methods]. Beograd: Institut za psihologiju.

Jacobsen, D., Eggen, P., & Kauchak, D. (1993). *Methods for Teaching: A Skills Approach* (4th ed.). New York: Merrill.

Johnson, D., & Johnson, R. (1989). *Cooperation and competition*. Edina, MN: Interaction.

Joyce, B., & Weil, M. (1986). *Models of teaching*. (3rd ed). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Kiper, H., & Mischke, W. (2008). *Uvod u opću didaktiku* [The introduction to general didactics]. Zagreb: Educa.

Klafki, W. (1994). Didaktika kao teorija obrazovanja u okviru kritičko-konstruktivističke znanosti o odgoju [Didactics as a theory of education within critical-constructivist educational science]. In H. Gudjons, et al. (Eds.), *Didaktičke teorije* [The didactical theories] (pp. 13–32). Zagreb: Educa.

Kumaravadivelu, B. (1994). The postmethod condition: (E)merging strategies for second/foreign language teaching. *TESOL Quarterly*, 28, pp. 27–48.

Kumaravadivelu, B. (2001). Toward a postmethod pedagogy. *TESOL Quarterly*, 35, pp. 537–560.

Kumaravadivelu, B. (2003). *Beyond methods: Macrostrategies for language teaching.* New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.

Kumaravadivelu, B. (2006). *Understanding language teaching: From method to postmethod.* London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.

Macpherson, A. (2007). *Cooperative Learning – Group Activities for College Courses – A Guide for Instructors.* Canada: Kwantlen University College.

Marton, W. (1988). *Methods in English language eaching: Frameworks and options.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Meyer, H. (2002). *Didaktika razredne kvake* [The didactics of class teaching]. Zagreb: Educa.

Mitrović, M. (2011). O novim konceptima metoda u nastavi [On new concepts of method in teaching]. *Pedagogija*, 66, pp. 168–172.

Mitrović, M., & Radulović, L. (2011). Načini razumevanja i konceptualizovanja kvaliteta obrazovanja u nastavi [The ways of understanding and conceptualising quality of education in teaching]. In N. Kačavenda-Radić, D. Pavlović-Breneselović, R. Antonijević (Eds.), *Kvalitet u obrazovanju* [Quality in education] (pp. 135–155). Beograd: Institut za pedagogiju i andragogiju, Filozofski fakultet Univerziteta u Beogradu.

Oxford Dictionaries, Online Edition: http://oxforddictionaries.com/

Pavlović Breneselović, D., & Pavlovski, T. (2000). *Interaktivna obuka: priručnik za obuku voditelja interaktivne obuke* [The interactive teaching: Guidebook for training moderators of interactive teaching]. Beograd: Institut za pedagogiju i andragogiju, Filozofski fakultet Univerziteta u Beogradu.

Pratt, D. D. & associates (1998). *Five Perspectives on Teaching in Adult and Higher Education.* Malabar, Florida: Krieger Publishing.

Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. (2001). *Approaches and methods in language teaching* (2nd ed.). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Smith, B. O. (1960). *A Concept of Teaching.* Teachers College Record.

Terhart, E. (2001). *Metode poučavanja i učenja – uvod u probleme metodičke organizacije poučavanja i učenja.* Zagreb: Educa.

Trnavac, N., & Đorđević, J. (2007). *Pedagogija* [The pedagogy]. Beograd: Naučna knjiga Komerc.

UNESCO (2004). Global monitoring report 2005. *Education for all, the quality imperative.* UNESCO Publishing.

Van der Horst, H., & McDonald, R. (1997). *Outcomes based education: a teachers manual.* Pretoria: Kagiso.

Velat, D., & Radić Dudić, R. (2008). *Aktivna obuka: priručnik za trenere/ice* [Active training: Guidebook for trainers]. Beograd: Dial.

Westwood, P. (2008). *What teachers need to know about teaching methods.* Australia: ACER Press.

Winkel, R. (1994). Didaktika kao kritička teorija nastavne komunikacije [The didactics as a critical theory of communication in teaching]. In H. Gudjons, et al. (Eds.), *Didaktičke teorije* [The didactical theories] (pp. 95–113). Zagreb: Educa.

Radovan Antonijević*

Aspects of Moral Education in Primary School

Variety of activities are performed in primary school that belong to the field of moral education, as a systematic influence on the moral development of students and their key habits of moral behaviors. As an important factor in the field of moral education in primary school, there is the whole school order, as organized systems of different rules by which school functions as a well-organized system. Also, the peer group in the school plays an important role in the moral development of each student. Social pressure that occurs as an explicit or implicit means of actions within the peer group, is another aspect of influencing towards formation of the system of moral values in students, as well as their attitudes, beliefs, habits, etc. Teacher in school and his/her personality, value system that promotes, appear as elements of the influence on system of moral values of students and the habits of moral behaviors. There are opportunities of education and learning in different areas of teaching that are used as a basis for the process of moral education in school. This especially applies to the content of teaching of literature, history, in teaching of skills' subjects, civic education and religious education. In teaching of literature, for instance, it is represented by the analysis of the characters of literary works, their personality traits and their actions and behaviors, from the standpoint of a system of moral values, directly from the perspective of accepted perception of ''good'' as moral category.

Key words: primary school, moral education, school order, teacher, literature.

---

*   University of Belgrade, Faculty of Philosophy, Belgrade, Serbia

The entirety of education process takes place in primary school through specific areas of education such as intellectual, physical, moral and aesthetic education. Moral education does not take place independently of the other areas of education, but is related to the areas of intellectual, physical and aesthetic education. In particular, it can be clearly seen that the natural connection is established between the processes of moral and intellectual education. Progress in one specific process is reflected in the courses of others, and there are other complex relationships in the whole process of education. Despite the fact that observation and study of moral education take place separately from the other specific areas of education, various specific processes in education are mutually interacted and inter-conditioned, and take place as part of the whole process. There are multiple interweaving and interdependence that occurs between these education processes. Therefore, only methodological and analytical reasons imply that these specific areas of education and processes are considered separately, and those can not actually exist as a separate and independent one from other areas and processes.

Morality is essentially a social phenomenon, represents one of the key factors of cohesion of society, social and human relations, without which it would be unthinkable the very existence of society and social relations. Value system that prevails in society is fundamentally affected by some system of moral values, that provides critical guidance to the overall system of values, without which that system would not have existed functionally. For that reason, this system of values (value system) is often referred to as a system of social and moral values. In society, there is a phenomenon that is referred to as social pressure, which acts in the direction of fulfilling the necessity that all that is part of value system of some society, need to be adopted as the individual value system. This further confirms the importance of ethics, morality, moral behavior, and the like, for the very existence of society and its development directed towards achieving general social and individual functionality and welfare.

Individual moral development refers to the process of learning and understanding of morality, as well as development of habits of moral behavior, which is taking place from an early age (Miočinović, 2004). In the field of moral development morality is determined by principles relating to the ways in which each individual has to communicate and behave in relation to each other, in terms of equity, benefits and rights of others. In the research on how individuals understand morality, in addition to cognitive point of view, it is essential to pay attention to examining the presence of beliefs, emotions, attitudes and behaviors that contribute to

moral understanding and moral reasoning (Popović, 1989). All these elements of moral development have their own distinctive developmental processes, but also different relationships are established between them in the whole of development process. In the field of study of moral development, subject of study is also the role of different factors (agents) of moral development, the importance of socialization process, the importance of value system adoption, the role of empathy and altruism, etc. Moral development of each individual takes place through influence of various factors, which differ in the importance and contribution that have in the process of moral development. They are referred to as factors of moral development, while at the same time appear as agents of social development (socialization). Those are school, family, peers, mass media, community organizations, prominent individuals, and other factors. These various factors are obviously different in scale and intensity of influence in the area of individual moral development of each person. They are usually found in the complex and sometimes contradictory relationship of actions, interactions or opposing actions. It implies that any person has a unique process of moral development, as part of the entirety of individual development and formation of personality.

In addition to the undeniable fact that there is a wide range of effects on individual moral development that occur outside of the education process, there are crucial effects in this domain that characterize the process of education. Moral education can be defined as a system of planned, intentional and organized influences on the individual moral development, including a set of different activities, in order to enable formation of moral awareness, moral emotions, moral conscience and will, thus enabling development and building of character traits and specific behaviors of the individual, which is taking place in accordance to accepted system of social and moral values.

Objectives of moral education in primary school stem from the general objectives of moral education. These are the following objectives (Antonijević, 2013):

(1) Formation of attitudes about social and individual importance of morality and moral behavior,
(2) Setting up a system of moral values, beliefs and attitudes (value system),
(3) Development of moral sentiments,
(4) Formation of habits and preferences of moral actions and behaviors,
(5) evelopment of moral conscience.

Moral education in school can be directly oriented by the establishment of operationalized objectives of moral education. For instance, the following objectives of moral education in primary school can appear (*Religious and moral education*, 2013): (1) explore and establish values such as wisdom, justice, compassion and integrity and establish values in their moral development; (2) investigate and understand the responses which religions can offer to questions about the nature and meaning of life; (3) develop the skills of reflection, discernment, critical thinking and deciding how to act when making moral decisions; (4) develop respect for others and their beliefs, and an understanding of practices which are different from our own; (5) develop their beliefs, attitudes, moral values and practices through reflection, discovery and critical evaluation, and make a positive difference to the world by putting their beliefs and values into action (6) establish a firm foundation for further learning and, for some, careers.

As an institution of organized education, primary school is an important factor in moral development and moral education of each individual. Through teaching (regular, additional and supplementary), extracurricular activities (school groups), as well as through other various sorts of work in school, there are a variety of activities performed by teachers and students belonging to the field of moral education. These activities are not equally represented in all areas of teaching and school work. In addition, school with the overall organization, internal order, established rules of behaviors, also affects moral development of students. It is believed that at the present times school ''lost'' some function of education as development of personality. In situations where no special highlights to which area of education this standpoint refers, it is primarily related to the field of moral education, which was represented on a larger scale in primary school in earlier times.

Moral development and moral education are taking place as part of a broader and more complex process of socialization. Development of individual capacities takes place in the process of socialization, as individual preparation for more qualitative, creative and productive participation in different social relationships, and also for belonging to different social structures and groups, and the like. In this sense, moral education is emerging as a key segment of the general process of socialization.

School order as a factor of student moral development

School in general, and especially primary school, is often viewed as one of the key agents of socialization of each individual. Within various activities in school, students participate in a specter of social interactions, as part of larger and smaller groups, performing different forms of com-

munications and interactions that are important for moral development. School implemented *formal curriculum*, through the system of school subjects, such as mathematics, mother language, biology, history, geography, physics, chemistry, etc., depending on the level of education (primary or secondary) and ages of students. Within the formal curriculum is also implementing certain activities in the field of moral education, through the teaching in separate school subjects. In addition, *hidden curriculum* is taking place in school, as a set of activities of teachers and students that enable adoption of different norms, values, general skills, specific skills of communication and social interaction, and so forth (Beck, 1971; Çubukçu, 2012). All of these activities within the hidden curriculum have particular importance in the field of moral development of each student. Through the hidden curriculum activities students are able to master different skills of communication and social interaction, the ways they need to pay attention to other people, to adopt different rules and to develop in them the awareness and attitudes about the importance to accept rules and to understand problems that arise in cases of the avoidance of rules. In addition, students learn about the importance of respect for social rules later in life, form intimate friendships, gain knowledge about the system of rewards and punishments for certain behaviors, knowledge about the importance of discipline, obedience, and knowledge of moral values (for instance, to tell the truth, do not lie, respect elders, do not throw food, do not disturb the animals, etc.).

Moral development of students is affected by the totality of school life, by the internal school system and school order, and by various systems of rules that are set up in school (Smith, 2013). This kind of the influence on moral development of students is carried out directly, but also indirectly and implicitly. In schools where there are good internal and external social relations, based on mutual respect and trust, as well as where the general positive climate is present inside school staff, there are the necessary conditions for effective work in all areas of implementation of educational activities, including the field of moral education. On the other hand, good internal relations are an adequate model of influence in the field of moral education, and serve as examples that can be used in the practice of moral education, for study, analysis, identification of key benefits, and the like.

Different situational influences also appear in school, in the field of moral education. Everyday life outside of school, too, is filled with situations that have effects on individual moral development. This refers to the process of forming a system of values and the process of formation and correction of behaviors that have moral significance, affecting increase or decrease of readiness and willingness to act in accordance with accepted moral values and norms, etc.

In general, situational effects on moral development of students in primary school can have *positive*, *negative* and *neutral influence*. The positive influence is achieved in situations where the influence in moral development happens in accordance with a set of objectives of moral education that takes place in school, which makes it possible to strengthen achieved level of moral development in the process of moral education, in frame of the formal curriculum in school. When an individual finds himself/herself in a situation that will empower its previously adopted values, attitudes, beliefs and convictions, then we can talk about the presence of positive influence of some situations in the process of its moral development.

Potentially and actually, each student in primary school can be found in situations that will act in opposite direction, compared to the values and attitudes that are adopted as part of the formal curriculum (Đorđević & Đorđević, 2009). Then it can imply some kind of conflict of values (rules, attitudes, beliefs, opinions, etc.), whose base would appear as a kind of cognitive conflict. In this sense, certain inconsistencies is sometimes occurring in teachers' activities, when it comes to the gap between what they promoted to students as a ''necessary'', ''desirable'', ''useful'', etc., in relation to the actions and behaviors in certain situations, when teacher is acting contrary to what he/she promotes to students. In such cases, the conflict of values and demonstrated behaviors is inevitable.

Neutral influence of a situation in school on moral development can also potentially occur in some cases. The neutral influence appears in some hypothetical situations in which it does not achieve either a positive or negative influence on moral development of students, and in which they are acting and reacting indifferently to the source of the very influence. It would be situations which are outdated in terms of moral development for students (for instance, forms of moral behaviors of lower levels of development), or situations that would not cause strengthening of moral awareness about something nor conflict with individual values.

Influence of peers in moral development

Belonging to some community (group) of peers in school, and outside of school, is certainly important for moral development of each student, but not just for this segment of development. Based on the fact that each individual belongs to a wider and narrower community or group, childhood is unavoidable related to the fact of belonging to society of peers. This phenomenon is connected with growing up in general, with development of personality in general, with socialization and moral devel-

opment, as well as with other aspects of development, to a greater or lesser extent (Nucci & Narvaez, 2008). All of these aspects are determined by a complex of connections and relationships established with student peers.

Peer group to which some student belongs is no formal community of one or more ages of students, except in the case of formal and informal organizations, and belonging to some organization. Peer group is usually heterogeneous informal communities (groups) of peers of the same or different ages, that are gathered by some criteria, such as place of residence, school they attend, and the like. ''Members'' of a peer group can be distinguished from each other, in terms of positions and roles they have in the community, ''status'' that they have, scope and content of established connections and relationships with other members of the group, sorts of activities in which they are involved, etc.

Heterogeneous developmental influences are appeared in school that come from the part of community of peers within school social environment, which can be characterized as specific group of peers in school. In general sense, an immediate peer group consists of students of any particular age in a school, regardless of the closeness that each member shows to each other and of the level and content of communications between them. Wider group of peers consists of students of certain age, regardless of school they belong to. This would be a general informal community of peers of a certain age (for instance, population of 10-years-old students. In addition to being a general informal community of peers, school potentially may have and special informal student ''gangs'', which linking some common activities, such as socializing and communication outside of school, belonging to neighborhood where they live, belonging to some group of fans, preferences and interests, and other joint activities.

Belonging to some group of peers in school can have positive and negative effects, in terms of moral development of each individual. It directly or indirectly depends on some kind of implicit value system that community of peers promotes (Nucci, 2001; Ozonliš, 2010), which is established within a community of peers, and on the fact that there are in the system of values mostly positive and socially acceptable values, attitudes, beliefs, etc., or the presence of negative values, which are not socially acceptable.

For student moral development it is also important the phenomenon referred to as ''peer pressure'' (Noddings, 2002), which is some kind of social pressure that occurs within some communities (groups) of peers. It consists of a series of subtle activities directed towards modifying individual character traits and other features of the individual and his/her personality, which can be related to adopted moral and other values, attitudes,

beliefs and behaviors. This kind of pressure is present within a wider or narrower group of peers, to the possible extent, in order to achieve desired state of conformity of individuals with "community standards", i.e. with the values, attitudes, beliefs, thoughts and behaviors of the community as a whole, which makes its implicit value system. In some cases also occurs institute of "membership", as an element of strengthening conformity, which acts as a pressure to achieve conformity. Tendency to group dissociation may occur as a result of social pressure, and it is followed by efforts to move away from the group. It can refer to individuals but also to the parts of community (dissociative group). This kind of pressure does not necessarily have to be negative in its nature and orientation. It can essentially be positive, when appears as a consequence of community peer pressure oriented towards certain changes in values and behaviors that are positively oriented in direction of progressive improvement. This is the case with different formal peer communities, such as, for instance, sports clubs, who expect from their members good results in sports, but also to develop some positive personality traits. This goes hand in hand with each other, based on positive pressure that comes from the community of peers to which they belong.

Peer pressure just is especially characteristic of primary and secondary school age, as the fact that students spend a great deal of time together in school, in place of residence, etc. In this population, there is a tendency for members of the community of peers to form easier some negative attitudes towards those who are not part of that group, as it was the pressure that occurs in a group which exists parallel with it. Based on all above, it can be concluded that within peer groups different effects take place on some individual, oriented towards changing value system of each member of the community, which is an area of activities in certain segments of moral development in school, especially those which take place within hidden curriculum.

Teacher as a prominent example of morality and ethical behavior

There are certain personal qualities of teachers that are important for student moral development in school. Moreover, there is no doubt that is necessary for teachers as professional to have certain qualities of personality, significant for their success in profession, which together with competences of teachers in other areas makes the necessary factors of teachers' success. As one of usable resources of moral development and moral

education, there is a model, *prominent example*, which refers to a person, event, situation, actions, etc. In this regard, teacher and his/her personality can potentially be the prominent example for their students, by the qualities he/she possess, and this is what is important for student moral development.

With a set of desirable traits of personality, with value system that promotes positive models of behaviors and communications with students and other participants in the process of education, the teacher directly or indirectly has a role of prominent example for his/her students (Lumpkin, 2008), in which students can recognize personal characteristics and other properties that they can accept as their desirable qualities. In this regard, certain desirable personality characteristics of teachers are important, in greater or lesser degree, that are required for the successful performance of teaching profession, and they can be classified in different ways (Đorđević, 1988). For instance, teacher individual qualities can be classified into groups that are related to *personality traits* (persistence, perseverance, resourcefulness, thoroughness), *moral qualities* (justice, solidarity, understanding, willingness to help others), *communication qualities* (kindness, cheerfulness, good sense of humor, sociability), and *physical qualities* (tidiness, physical attraction, pleasant voice). This classification may also include other characteristics of teachers, that may be important for the role of teacher as prominent example for students. It is important that these qualities occur in teachers as part of student positive image of teacher (*Ibid*., 1988, de Ruyter & Steutel, 2013), which is formed in students about their teachers. There is no doubt that, despite the presence of these and other positive characteristics, the presence of certain negative characteristics of teachers can produce negative student perception of teacher, that largely can be disturbing factor in teacher successful performance of profession, but also a disturbing factor in student moral development.

The area of moral qualities of teacher has undoubted importance for the process of moral education in school. A teacher is a person who could potentially be a prominent model of morality, moral values and other values, model of moral behaviors, and the like. There are a number of different characteristics of teacher, and based on them he/she promotes in students some model of moral person. These characteristics relate to the performance of teaching profession in a responsible manner, in compliance with the essential criteria of successful performance of the profession. This applies to both the form and content of communications and interactions that establish with students and that they promote, those which are part of the process of education and developmental needs of students, but also it applies generally to all other forms of communications performed between teachers and students.

Every teacher has a specific system of moral values and other values, which he/she promotes in communicating and interacting with students, in an explicit or implicit ways. Teacher's value system may be more adequate to prominent model of value system for students, if this value system is in accordance with the same value system that develops in students as a result of the process of moral education (Lumpkin, 2008). This kind of support is of unquestionable importance for more effective moral development of students. Therefore, it is important that teachers' behaviors are in accordance with the value system that promotes.

Moral education in special areas of teaching

It is common to the curricula and programs that are implemented at the level of primary and secondary education, that there is no school subject which is fully committed to ethics and moral education, which would be named as "moral education", as it is the case with the field of physical education in school. In relation to representation of intellectual education in teaching, moral education is represented in a different ways and in a different extent in education system, despite the fact that in teaching that is organized in school moral education is not represented through the contents of all school subjects (Parker, Nelson & Burns, 2010).

The area of moral education in school is significantly represented at all levels of education through teaching of *literature*, as a school subject with general objectives of education and learning. Reading literary works, introduction and analysis of content, especially analysis of various actions and behaviors of characters in literary works, are adequate means to develop the capacity of moral reasoning and interpretations of different actions and behaviors, in different situations. Among other things, these activities take place in a manner that more completely observes different actions and behaviors of a character, by separating positive and negative elements of behavior, they are confronted and compared each other, by analyzing the motives of behaviors, and discovering the causes and consequences of certain behaviors (Roso, 2013). The analysis of relationships is established by connecting them with a more general context in which actions take place in a literary work. This is all placed in the context of accepted system of social and moral values, present in the actual time which some literary work relates to, as well as in modern times, and putting it in this context serves as the base for deeper and more comprehensive analysis and interpretation of positive and negative behaviors described in literary work. Literature teaching, on the basis of the above mentioned, is one of the important fields of moral education in school.

Teaching of *music education* and *art education* are also organized in primary school, which make up the field of aesthetic education in school. However, in these areas of teaching, which are referred to as *teaching of skills*, can take place and certain elements of the process of moral education. The teaching of music education as part of the activities in classroom are performed as listening to some musical compositions, analyses of the elements and connections with certain characters and events to which they refer, etc. At the same time, there are organized activities allocated to analysis of different positive and negative acting of people, which can be interpreted from the perspective of accepted system of social and moral values. In the teaching of art education, through a variety of creative activities, students are allowed to create products that may include artistic expression of some relationships between people, and these relationships can also be accessed from the standpoint of accepted system of social and moral values.

Important aspects of socialization and moral education take place in the area of *physical education*, which is also part of the teaching of skills. These aspects relate primarily to the habituation of students to respect various rules in the teaching and learning process of this school subject. These rules are in the field of sports and sporting competitions that occur as the rules belonging to particular sports disciplines (basketball, soccer, volleyball, etc.). These are the rules that govern relationships in the group and between groups (sports teams), relationships between individuals and groups, and between individuals, that serves as directing behaviors of groups and individuals within acceptable limits of rules in games and competitions, which are determined by the rules. It's based on the fact that relevant rules regulate social relations within groups and between groups. For students, it is necessary to develop an awareness of the importance of the rules and their application, the importance of respecting the rules, in situations in which certain rules need to be applied. Raising awareness about the importance of rules of the games directly implies the development of moral consciousness pertaining to respect general rules which determine the very nature of behaviors and relationships that are established between people. In addition, development of elements of a *collective responsibility sense* is taking place in this area, which also belongs to the field of socialization and moral education. Therefore, these aspects of physical education also belong to the field of moral education.

Development of some personality traits of students is also present in the field of physical education (Lumpkin, 2008), which are important for moral development, such as consistency, sacrifice, solidarity and readiness to help others, and other personal traits. Thus, as it is the case of developing the habits of respect for the rules and a sense of responsibility to

the collective, it is undertaken as part of the whole process of education, and it also includes certain elements of socialization and moral education through the process of physical education. Based on that fact, physical education represents, in some sense, one of the bases for various segments of moral education in primary school.

Teaching of *history*, too, is an area that can be significantly represented by the segments of moral education in primary school (Beck, 1971; McClellan, 1999). The content of history teaching makes study of historical events and their causes and consequences, as well as the study of different participants in historical events. Their actions and behaviors, and historical events as well, can be analyzed from a moral point of view, regarding to what was the motives, the aim and purpose of certain actions, what kinds of morality can be seen in these actions, especially when it comes to participants of wars and of other various historical conflicts and events. In the teaching of history, for instance, through the study of historical event relating to the murder of Serbian King Aleksandar Obrenović in 1903, students can discuss moral dilemmas about the subject of study. The discussions can be directed towards finding answers to various questions, which would aim to analyze and interpret this historical event, and those are interpretations in relation to the morality of the act. In addition, analysis and interpretation can be placed in different contexts of social and moral values, that belong to the time when this happened and to the contemporary times.

Segments of moral education are also present within the teaching subjects of *civic education* (Benning, 1999) and *religious education* (*Religious and moral education*, 2013). Civic education enables students to learn and master the skills of successful participation in social relations, and therefore segments of this field of education belong to the field of moral education. Within religious education the core moral values are promoted, that are represented in the Judeo-Christian religious tradition of understanding and practicing morality, as well as visions of moral norms represented in the context of other confessions.

Conclusion

Primary school appears as institution of organized education possessing wide opportunities for the implementation of activities within the process of moral education, which should be conducted on the basis of established objectives of moral education in primary school. These activities take place in school within the formal curriculum and the hidden curriculum. There are aspects which acting on student moral development, as

important elements that can achieve substantial influence in this process. This is realized through implementation of the formal curriculum activities within specific school subjects, with adequate representation of the activities that belong to the field of moral education. In addition, there are factors of moral development of students in school, such as general school order, peers, and teacher as a prominent model for students. All these different factors have specific roles in the realization of moral education and contribute to student moral development in primary school.

References:

Antonijević, R. (2013). *Opšta pedagogija* [General pedagogy]. Beograd: Institut za pedagogiju i andragogiju Filozofskog fakulteta.

Beck, C. (1971). *Moral education in the schools: Some practical suggestions*. Toronto: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education.

Benninga, J.S. (Ed.) (1999). *Moral, character, and civic education in the elementary school*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Çubukçu, Z. (2012). The effect of hidden curriculum on character education process of primary school students, *Educational Sciences: Theory & Practice*, 12(2), 1526–1534.

Đorđević, J. (1988). Tipovi ličnosti nastavnika [Types of teacher's personality], *Pedagoška stvarnost*, br. 3, 20–28.

Đorđević, B. & J. Đorđević (2009). *Savremeni problemi društveno-moralnog vaspitanja* [Contemporary issues of social and moral education]. Novi Sad: Savez pedagoških društava Vojvodine.

Lumpkin, A. (2008). Teachers as role models teaching character and moral virtues, Journal of *Physical Education, Recreation and Dance*, 79(2), 42–49.

McClellan, B.E. (1999). *Moral education in America: Schools and the shaping of character from colonial times to the present*. Williston, VT: Teachers College Press.

Miočinović, Lj. (2004). *Moralni razvoj i moralno vaspitanje* [Moral development and moral education]. Beograd: Institut za pedagoška istraživanja.

Noddings, N. (2002). *Educating moral people: A caring alternative to character education*. Williston, VT: Teachers College Press.

Nucci, L.P. (2001). *Education in the moral domain*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Nucci, L.P. & D. Narvaez (2008). *Handbook of moral and character education*. London: Routledge.

Ozonliš, J.T. (2010). Creating public values: Schools as moral habitats, *Educational Philosophy & Theory*, 42(4), 410–423.

Parker, D., J.S. Nelson & M.K. Burns (2010). Comparison of correlates of classroom behavior problems in **schools** with and without a **school**-wide character **education** program, *Psychology in the Schools*, 47(8), 817–827.

Popović, B. (1989). *Moralna osoba: psihološko proučavanje mladih* [Moral person: Psychological study of youth]. Beograd: Institut za pedagoška istraživanja i Prosveta.

Religious and moral education (2013). Retrived 21st September 2013, from http://www.halyrudeprimary.com/content/religious-moral-education

Roso, C.L. (2013). Culture and character **education** in a Jewish Day **School**: A case Study of life and experience, *Journal of Research of Christian Education*, 22(1), 30–51.

de Ruyter, D.J. & J.W. Steutel (2013). The promotion of **moral** ideals in **schools**; what the state may or may not demand, *Journal of Moral Education*. 42(2), 177–192.

Smith, B.H. (2013). School-based character education in the United States, *Childhood Education*, 89(6), 350–355.

Jana Kalin, *Milena Valenčič-Zuljan***

Views of Slovenian Teachers on Differentiated Learning in Elementary School[1]

Throughout the history of education, pupils were grouped for various purposes and thus various criteria were applied to classify pupils. The question of grouping pupils is extremely relevant even today. In the Slovenian school system, methods of grouping pupils and the quest for most optimal solutions have been altering ever since the new school legislation of 1996, which introduced the so-called setting system of differentiation at lessons of mathematics, Slovenian language and foreign language in the 8th and 9th grade of elementary school. In 2006, the legislation introduced new possibilities for grouping pupils – one of them was work in heterogeneous groups. This paper analyses advantages and limitations of working in homogeneous and heterogeneous groups, based on research of different authors, presenting results of a survey carried out in Slovenian elementary schools among teachers of mathematics and Slovenian language. As perceived by teachers, an advantage of teaching in homogeneous groups is in success of both weaker and stronger pupils, motivation of the latter and the adjusted pace of acquiring the learning material. Some of the advan-

* University of Ljubljana, Faculty of Arts, Slovenia

** University of Ljubljana, Faculty of Education, Slovenia

tages of teaching in heterogeneous groups pointed out by teachers are: learning success and motivation of average pupils, encouragement to achieve best possible results, increased discipline, creation of the group climate, respect for the differences between pupils and their mutual cooperation. It is important that teachers are properly qualified for the selection and performance of a specific type of differentiation and for evaluation of its effects.

Key words: ability grouping, elementary school, within-class grouping, quality instruction.

Theoretical Background

In the perspective of quality assurance in education and of guaranteeing an optimal development to each individual, modern school systems are time and again faced with the question how to organise lessons in order to increasingly take into account individual characteristics, abilities, interests and needs. This opens the question of the forms of differentiation or methods of grouping pupils (either heterogeneous or homogeneous learning groups). Differentiation has always gone hand in hand with questioning purposes, objectives and criteria for classifying pupils, effectiveness of specific methods of differentiation, the scope of teaching in homogeneous or heterogeneous groups of pupils, consequences of differentiation for the achievement of objectives, possibilities for the individual to pursue further education, eventual consequences in social segregation of pupils, etc.

A fundamental didactic challenge is how to ensure a high quality educational process in classes on the systemic and on the operational didactic level, while at the same time taking care of creating the right social climate and relationships among pupils in classroom.

Strmčnik (1987, 1993) explains the need for differentiated learning at modern schools with higher social and economic educational demands, more humane social and private relationships, as well as the requirement for greater effectiveness and rationality of educational work. The post-modern society emphasizes the development of individuality, the specificity of each individual's talents and the attention given to them. Nowadays, high quality teaching cannot be imagined without consideration of these aspects and a properly qualified teacher, able to coordinate all these diverse requirements and necessities.

Žagar et al. (2003) indicate that the grouping of pupils into homogenous classes (*streaming*, *tracking*), where they are taught at various levels

of difficulty in all subjects or in most of them, is most frequently carried out with regard to the results obtained by pupils at standardized aptitude tests (intelligence tests) or tests of knowledge. Grouping of pupils (*setting*, *regrouping*) in certain subjects, where the pupils are usually taught in groups at mother tongue lessons and in mathematics, but rarely in lessons of natural and social sciences, is more flexible in forming groups and with a more specific purpose than the grouping of pupils into homogenous classes within the streaming system. If a pupil starts to exceed the standards of knowledge for their group, they are transferred to a higher level and this transition is easier than if they are grouped into special classes for all subjects where pupils are taught according to different learning programmes. The grouping of pupils within heterogeneous classes (*within-class grouping*) is the only form of grouping pupils according to their abilities, established especially at the primary school level. Pupils are divided within the same class, usually at mother tongue language lessons and mathematics. Such form of grouping is the most flexible in terms of the time dedicated to working in a group and is limited to one or two subjects (Žagar et al., 2003). In mixed-ability grouping, pupils are not divided into groups according to their abilities, therefore the groups remain heterogeneous and the teacher forms groups only occasionally, following different criteria which depend on different educational goals (Žagar et al., 2003).

Several studies on the effects of grouping pupils were carried out internationally; they were particularly intensive and condensed during the 1930s and the 1960s. Various kinds of meta-analyses were also performed (Dupriez, 2010; Hattie, 2009). The meta-analytic study by Slavin, published in 1987 and examining seven studies on grouping in primary school, is still receiving a keen response. His finding was that the presumed negative psychological effects of grouping pupils into homogeneous groups were negligible. His statement summing up the results was that ability level groups at individual subjects are effective only if teaching methods and materials are adjusted to the pupils' needs. A simple grouping of children into ability level groups without appropriate adjustments is not effective, regardless of the school subject (see also: Marentič Požarnik, 2000). Based on the research by various authors (Gutierrez and Slavin 1992; Slavin, 1986, 1987, 1990, 1995, 1996; Slavin et al., 1996, in Žagar et al., 2003), which focused on establishing effectiveness of specific forms of differentiated learning and individualisation or grouping of pupils with regard to their competencies at the first and second level of elementary school, it is evident that no study supports the grouping of pupils into special classes according to their competences (streaming). Almost all researchers agree that within-class grouping is the most appropriate form at

the lower stage of education. Only a handful of studies explored solely the effects of the ''setting'' model (Žagar et al., 2003).

It is a basic presumption in favour of grouping pupils into homogenous groups depending on their abilities that it enables more individualised and adapted lessons, oriented towards optimal learning and thus a higher quality of knowledge. In their arguments to support such grouping, the authors rely on the didactic principle of rationalisation and economy (see Poljak, 1990). The aspect of education is emphasized, however, the element of pupils' interactions is not exhausted to its full potential. The aspect of education also remains in the background, though it can, in addition to its basic function of personality building, "indirectly" contribute to better academic results (e.g. through the level of expectation, self-image, attitude towards education and knowledge).

While a number of studies show that different methods of grouping into homogeneous groups do not influence significantly improvements of the pupils' learning achievements, some qualitative studies, which explore the quality of teacher's instructing and providing learning opportunities for the pupils, lead to the conclusion that the teacher's influence is important (Gamoran and Berends, 1987; Gamoran et al. 1995; Opdenakker, Van Damme and Minnaert, 2006 in Dupriez, 2010).

In their Analysis of Good Practice in European School Systems (2010), the authors highlight the advantages of heterogeneous groups in which teaching is based on cooperation and the dialogue learning model. The model is based on building a positive interdependence of pupils which influences their learning results and their coexistence in heterogeneous classes. It is to emphasize that pupils must be additionally prepared for this form of cooperation. According to the opinion of the authors of this study, heterogeneous groups can contribute to pupils' and students' improved self-image, encourage building positive relationships among peers, and thus help improve the conduct of pupils from families with lower socio-economic status. But again, it needs to be stressed that these are demanding processes and have to be carefully planned by the teacher.

Until the curricular reform in 1996, it was a common Slovenian elementary school practice that pupils were grouped into homogeneous groups only temporarily – within-class grouping (in various subjects and in all classes) or as a form of flexible differentiation – at maximally a quarter of the lessons in mathematics, Slovenian language and/or foreign language at the higher level of elementary school (from the 5th grade to the final, i.e. 8th grade).

The 1996 Elementary School Act, which introduced several changes (among other things the nine-year elementary school), provides that "in the 1st, 2nd and 3rd grade, lessons shall be differentiated by the teacher according to the abilities of the pupils (within-class grouping). In the 4th, 5th, 6th and 7th grades, school work is organised as basic learning and as ability level learning. The latter may be applied only in mathematics, Slovenian language and the foreign language at maximally a quarter of the lessons in these subjects (flexible differentiation). The basic teaching is carried out at one level of difficulty and the ability level teaching at two or more levels of difficulty. In the 8th and 9th grades, ability level teaching is performed in mathematics, Slovenian language and foreign language (external differentiation)." (Article 40 of the ZOsn Act, 1996).

The Elementary School Act from 2006 brought an essential modification of the provisions regulating the form of differentiation. Special emphasis (Article 40 of the ZOsn Act, 2006) is given to the fact that lessons and other forms of organised work with pupils from the 1st to the 9th grade are carried out according to their abilities (within-class grouping); in the 4th, 5th, 6th and 7th grades, lessons in Slovenian language, and Italian or Hungarian language in areas with national minorities, mathematics and foreign language, can be organised as ability level learning at maximally a quarter of the lessons in these subjects (flexible differentiation). In the 8th and 9th grades, ability level teaching in the above-mentioned subjects can be organised: by assigning pupils to study groups, by two teachers teaching simultaneously, as ability level teaching or as a combination of these differentiation forms (ibid.).

In 2011, the Act Amending the Elementary School Act (ZOsn-H, 2011) laid down that in the 8th and 9th grades, lessons in Slovenian language, and Italian or Hungarian language in areas with national minorities, mathematics and foreign language can be organised during the entire school year by assigning pupils to smaller homogeneous or heterogeneous study groups and occasionally, depending on the content, also as a combination of homogeneous and heterogeneous groups.

After 1996, amendments to the legislation with regard to grouping in Slovenian elementary schools were numerous and varied. They might imply a search for such a regulation of differentiation that would, to the widest extent possible, exceed the limitations of a specific method of differentiation and contribute to more optimal and fair solutions for diverse pupils. Since 2006, the selection of a method of differentiation has been the autonomous decision of each school. This is the context, necessary to understand and interpret the empirical data of the research and the experience of teachers participating in it.

Methodology

The aim of the empirical study was to learn opinions of teachers on the effectiveness of different forms of differentiated learning and individualisation in the last three grades of the nine-year Slovenian elementary school. The study focused on the two forms of learning differentiation and individualisation most often selected by schools (work in homogeneous groups and work in heterogeneous groups) at Slovenian language and mathematics lessons in the 9th grade of elementary school. The research is part of a wider targeted research project entitled "Indicators of social capital, cultural capital and school climate in forecasting of children's and youth school success" (Valenčič Zuljan et al., 2012). This paper presents only the replies given by teachers to two research question:

- How do teachers of mathematics and Slovenian language assess the impact and effects of working in homogeneous and heterogeneous groups in the subject they teach?
- Is the impact assessment of a specific differentiation method connected to the subject of teaching (mathematics, Slovenian language) in a statistically significant way?

The collection of data took place by way of a survey. The questionnaire was completed by 117 teachers from 37 elementary schools: 61 (52.1%) of them teach mathematics and 54 (46.2%) the Slovenian language, while for 2 (1.7%) teachers no information was given. The sample consisted 86% women and 14% men. 71.7% of respondents held a university degree, 26.5% a degree of a teacher training college, and 1.8% a specialisation or a master's degree.

The questionnaire included multiple choice items, scales of attitudes and open-ended questions. The scale with which a teacher assessed performance of work in homogeneous and heterogeneous groups consisted of 36 statements referring to specific aspects of content: learning success of pupils with different learning abilities, motivation of diverse pupils, discipline in the class or study group, possibilities and effectiveness of adjusting the lessons to different pupils, assistance to pupils, relations between pupils, organisation of lessons (e.g. possibility to consolidate a pupil's knowledge, consideration of pupils' ideas, influence on a pupil's self-image, getting pupils accustomed to respecting the differences between them, etc.). Replies were given by teachers with experiences in working both with homogeneous and heterogeneous groups. For each statement, one of the given replies was selected according to one's judgement and experiences, i.e.: no difference, advantage of working in all homogeneous groups, ad-

vantage of working in some homogeneous groups, advantage of working in heterogeneous groups.

The gathered data was processed at the level of descriptive and inference statistics, depending on the nature and role of the variables. Statistical processing was performed using the SPSS programme. The following procedures were applied: frequency distribution, χ^2 test (when a larger number of theoretical frequencies was less than 5, the alternative Kullback's test was chosen instead of the general χ^2 test).

Results and interpretation

Assessment of effectiveness of the work in homogeneous and heterogeneous groups

We were interested in how teachers of mathematics and Slovenian language assess the impact and effects of working in homogeneous and heterogeneous groups in their classes. Our aim was to find out the form of differentiation that is thought to have an advantage or more effectiveness in individual items referring to the organisation of lessons, the process of teaching and its eventual effects.

Table 1: Teachers' assessment of working in homogeneous
and in heterogeneous groups according to specific factors

	No difference.		Advantage of working in all homogeneous groups.		Advantage of working in some homogeneous groups.		Advantage of working in heterogeneous groups.	
	f	f%	f	f%	f	f%	f	f%
1. Results of weaker pupils.	4	4.5	31	35.2	25	28.4	28	31.8
2. Results of average pupils.	20	22.7	19	21.6	18	20.5	31	35.2
3. Results of stronger pupils.	5	5.7	35	39.8	28	31.8	20	22.7
4. Results of pupils from families with lower socio-economic status.	19	22.4	24	28.2	12	14.1	30	35.3
5. Results of pupils with learning difficulties.	10	11.5	34	39.1	21	24.1	22	25.3
6. Motivation of weaker pupils for the school work.	8	9.2	24	27.6	20	23.0	35	40.2

7. Motivation of average pupils for the school work.	16	18.2	15	17.0	17	19.3	40	45.5
8. Motivation of stronger pupils for the school work.	12	14.0	30	34.9	22	25.6	22	25.6
9. Instilling discipline in group.	21	23.9	16	18.2	19	21.6	32	36.4
10. Cooperation of pupils at lessons.	13	14.9	27	31.0	16	18.4	31	35.6
11. Responsibility of pupils in fulfilling their obligations (e.g. homework).	31	35.2	19	21.6	16	18.2	22	25.0
12. When reviewing the subject matter, the teacher finds it easier to assign tasks of different difficulty to different pupils.	10	11.4	40	45.5	18	20.5	20	22.7
13. Adjusting the speed of delivering teaching material, so that most pupils can follow.	7	8.0	50	57.5	20	23.0	10	11.5
14. The teacher's explanation to pupils how to avoid mistakes and improve their learning process.	14	15.9	39	44.3	15	17.0	20	22.7
15. Encouraging pupils to achieve best possible results.	19	22.1	23	26.7	14	16.3	30	34.9
16. The teacher communicating real-life examples, based on which the pupils have to apply their knowledge.	33	37.5	20	22.7	11	12.5	24	27.3
17. The teacher's assistance to each pupil who has difficulties.	22	25.0	38	43.2	14	15.9	14	15.9
18. The teacher can answer to pupils' questions.	35	40.2	26	29.9	8	9.2	18	20.7
19. Climate in the group.	19	21.6	22	25.0	13	14.8	34	38.6
20. Adapting the material to different abilities of pupils.	9	10.2	46	52.3	20	22.7	13	14.8
21. The method of delivering the subject matter is interesting.	41	46.6	15	17.0	7	8.0	25	28.4

22. Independence of pupils at school work.	24	27.3	20	22.7	22	25.0	22	25.0
23. Development of pupils' learning habits.	29	33.0	16	18.2	17	19.3	26	29.5
24. Possibilities for consolidating the knowledge of a pupil.	18	20.5	35	39.8	16	18.2	19	21.6
25. Possibility of considering the pupils' ideas at lessons.	26	29.5	25	28.4	14	15.9	23	26.1
26. Influence on the pupil's self-image.	19	21.6	23	26.1	12	13.6	34	38.6
27. Organising mutual assistance among pupils during lessons.	17	19.3	11	12.5	8	9.1	52	59.1
28. Getting pupils accustomed to respecting differences between them.	24	27.3	7	8.0	2	2.3	55	62.5
29. Encouraging professional cooperation between teachers.	57	66.3	11	12.8	3	3.5	15	17.4
30. Encouraging further training of each individual teacher.	67	77.0	6	6.9	4	4.6	10	11.5
31. Parents' cooperation with school.	73	83.9	4	4.6	1	1.1	9	10.3
32. Parents' satisfaction with the grouping of pupils.	34	40.0	10	11.8	14	16.5	27	31.8
33. Adapting lessons to pupils with special needs in line with the officially issued decision.	21	24.1	37	42.5	19	21.8	10	11.5
34. Teacher's preparation for the lessons.	39	45.9	20	23.5	14	16.5	12	14.1
35. Possibility to integrate pupils from families with lower socioeconomic status.	39	45.3	17	19.8	5	5.8	25	29.1
36. Preparation of the timetable.	50	58.8	4	4.7	2	2.4	29	34.1

Among the 36 above-mentioned factors, the most frequent response given by teachers to the fourteen items was the statement that there is no difference between teaching in homogeneous and heterogeneous groups,

while eleven replies referred to advantages of teaching in either of both groups.

The teachers saw an advantage of teaching in **homogeneous groups** in better results of weaker and stronger pupils, of pupils with learning difficulties and in the possibility to bring their instructions for pupils with special needs in line with the officially issued decision. They also indicated advantages of homogeneous groups, such as a greater motivation of stronger pupils, adjusting the speed of delivering teaching material, teachers can assign tasks of different difficulty levels to different pupils, find it easier to assist each pupil with difficulties, explain how to avoid mistakes; adjust the way they deliver teaching material to different pupils and have more possibilities for consolidating the knowledge of each pupil. The highest percentage of agreement (57.5%) refers to the statement that the advantage is in adjusting the speed of delivering teaching material.

The participating teachers indicated that advantages of teaching in **heterogeneous groups** are better results of average pupils and pupils from families with a lower socioeconomic status, higher motivation of weaker and average pupils and encouragement of pupils to achieve best possible results. Another advantages perceived by them are also instilling discipline and creating a climate in the group, organising mutual assistance among pupils, getting pupils accustomed to respect differences between them (the last two items were selected in as many as 59.1% and 62.5%). The teachers pointed out that an advantage of teaching in heterogeneous groups was also the cooperation among pupils and the impact on a pupil's self-image. Several statements thus deal with recognizing the advantages of teaching in heterogeneous groups, connected to the learning climate, relations, respect among pupils, as highlighted in the theoretical background provided by various authors (e.g. the Analysis of Good Practice in European School Systems, 2010). An important aspect are the results of average pupils and the motivation of weaker pupils, who can receive more encouragement to learn especially in heterogeneous ability groups and maybe also more help from stronger pupils.

However, the participating teachers did not perceive any specific difference between teaching in homogeneous and in heterogeneous groups in as many as fourteen items, ranging from the possibility of considering pupils' ideas at the lessons, independence of pupils at school work, responsibility of pupils for fulfilling their obligations, the teacher's communicating real-life examples and answering pupils' questions, until interesting methods of delivering the subject matter and the development of pupils' learning habits. Moreover, they perceived no difference between homogeneous and heterogeneous groups with regard to the possibility to

integrate pupils from families with lower socioeconomic status and with the teacher's preparation for the lessons. The highest level of agreement with the statement expressing no difference between teaching in different groups refers to encouraging the professional cooperation between teachers (66.3%), encouraging further training of teachers (77%) and the cooperation between parents and school (83.9%). However, a far smaller share of teachers admitted no difference between teaching in homogeneous or heterogeneous groups regarding the parents' satisfaction with the grouping of pupils – 40% of the teachers thought so (while 31.8% of them indicated an advantage of heterogeneous groups). In the opinion of more than half (58.8%) of the respondents there was also no difference in preparing the timetable – 34.1% out of them indicated the advantage of organising lessons in heterogeneous groups.

Assessing effectiveness of the work in homogeneous and heterogeneous groups with regard to the subject of teaching

We were interested whether the assessment of a specific differentiation method was connected to the subject (mathematics, Slovenian language) in a statistically significant way.

A large majority of the statements (31 out of 36) show no statistically important difference between assessments of various methods of differentiation and individualisation provided by mathematics and Slovenian language teachers. Teachers of mathematics and Slovenian language teachers differ in a statistically relevant way when they refer to assessment of 5 statements about the influence of specific methods of differentiation, namely the following: Responsibility of pupils in fulfilling their obligations (e.g. homework), ($\chi 2 = 13.311$, df = 3, p = 0.004); The teacher's explanation to pupils how to avoid mistakes and improve their learning process ($\chi 2 = 9.466$, df = 3, p = 0.024); The method of delivering the subject matter is interesting ($\chi 2 = 7.936$, df = 3, p = 0.047); Independence of pupils at school work ($\chi 2 = 11.086$, df = 3, p = 0.011); Development of pupils' learning habits ($\chi 2 = 9.597$, df = 3, p = 0.022).

With regard to developing responsibility of pupils in fulfilling their obligations, most teachers of mathematics see no difference between the differentiation methods (43.5%), followed by the assessment that in this regard there is the advantage of work in all homogeneous groups (30.4%). Moreover, 31.7% of Slovenian language teachers think that the advantage in this item is with the pupils in some homogeneous groups, and 29.3% of the teachers perceive the advantage of working in heterogeneous groups.

As regards the item The teacher's explanation how to avoid mistakes and improve the learning process, the greatest difference between teach-

ers of mathematics and Slovenian language teachers lies in the statement that this is the advantage of working in all homogeneous groups, since the largest share of mathematics teachers (56.5%) think so; the opinion is shared by 31.7% of Slovenian language teachers. The same percentage of Slovenian language teachers think with regard to this statement that it is better to work in heterogeneous groups, but only 13.0% of maths teachers agree. The opinion that there is no difference in the teachers' explanation to pupils how to avoid mistakes and improve their learning process is shared by 19.6% mathematics teachers and only 12.2% of Slovenian language teacher.

A good half of mathematics teachers (56.6%) perceive no difference in how interesting the method of delivering the subject matter is in various ways of differentiation and individualisation. The opinion is shared by the largest percentage of Slovenian language teachers (36.6%). The second most frequently selected response by Slovenian language teachers (34.1%) is that an interesting method of delivering the subject matter is an advantage when working in heterogeneous groups, and 21.7% of mathematics teachers also share this opinion.

Considering the item Independence of pupils at school work, the largest share of mathematics teachers found no difference between the methods of differentiation and individualisation. This response had only the third largest share (17.1%) among the teachers of Slovenian language. More frequent were two responses, both given by 34.1% of these teachers, i.e. that the independence of pupils at their school work is an advantage of working either in some homogeneous or in heterogeneous groups. The second largest share of mathematics teachers (30.4%) declared that the independence of pupils at their school work is an advantage of working in all homogeneous groups.

With regard to the development of pupils' learning habits, the largest share (43.5%) of mathematics teachers (and 22.0% of Slovenian language teachers) is of the opinion that there is no difference between various methods of differentiation and individualisation, while the largest share of Slovenian language teachers (39.0%) claim that as an advantage of working in heterogeneous groups – the opinion shared by only 19.9% of maths teachers.

Evidently, teachers of mathematics are most often inclined to perceive no difference between various methods of differentiation and individualisation, while the opinions of Slovenian language teachers are more diversely distributed among the different methods of differentiation and individualisation at the statements at which statistically important differences occur between teachers of the two subjects.

Discussion and conclusions

When assessing the advantages of specific items of working in homogeneous and heterogeneous groups, it was established that the teachers selected the statement No difference between teaching in homogeneous and in heterogeneous groups in 14 out of 36 items, including the possibility of considering the pupils' ideas, independence and responsibility of pupils for fulfilling their obligations, the teacher communicating concrete examples and answering to the pupils' questions, interesting methods of delivering the subject matter and the development of pupils' learning habits. The highest level of agreement that there is no difference between teaching in different groups highlights the items related to professional cooperation between teachers, further training of teachers and cooperation between parents and school. These items deal more with factors not directly connected to the lessons. As regards satisfaction of parents with the way their children were grouped, a smaller share of teachers selected the response that they did not perceive any difference between homogeneous and heterogeneous groups; less than a third saw this as an advantage of heterogeneous groups.

An important issue is the organisation of lessons in homogeneous and heterogeneous groups – more than half of the respondents think that there is no difference in the preparation of the timetable, however, more than a third see the advantage in the organisation of lessons in heterogeneous groups. How teaching homogeneous groups is demanding in terms of work organisation (providing the staff, designing timetables, selection of class teachers) and the difficulty for the teachers to work with the 1st and 2nd ability level groups, was established by Nolimal and her colleagues (Nolimal et al., 2007). Timetable-related difficulties with homogenous groups were mentioned by the headmasters in the survey by Kalin et al. (2011).

It was found that in all items, the teachers' opinions are quite divided. A slightly greater uniformity of opinions can be implied when an assessment is selected by more than 50% of the teachers. Thus teachers perceive a greater "advantage of working in heterogeneous groups" in items connected to the climate in a classroom and the cooperation among pupils, such as Organising mutual assistance among pupils and Getting pupils accustomed to respecting their differences. More than 50% of the teachers agreed with the "advantage of working in all homogeneous groups" in the items about considering individual abilities of the pupils such as: Adapting the material to different abilities of pupils and Adjusting the speed of delivering teaching material, so that most pupils can follow. None of the

items scored above 50% of agreement regarding the "advantage of working in some homogeneous groups", but the mere selection of this response is a reason for concern, since it implies considerable inequality between pupils in different ability level groups. This should motivate the selection of a grouping method which will, in the best possible way, create equal opportunities for different pupils.

We also examined whether the teacher's assessment of a specific differentiation method's impact was connected to their subject in a statistically significant way. A large majority of the items (31 out of 36) show no statistically relevant difference in the assessments of various methods of differentiation and individualisation provided by the mathematics and Slovenian language teachers. The two groups of teachers show statistically significant differences in their assessments of the effects of these methods only regarding five items (three are related to the pupils' personal development and two to the teacher's work): Responsibility of pupils in fulfilling their obligations, Independence of pupils at school work, Development of pupils' learning habits, The teacher's explanation how to avoid mistakes and improve the learning process and The method of delivering the subject matter is interesting. In items where statistically important differences occur, mathematics teachers are most often inclined to assess no difference between various methods of differentiation and individualisation, while the opinions of Slovenian language teachers are more diversely distributed among the various differentiation methods.

The findings of the empirical survey on the sample of Slovenian elementary school teachers regarding their assessments of the characteristics of teaching in homogeneous and heterogeneous groups represent some significant challenges for the work of teachers in groups or classes. It is important to be aware of the advantages and limitations of specific grouping methods, so that more alternative actions can be taken to reduce negative impacts and to strengthen the positive consequences of each organisational measure. At mathematics, Slovenian language and foreign language in the 8th and 9th grade of elementary school, since 2006 the decision for selecting the differentiation method has been conferred to the school and its teachers, as their unique professional responsibility. Teachers have to be qualified to decide the form of differentiation appropriate for a specific environment and subject, in view of reaching educational objectives and quality of knowledge, and in view of integral personal development, creation of good relationships and the climate among pupils or within groups. It is essential that teachers are adequately trained for each specific form of differentiation and able to evaluate its effects (consequences) for the group, the individuals and – not least – the quality of their teaching.

References:

Analiza dobrih praks v evropskih šolskih sistemih (Analysis of Good Practice in European School Systems) (2010). Konzorcij projekta Included; El. knjiga. Ljubljana: Andragoški center Republike Slovenije. http://arhiv.acs.si/publikacije/Analiza_dobrih_praks_v_evropskih_solskih_sistemih.pdf.

Dupriez, V. (2010). *Methods of Grouping Learners at School. Fundamentals of Educational Planning – 93.* UNESCO. Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning. http://www.iiep.unesco.org/fileadmin/user_upload/Info_Services_Publications/pdf/2010/Fund_93.pdf.

Hattie, J. (2009). *Visible learning: a synthesis of over 800 meta-analyses relating to achievement.* London: Routledge.

Kalin, J., Krek, J., Medveš, Z., Valenčič Zuljan, M., Vogrinc, J. (2011). Osnovna šola. In Krek, J. (ur.), Metljak, M. (ur.). *Bela knjiga o vzgoji in izobraževanju v Republiki Sloveniji* (107–179). Ljubljana: Zavod RS za šolstvo.

Marentič – Požarnik, B. (2000). *Psihologija učenja in pouka.* Ljubljana: DZS.

Nolimal, F. i dr. (2007). *Projekt: Oblike diferenciacije v 8. in 9. razredu.* Ljubljana: Zavod Republike Slovenije za šolstvo.

http://www.zrss.si/pdf/_diferenciacija_porocilo_15_11_07.pdf.

Poljak, V. (1990). *Didaktika.* Zagreb: Školska knjiga.

Strmčnik, F. (1987). *Sodobna šola v luči učne diferenciacije in individualizacije.* Ljubljana: Zveza organizacij za tehnično kulturo.

Strmčnik, F. (1993). *Učna diferenciacija in individualizacija v naši osnovni šoli.* Ljubljana: Zavod Republike Slovenije za šolstvo in šport.

Valenčič-Zuljan, M. i dr. (2012). *Kazalniki socialnega kapitala, kulturnega kapitala in šolske klime v napovedovanju šolske uspešnosti otrok in mladostnikov, Podprojekt – Diferenciacija in individualizacija.* http://www.mizs.gov.si/fileadmin/mizs.gov.si/pageuploads/podrocje/razvoj_solstva/evalvacija/pdf/POROCILO-Kazalniki_socialnega_kulturnega_kapitala_in_solske_klime....pdf.

Zakon o osnovni šoli (1996). Uradni list RS, št. 12/1996, z dne 29. 2. 1996.

http://www.uradni-list.si/1/objava.jsp?urlid=199612&stevilka=570.

Zakon o osnovni šoli, uradno prečiščeno besedilo (ZOsn-UPB3). (2006). Uradni list RS, št. 81/2006, z dne 31. 7. 2006.

http://www.uradni-list.si.

Zakon o spremembah in dopolnitvah Zakona o osnovni šoli (Zosn-H) (2011). Ur.l. RS, št. 87/2011 z dne 2. 11. 2011.

http://zakonodaja.gov.si/rpsi/r09/predpis_ZAKO6129.html.

Žagar, D., Pečjak, S. i C. Peklaj (2003). *Organizacija nivojskega pouka, stališča učencev, učiteljev in staršev do te oblike diferenciacije ter njeni učinki na učence: evalvacijska študija: zaključno poročilo.* Ljubljana: Univerza v Ljubljani, Filozofska fakulteta.

Slađana Anđelković*, *Zorica Stanisavljević-Petrović***

The School and the Environment– Challenges of the School Education[1]

This work considers possibilities for the cooperation of the school and the environment with the goal of a bigger opening of the school and encouraging an active attitude of a student towards the surroundings. Aiming to give an adequate answer to the modern society which confronts the school with new educational challenges, the school undergoes a process of transformation which is reflected in the changes happening in the inner and the outer level– the level of the realization of a functional connection to the environment.

This work points to the possibilities of the realization of a functional cooperation of the school and the environment through expanding teaching spaces and extracurricular activities on the contexts of surroundings, while creating favorable conditions for change on the school level, especially in the domain of school education. In this sense, there arises a need to redefine the relationship of the school and the environment and to create a concept of integrating school and out of school facilities in the process of constructing students' competence to actively and democratically participate in society.

Keywords: school, environment, school education, learning outside the classroom.

*   University of Belgrade, Faculty of Geography, Belgrade, Serbia
**   University of Niš, Faculty of Philosophy, Niš, Serbia

Introduction

Global changes in the society make the matter of education a current issue which is seen more and more as a wholelife process aimed at developing human resources and providing equality. With this in mind, the process of education in a qualitative and quantitative sense becomes more and more significant, and educated individuals become the condition for the progress and development of the society. In agreement with these tendencies the education was, in official documents of international organizations (UNESCO, OECD, Council of Europe), conceived as a whole life process realized through formal and informal education, as well as through self-education (Commission of the European Communities, 1995, 1996; Delors et al., 1996).

Understanding education as a whole life process has conditioned the need for change on the level of formal education, thus most of the countries in southeastern Europe are in the middle of school system reforms. Similar to other countries in our surroundings, the school system reform has come about in our country as well. The school system reform constitutes a part of political and social changes which are underway since the year 2000, with the aim to improve and harmonize our system with the systems of more developed European countries. The changes in the school system focused on adjusting to the European school systems have brought about a number of dilemmas, and one of them is about the issue of "how to facilitate the development of the school system which would be based on the latest scientific findings on the assumptions of efficient and good quality schoolwork, and which would follow the trends in the development of the European school systems...with the honoring of its own educational tradition" (Hebib, Spasenović, 2011: 381). This matter has brought about numerous discussions and arguments in the scientific and professional public, so it can be rightfully considered "one of the key challenges which we must face in the process of school system reforming" (Hebib, 2013: 83). Although the reforms were marked by a series of discontinuities in the sphere of creating and implementing in the sections of educational policies, there have been certain changes which can be, at most, seen on the level of the educational institutions themselves (Đević, Anđelković Marušić, 2011).

On the level of formal education, in providing an adequate preparation for life and work of each individual, a significant role is given to the schools as basic institutions for education. Seen through the historical prism, schools have always had the duty to provide education which will prepare the individual for life and work in the society. Starting from the

attitude that the schools make a subsystem of a wider social system, it can be concluded that the schools, as social institutions, have developed and changed alongside the development of the society. Seen from this aspect, changes in the school follow the changes in the society and they change according to them. However, the school is expected not only to educate the youth for the present and for the needs of the current society, but also to prepare them in such a way that they can successfully face the changes brought by the future. Seeing as the planning and evaluation of the future needs of the society is a complex assignment where almost nothing is certain, because there is no certain knowledge of the future, it is very difficult to foresee educational needs, and with this, the goals of education in the future. If we keep in mind the interactive relationship of the school and the society, we can assume that the education in the future will be focused on resolving main developmental problems in the society (Pastuović, 1999). According to this, the school should provide education which will prepare the individual for life and work in a modern society, which implicates to the changes in the way of schooling, but also to acquiring functional knowledge and skills. Fulfilling an assignment mapped out as such, faces the school with new challenges which bear a crucial heading based on the changes in the schoolwork, especially on the changes connected to the organization of the schoolwork and the learning process.

In the context of the contemporary society, the traditional organization of the school and the schoolwork, as well as their primary purpose, are seen as outdated as much as it's no longer a question of how to improve them, but how to reinvent them. In agreement with this attitude, it is said that the schools today are turned to the past, to the social system which is on the wane, and therefore not adjusted to the modern educational needs (Toffler, 1997). Unlike the radical views of Toffler, a greater number of modern authors stands for the transformation of schools, implementing changes which would contribute to the adequate realization of their role in the modern society (Armstrong, 2008; Barker et al., 2002; Cohen et al., 2002; Drucker, 1995; Hebib, 2013; Stol, Fink, 2000; Stanisavljević Petrović, Vidanović, 2012).

As an essential question, the matter of the openness of the school is pointed out, also its connection to the environment and realization of formal partnership with different institutions. In this context it is pointed out that "our best chance to change the way the school prepares the students for the unknown of the 21st century is to view our schools and their contexts as ecosystems" (Stol, Fink, 2000: 31). Such a standpoint points to the systematical approach in which we view the school as a living system consisting of a series of subsystems which are connected, among them-

selves, but also on the system level as a whole. According to such an approach, the functioning of the school is determined by the relationship between the elements of the school context, but also by the relationship of the entire (social) system with the subsystems in the school. In such a complex constellation of relationships, it is demanded that the school is flexible, open for change, challenge-ready, adjustable in relation to the newly formed conditions brought about by the process of globalization. In the society that is learning, providing a lifelong learning demands more flexible plans and programs, a change of strategies of learning and teaching, implementation of various forms of work and a bigger usage of local resources in the process of education, as well as, higher quality connecting to the local surroundings. In this context, the modern school overcomes the boundaries of an institution specialized to transfer knowledge and becomes an all-encompassing space of various knowledge and experience (Fauser et al., 1983).

The school and the environment– redefining the relationship

As a basic institution for education, the school is by its nature and essence connected to the social context in which it exists. Seen through the historical prism, it can be seen that the school is an integral part of each developed society, that it has always shared its destiny, changed and developed according to the needs of the social community. According to this, it is justified to speak of the influence of the society as a wider system on the school. Although this influence is irrefutable, and in some periods of the development of the school even dominant, in the modern theories there is a view more and more noticeable, that the theory of a one-way influence of the society's effect on the school is not valid, or adequate in modern theory and practice, but that it is possible to rightfully speak of mutual effect of the school and the society, that is, an interactive relationship. In accordance with this it is said that the school can be in "a dualistic role: revolutionary (critical and creational), or conservatory (apologetic) school and its educational effect" (Janković, Rodić, 2002: 18). Although the school has had a conservatory role in its development so far, a role of a follower of social changes, in the accordance with the current changes in the development of the society it is possible to speak of its critical and creational role.

The school is a facility in the process of reformation which is, in accordance with the demands of the reform, necessarily focused on the local

environment. It is expected from the school to realize high quality cooperation with the institutions from the surroundings, again, with the goal to not only fulfill reformatory demands, but also for its more adequate functioning. Seen from such a viewpoint, there is a mutual interest of the school and the local environment to install a partnership which is equally important and useful for everyone. However, within the existing social circumstances, it is very important that the demand to create partnership doesn't stay declarative only, but that the schools open themselves to their immediate surroundings and become an active part of the social and natural environment. In accordance with this, it is pointed out that "schools cannot be bound exclusively to their own context. They are not islands and they should never be isolated (although they might be) and they should be a place of making decisions. Schools should be in the epicenter of change, but connected to their outer surroundings, thus radar sensitive to the local and national context in which they've been put" (Stoll, Fink, 2000: 109). The schools themselves, represent "place" contexts (micro communities) for learning and teaching within determined patterns of behavior, which are a part of a wider macro community. As such, they are a part of a wider context which in an exemplary way affects the organization and the work of the school itself. Isolating the school from the wider geographical and social context can have big consequences to the quality of the educational process and the accomplishments of the students.

Although the school represents a part of the local surroundings, the connections and relations of these two systems in the traditional paradigm of schooling are mostly partial and on case level. In program documents of the school, it is insisted on different kinds of cooperation of the school and the local environment (cooperation with institutions, partaking in local actions and manifestations, working with parents), however, in the realization, there is still no continuous and systematical dealing with this problem from different perspectives, and no noticing of codependence and conditionalization of these two systems. In developed countries, the school is oriented at the surroundings and represents the center of the local community. It makes dor the constructive element of development and creating social flows and relationships in the society. Establishing a cooperation relationship with the surroundings is an important task of the school which has, in this process, a potentially significant role, however, in our reality, that role is still limited and marginalized. On the other hand, the local community also has to change its attitude towards the school, as a separate, isolated institute, specifically created for education. Participation of students and employees of the school in the life and work of the local community is still on a very low level, and we get the impression that there is a mutual distrust on the effectiveness and efficiency of this

cooperation, starting from the low motivation of the school, primarily of the teachers and students, to participate in actions of the local community, the distrust in the effect of their own participation, insufficient awareness of the ways and tracks of their own participation.

The surrounding and the school are to be seen as two mutually conditioned systems which are historically, socially, politically determined and which are in a process of constant change and development. The relationship of the school and the narrower or wider surroundings is seen in constant interaction and mutual connectedness. It is known that the school as an institution makes for a part of the local environment, and the local environment for a part of a wider social and natural environment. These contexts are becoming more and more interesting in the last decades, and more and more efficient spaces for formal (school) education.

School education in out of school spaces

The existing critiques of the school, and especially school education, are mostly based on the critiques of traditional organization of teaching, its insufficient flexibility, dysfunctions of school knowledge, discontinuity of the school and out of school experiences. In contribution to this, we have the results of international research (TIMSS, 2003), research done on a national level within the project of the Ministry of education and sport and the Institute of evaluation of the quality of education, as well as the research done in an earlier period within the external evaluation of our primary education (All-encompassing evaluation of primary education in Yugoslavia, 2001). The results of these researches point out that in our schools, students spend most of their time listening to classic lectures, that there is still an overwhelmingly traditional approach to learning, that the accent is put on accumulating knowledge, the activity of the teachers and acquiring declarative knowledge, and represented in some small measure are activities where we research, experiment, reveal (Antonijević, 2007; Marinković, 2010; Ševkušić et al., 2005).

With the aim to improve the quality of education provided in schools, changes are necessary, especially in the domain of learning and knowledge aimed at learning with understanding, through solving problems, learning that is connected to previous knowledge and experience of the student, as well as learning which is connected to real life situations. A special significance, from the aspect of considering the possibility to connect the school with the environment, is given to the knowledge which are connected to the real life situations, that is, that school knowledge which students are able to acquire and develop in the immediate surroundings of the school.

According to this, the matter of context, the space and place of learning, is singled out, because in the traditional conception, school learning mostly comes down to the classroom and school spaces. In accordance with this, the contextualization of the school knowledge and realization of continuity between the school and out of school experience becomes one of the key challenges the modern school has to face. Contrary to the existence of discontinuity between the school and out of school experience which conditions the difficult establishing of meaningful relationships between school knowledge (separated by subjects, disconnected, fragmented) and life needs, continuity contributes to the creation of a complete system of knowledge and experience which the students can apply in different real life situations. The application of school knowledge in solving actual problems gives meaning to the knowledge acquired in schools, makes for the basis of a lifelong learning and opens the school doors to the local environment, while, on the other hand, implementing the environment factor into the teaching process represents a step ahead towards a higher quality educational process.

Contributing to the overcoming of the existing discontinuity between the knowledge gained in school and real life situations, are also views of a number of authors who point to the need to establish meaningful relationships between what is learned in schools and real life problems through realization of school activities in various spaces outside of schools (Orion and Hofstein, 1994; Uzzell, 1999). According to the understanding of these authors the realization of school activities in out of school spaces contributes to the betterment of the quality of the school as a whole, while, as a special contribution, they single out the connection of the school with the real life context of the students, which enables the students to adequately act in various life situations.

The realization of school activities in the surroundings spaces has its basis in a holistic approach, where the need for all-encompassing consideration of all elements affecting the process of creating knowledge is pointed out, and which bears in mind the complexity of relationships between the parts and the whole. Seen from the viewpoint of the relationship of the school and the surroundings, it is pointed out that one of the ways to increase the participation of students in recognition, inquiring and searching for ways to solve problems of the local community is to turn to the holistic paradigm in education. Namely, in the holistic educational discourse, the student is seen in the context of his own surroundings and connection to the systems to which he belongs: family, school, nation, humanity, natural environment, ecosystems etc. as well as the context of the time he is living in.

The changes in the school structure which encompass time, space, roles and relations implicate a contextualization of learning and widening of the context of learning and teaching to different spaces in the surroundings. However, the fact is that the traditional conception of time, for which, in many cases, there is no justification, resists the changes which are initiated by the needs of the society and the needs of the students. Changes in schools, like a more flexible curriculum, thematic planning, integrated approach to learning and teaching, implicate a more flexible organization of time which is not conditioned by a traditional frame, which demands restructuring of the school year, school day and class. According to this it is cited that "probably the most efficient way to find time for teachers and students is through organizing the rhythm of the school life around the work of the students instead of the teaching of the teachers" (Schlechty, according to Stoll, Fink, 2000:176). The changes in the structure of time condition changes in the structure of relationships and roles in the school as well. The teacher-student and student-student relationships are freed from the traditional paradigm and are becoming more flexible, democratic, tolerant. Good climate and atmosphere which arise as a consequence of changed relationships in class are important motivational factors in the teaching process.

Besides the changes in the time organization it is significant to implement changes of the spatial organization. From this viewpoint, changes are necessary of the stale forms of learning characteristic for the traditional school, as well as of the context of learning, that is, the place and situation where learning happens. Although the idea of using different out of classroom spaces as contexts of learning is not new, the natural and social resources from the surroundings are still not used in a sufficient measure for the purposes of the school education. It is considered that the environment outside of the school offers many possibilities for the development of the students' competence in a direct manner, through experience and personal engagement, in direct contact with the objects of cognition (Anđelković, Stanisavljević Petrović, 2013a).

Environment is an immediate, and with that, the most adequate source for acquiring knowledge and experience on social and natural processes and phenomena, and the direct contact of the students with the objects of cognition contributes to the changes in the quality of the relationship of the student with his environment, and his more active participation in solving current problems. The change in the attitude of the student to his immediate surroundings conditions the need in the process of acquiring and applying the knowledge and skills for the surrounding itself to become an important condition in the organization of learning

(Desforges, 2001). The importance of the connection between the elements of the context and the process of learning and teaching is pointed out by several authors (Barker, et al. 2002; Braund, Reiss, 2005; Falk, Dierking, 2000; Rickinson et al. 2004). According to their understanding, they point out to the complexity of the learning process where they point to the extraordinary significance of environmental influences, especially the physical context.

As contexts for learning which among themselves make a gathering of mutually conditioned and connected elements and networks of relationships, we have galleries, museums, parks, theaters, institutions, playgrounds, zoos, village households, that is, objects and spaces of social and natural importance where it is possible to realize teaching activities. Important determinant of out of classroom, out of school ambient in a local surroundings where the lectures happen is a uniqueness of climate and atmosphere, which are found as important constructs of the determinant of the environment where the process of learning and teaching is underway. According to Tagiuri (Tagiuri, 1968), the environment is determined by the following elements: "ecology (physical and material aspects), the milieu (characteristics of individuals and groups), social setting (social dimension which reflects the patterns of relationships between individuals and groups), culture (social dimension which reflects the set of value, beliefs, cognitive structure and meanings" (Tagiuri, 1968: 36). According to this, the environment for learning is seen as a gathering of codependent factors which comprise a network of relationships where learning and teaching happens.

As a contribution to this it is pointed out that "learning is a complex set of processes which is under a strong influence from the surroundings" (Brown, 1989: 34), as well as that "learning as an act of creating personal experience is very sensitive to the conditions under which it happens" (Jelavić, 1995: 59). In the conditions of an authentic surrounding, the focus is moved from the content of education (what is learned) characteristically dominant in the traditional paradigm, to the questions, ways and places of learning, that is, to the questions of *how* and *where* the process of learning happens. Namely, from the contents of learning, accent is moved to the direct interaction of the student with the object of cognition and the mutual social interaction.

From the aspect of teaching strategy, it is known that the environmental teaching opens up possibilities for using various teaching strategies, before all, teaching focused on acting, problem based and research based teaching. Unlike the traditional school teaching organization where there is an overwhelming traditional approach and lecture based teach-

ing, curricular activities in different environments open up possibility for an active positioning of the students in the learning process. The environment itself, with its characteristic and potentials, initiates activation of the students who get the opportunity to learn through their own activity, through acting and manipulation of objects, through researching the immediate surroundings where they are, and through solving different problem based situations. In the conditions of out of school environments possibilities open up for acknowledging different styles of learning, as well as their combining and development. In this part, as an important task of the teacher, readiness and sensibility for combination different strategies is underlined, with the goal to fulfill the tasks of the teaching, which is certainly conditioned by previous didactic methodical education of the teacher and his vocational training in this domain.

One of the clearly visible differences between the teaching work in schools and out of schools spaces is reflected in the atmosphere during the class. While the classes in schools are mostly characterized by clearly defined hierarchical relationships and rules, in the teaching process outside the school there is an overwhelmingly freer approach which is recognized by the democratic climate, tolerant relations, acknowledgment of individual potentials of students and difference which exist among them. In the conditions outside the school, students are more relaxed, more ready to communicate, to help each other, solve problems together, which improves their cooperation and affects betterment of mutual relationships and their relationship with their teachers. The positive working atmosphere significantly affects the students' motivation, creates possibilities for teamwork, as well as possibilities for individual work according to their interests.

A significant advantage of environmental teaching compared to the work in the school spaces is seen in including partners from the local community who can be either experts for a certain issue or parents, volunteers and other interested parties. Their inclusion in the process of teaching additionally motivates the students for the particular theme that is being realized and the communication with different experts enables students to enrich their findings from different domains. Including parents or volunteers who can contribute in the sense of giving adequate help and support is of special significance, especially when younger students are in question. Including parents in the process of environmental teaching can contribute to establishing and development of a more successful cooperation of teachers and parents in other aspects of school life and work.

From the aspect of learning and acquiring knowledge, the biggest advantage of environmental teaching is the direct contact of students with the objects of cognition. While the teaching inside the classroom is

based mostly on indirect sources of knowledge (teacher's lectures, media etc.) which, among all else, causes passivation in students, the teaching in different environments from the surroundings is rich with impressions which activate all senses, and with this the famous sentence of Pestalozzi is realized– to learn with the head, the heart and the hand. In an authentic environment, filled with impressions, all the potentials of the student are activated, thus, his role is different from the one in the classroom. In this context it is important to consider the role of the teacher, which changes alongside the change of the role of the student.

Experience so far has shown that there are different forms of educational work present in schools which contribute to establishing a functional relationship with the surroundings: visits, outings, excursions, school in nature, camping, summer and winter vacations, as well as the realization of certain contents of teaching work in authentic ambient, recently known as environmental teaching (Anđelković, Stanisavljević Petrović, 2013). Current reformatory actions contribute to the greater use of out of school resources in the process of learning and teaching. In the program documents, teacher instructions and individual subjects programs (World around us, Nature and society, Physics, Chemistry, Biology, Geography) different forms of environmental learning are recommended. In the Regulation of amendments and supplements of the regulation of the curriculum for the 1st and 2nd of primary education it is cited that "activities which enable interaction with the physical and social environment are desirable, because they contribute to getting to know the world around us by discovering relationships and realizing the characteristics and traits of objects" (the Official Gazette RS, 2010/7: 3). According to such orientation it can be found that promoting the model of environmental teaching contributes to the changes in the school context, especially within the teaching activities which were criticized in earlier periods exactly because of the decontextualization and separation from the real life. Thus, learning and teaching in the environment makes for a necessary and integral part of changes on the way to a higher quality school.

Conclusion

The surroundings and the school comprise two dynamical systems which are to be viewed in their mutuality and codependence of needs and interests, which elements are in constant interactions within them, but also between themselves. The school as a part of a narrower and a wider environment has a great role in changing the concept of cooperation established so far, by building that relationship through a holistic developmental approach to its surroundings.

Acting of students in the modern society through an active relation to the real world and surroundings demands new competency which students acquire through interaction and communication with different parties from their surroundings and through direct contact with the objects of cognition. The quality of schools is a result of constant improvement of the quality of work through adapting new cultures of learning and teaching. Seeking out new educational ways has created a new area of educational work through learning and teaching in environments of local surroundings. Active participation of students in the process of construction of knowledge, and widening the contexts of learning and teaching in environments outside the classroom represent the basic constructs of a new approach in the cooperation of the school and its surroundings.

Under the influence of globalization and establishing an intercultural dialogue, building out a personal and cultural identity, getting to know the heirloom, understanding the multiculturalism, acquiring lasting and functional knowledge, getting to know and understanding the problems of the community and participating in the life of the surroundings, all of these become important goals of school education. It is pointed to these goals through the aims of the schoolwork and individual subjects, but in practice they are accomplished partially and fragmentarily. It is considered that increasing the partake of learning outside of the classroom, in environments of the natural and social surroundings, helps in achieving these goals and encourage a complete development of the students.

References

Armstrong, Th. (2008). *Najbolje škole*. Zagreb: Educa.

Anđelković, S., Stanisavljević Petrović, Z. (2013). *Škola i neformalni obrazovni konteksti*. Beograd: Univerzitet u Beogradu, Geografski fakultet.

Anđelković, S., Stanisavljević Petrović, Z. (2013a). Učenje i poučavanje van učionice – ambijentalna nastava. *Nastava i vaspitanje, 52*(1), 39 – 51.

Antonijević, R. (2007). TIMSS 2007 u Srbiji. koncepcija istraživanja. *Pedagogija,* (1), 13–22.

Barker, S. et al. (2002). *Teaching Biology Outside the Classroom: is it Heading for Extinction? A Report on Biology Fieldwork in the 14–19 Curriculum* (FSC OccasionalPublication 72). Shrewsbury: Field Studies Council.

Braund, M., Reiss, M. (2005). *Learning Science outside the classroom*. London, New York: RoutlegdeFalmer, Taylor&Francis Group.

Brown, J. et al. (1989). Situated Cognition and the Culture of Learnig, *Educational Researcher*, *18*(1), 32–42.

Cohen, E. et al. (2002). Can groups learn? *Teacher's College Record*, *104*(6), 1045–1068.

Delors, J. et al. (1996). *Learning: The Treasure Within*. Report to UNESCO of the International Commission on Education for the Twenty first Century, Paris: UNESCO.

Desforges, C. (2001). *Uspješno učenje i poučavanje-psihologijski pristupi*. Zagreb:Educa.

Drucker, P.F. (1995). *Postkapitalističko društvo*. Beograd: Grmeč – Privredni pregled.

Đević, R. Anđelković, S. Marušić, M. (2011). Projekat „Predstave o obrazovnim promenama u Srbiji: refleksije o prošlosti, vizije budućnosti", *Predstave o obrazovnim promenama u Srbiji*. Beograd: Institut za pedagoška istraživanja

Falk, J.H., & Dierking, L.D. (2000). Learning from Museums Walnut Creek. CA: Alta Mira Press.

Fauser, P. et al. (1983). Lernen mit Kopf und Hand. Berichte und Anstöße zum praktischen Lernen in der Schule Beltz . Germany to United Kingdom: Beltz, Weinheim Basel. (feb.2013):http://www.abebooks.co.uk/servlet/BookDetails PL?bi=1390480611&searchurl=an%3DFAUSER%252C%2BP

Fullam, M. (1993). *Change Forces*. London: The Falmer Press.

Hebib, E. (2013). *Kako razvijati školu – razvojni i reformski procesi u oblasti školskog obrazovanja*. Beograd: Institut za pedagogiju i andragogiju Filozofskog fakulteta Univerziteta u Beogradu.

Hebib, E. Spasenović, V. (2011). Školski sistem Srbije – stanje i pravci razvoja. *Pedagogija* LXVI, br. 3, 373–383.

Janković, P. Rodić, R. (2002). *Školska pedagogija*. Sombor: Učiteljski fakultet.

Jelavić, F. (1995). *Didaktičke osnove nastave*. Jasterbarsko: Naklada Slap.

Marinković, S. (2010). Problemi kvaliteta našeg obrazovanja i promene u koncepciji obrazovanja, *Nastava i vaspitanje*, *59*(1), 5–23.

Orion, N., Hofstein, A. (1994). Factors that influence learning during a scientific field trip in a natural environment, *Journal of Research in Science Teaching, 31*(10), 1097–1119.

Pastuović, N. (1999). *Edukologija: Integrativna znanost o sustavu cjeloživotnog obrazovanja i odgoja*. Zagreb: Znamen.

Rickinson, M., et al. (2004). *A review of research on outdoor learning*. London: Field Studies Council

Sveobuhvatna evaluacija osnovnog obrazovanja u Jugoslaviji (2001). UNICEF: Beograd

Službeni glasnik RS – Prosvetni glasnik, 2010/7

Stanisavljević Petrović Z., Vidanović, D. (2012). *Promene u školskom sistemu u Srbiji*. Niš: Filozofski fakultet.

Stoll, L., Flink, D. (2000). *Mijenjajmo nase škole – Kako unaprediti djelotvornost i kvalitet naših škola*. Zagreb: Educa.

Tagiuri, R. (1968). The concept of organizational climate: u: Tagiuri,R. I Litwin, G.W. (ed.) Organizational Climate: Ehplorations of a concept. Boston, MA: Division of Research, Graduate School of Business Administration, Harvard University, 1–32.

Toffler, A. (1997). *Šok budućnosti*. Beograd: PS Grmeč.

Ševkušic, S. i sar. (2005). Postignuće učenika iz biologije, *TIMSS 2003 u Srbiji*, Beograd: Institut za pedagoška istraživanja.

Uzzell, D. (1999). Education for environmental action in the community – new roles and relationships, *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 29,3, 397–413.

Wilson, R.A. (1995). Nature and young children: a natural connection, *Young children*, *50*(6), 4–11.

Nataša Vujisić Živković

The Assessment of the Quality of Teaching in Primary Schools in Serbia – The Historical Beginnings

The aim of our work is to reconstruct the beginnings of institutional organization of the assessment of teaching in primary schools in Serbia from historical perspective. The question of the assessment of teaching, as well as the assessment of the quality of education is very current today, but we should not forget that it was in the focus of educational policy of Serbia from the beginning of 19th century, when the Principality of Serbia gained partial autonomy within the Ottoman Empire, together with the right and possibility to develop a school system based on national language.

We decided to examine the first model of teaching assessment in primary schools in Serbia that had been developed in 1830s. Our analysis of available historical sources brought us to several conclusions: firstly, the teaching assessment was an important element of educational policy from the very beginning of the foundation of the independent national school system; secondly, the first model of teaching assessment was based on the supervision conducted by so-called directors or main school inspectors; thirdly, two main criteria for the teaching assessment were 1) pupils' success, which could confirm that teachers taught all obligatory subjects

---

* University of Belgrade, Faculty of Philosophy, Belgrade, Serbia

and used modern teaching methods of that time, and 2) the behavior of teachers in community, particularly their relationship to clergy and the church.

Key words: the assessment of teaching, school system, educational policy, the Principality of Serbia.

Introduction

Up to now, the assessment of teaching quality in primary schools, as an important element of the state educational policy, has not been the subject of educational historical research in Serbia. In the history of education the reports of school revisions were used as the source for understanding the development of state educational system, but the relationship between educational authorities and actual teaching practice stayed out of the research focus. In this paper we aspired to reconstruct, on the basis of available sources, the beginnings of the institutional organization of the teaching assessment in primary schools in the Principality of Serbia, as well as the criteria on which the assessment was based. It is about the period of 1830s that was prior to the fundamental legislative regulation of teaching assessment (the development of so-called regular school supervision), in which the conceptual and institutional frame of the assessment of teaching and teachers in primary schools in Serbia were developed gradually.

Teaching Assessment in the Principality of Serbia in the First Three Decades of the 19th Century

The beginning of the development of independent school system in the Principality of Serbia we associate with the period of the First Serbian Uprising (1804–1812), when the title of the Director of All Schools was firstly established (1807) and the Ministry of Education soon after that (1811). Karađorđe, the leader of the First Serbian Uprising, assigned both of these position to Dositej Obradović. Dositej was one of the most prominent personalities of Serbian cultural and intellectual scene of the Enlightenment (the second part of XVIII and the beginning of XIX century). His arrival to insurgent Serbia in 1807 was an act of confirmation of his role of the "national educator", since he had already been an accomplished writer, well known by Serbian people. Vukićević (1899) noted down that the first report on work of primary schools Dositej left in a letter from the end of 1807, in which he described how so-called annual exam for Turkish children looked like in the primary school in Belgrade – among other things, Dositej wrote in that letter the following words: "One of these days

we attended the exam of baptized Turkish children and youth. My dear brother, how nice and sweet it was" (p. 199). Ivan Jugović replaced Dositej in the position of the Minister of Education in 1811. He also had habit to examine primary school pupils personally and give them marks in annual exams. One of the pupils of Jovan Rančić, a teacher from Smederevo, described to Milićević (2005) how that exam looked like:

> "After several days Ivan Jugović, a Serb from Austria, visited Rančić. The teacher told his pupils to stand up and shout: 'Salutations!' Besides giving a long speech, Jugović took one of the pupils' fezes and asked: 'What is this fez made of? Where is it produced? How should it be worn?' And many other questions. He said to the pupils: 'You will be gentlemen, merchants, craftsmen and you should know this!' Jugović presided over the exam and a lot of pupils' parents were present. Although we knew almost nothing, more cheerful and free children were given a small coin to put on their chest. Those who did not receive it cried, and their teacher Rančić consoled them with words: 'Learn and behave well and in the next exam you will be given a gold coin" (p. 146).

When Serbia came under the Turkish reign in 15th century, the Serbian churches and monasteries became hotbeds of literacy and education. The return of Serbia to the world stage began in 1804 with the First Serbian Uprising. In the same time, the rudiments of the educational policy, which dominated throughout the 19th century, appeared. Two ideas outlined that policy: the foundation of state primary schools with the aim to spread literacy among population and the development of high education in order to educate officialdom necessary for the constitution of modern legal and administrative apparatus. Already at the beginning of 1830 there were about 40 primary schools with 1500 pupils in the Principality of Serbia.

Let us stress that at that time the educational qualifications of teachers were diverse. Among teachers there were those who knew only to read religious books. They were engaged as teachers by the church municipals in order to provide assistance to priests in church services. At the same time, teachers who were not familiar with church services, but knew to read, write and calculate, were engaged by the municipal authorities to help in administrative work. There were a lot of craftsmen among teachers, who, besides their regular work, used to teach a dozen of children in the small rooms situated next to their workshops.Teachers taught what they knew, most of all literacy, prayer book, book of psalms, church chanting and some calculation (Spasić, 1892, p. 189–190).

The research of available material has brought us to conclusion that the idea on the assessment of teaching was mentioned for the first time in *Proclamation*, written by prince Miloš on 10th March 1823:

"In order to help schools come into focus, as well as to show a national good-will and to improve school conditions [...], we considered necessary to choose one person from the church authorities and one from the civil authorities to take custody over schools. These persons are Mr. Milentije, an archimandrite of the monastery Vraćevšnica and Mr. Raka Tešić, a local judge. For this purpose, the supervisors or the Directors of All Schools will be elected [...]" (as cited in Petrović & Petrović, 1884, p. 428).

However, we do not have information if those supervisors visited schools and how they monitored the work of teachers.

The Beginnings of the Institutional Organization of Teaching Assessment in the Principality of Serbia

A significant step forward in the development of school system in the Principality of Serbia was made after Serbia gained the partial autonomy within the Ottoman Empire by *Sultan's Edict* (1830), togehter with the right to organize independently its own school system. The first list of schools and teachers dated from 1832 – it was published in Dimitrije Davidović's "Literary Magazine". According to that list, there were 38 primary schools, 43 teachers and "[...] one professor of the Higher School and a Director of All Belgrade Schools (Atanasije Teodorović)" in the Principality of Serbia (Novaković, 1893, p. 398).

As the starting point of the institutional organization of teaching assessment in the Principality of Serbia we take the year 1832, when prince Miloš issued on 29th February an edict on the appointment of Stojko Stojanović, a merchant, for the School Tutor, with the task to "[...] monitor primary school teachers if they fulfill their duties, to negotiate with the municipal authorities about the average earnings and their regularity [...]".[1] In that edict he also demanded that teachers should undoubtfully fulfill orders of the School Tutor. However, by 21st April already prince Miloš signed an edict on establishing a title of the Supervisor of All Primary Schools in Belgrade, and assigned Atanasije Teodorović to that func-

---

1   The Serbian Archive, Ministry of Education and Religious Affairs Fund (from now on: SA, MER), 1832, f. V, No. 480. The Edict on the Appointment of the School Tutor, Belgrade, 29th February 1832.

tion. In the edict, submitted to the court of the Belgrade parish, a duty of supervisor was defined that he should

"[...] write a plan on preservation and further development of primary schools in Belgrade until the end of the school year, according to which all other schools in our motherland could be organized; the plan should be sent to me (to prince Miloš, remark of N.V.Ž) for approval [...], and all teachers of primary schools in Belgrade have to obey it" (as cited in Milovanović, 1954, p. 196).

Teodorović came to the Principality of Serbia from Vojvodina, that was at that time the part of Habsburg Monarchy. As one of the most educated Serbs – he completed law studies at the Univeristy of Pest, he was appointed for a professor of philosophical and historical sciences in the first, just founded secondary school in Serbia.[2] His election for the position of the Supevisor of All Primary Schools in Belgrade gave evidence on gradual development of the awareness on significance of the teaching and its assessment in the primary schools.

Considering that Teodorović did not receive any regulations or written instructions on how to assess teachers and their work, we can reconstruct how he did it on the basis of analysis of the report he submitted to prince Miloš. Teodorović worked as a Supervisor in 1832 and 1833. In his report from 31st August 1832 he assessed the work of teachers from all three primary schools that existed in Belgrade at that time.[3] Teodorović visited those schools on 26th and 27th August. He assessed positively the teacher Konstantin Zek, writing that "he fulfilled his duties quite well"; the teacher Miailo Nikolić Resničanin was also given a positive mark with the words that he was defined by great zeal and that he "surely deserved to be praised", while the work of the teacher Toma Solar was assessed negatively – Teodorović noted down that "he was totally incompetent for teaching profession" and that his pupils did not know to read Book of Psalms, knew little from the History of Church and were the worst in calculating, hardly recognizing the numbers.[4] In his next report from 26th March 1833 Teodorović assessed Belgrade teachers as weak and pointed out to prince Miloš that the pupils he examined would surely achieve better results with

2   SA, MER, 1836, No. 3289. The List of Professors from the Royal Serbian Secondary School in Kragujevac, Kragujevac, 19th July 1836. In T. Dragićević & S. Timotijević (Eds.). (2009). Schooling and Education in Serbia 1817-1838. Belgrade: The Archive of Serbia, 132-133.

3   SA, MER, 1832, No. 2471. The Report of Atanasije Teodorović on Pupils' Success, Belgrade, 31th August 1932. Ibid., 16-18.

4   Ibid., 16-17.

better teachers.[5] The analysis of Teodorović's reports indicates that the function of the Supervisor of Primary Schools in Belgrade was to examine orally all pupils in all subjects and give marks according to which he had to draw out conclusions about the subjects teachers thought and the success they achived.

The first legislation on the organization of school system in the Principality of Serbia under the title the *Constitution of National Schools* was written by Dimitrije Tirol in 1833.[6] Since it has never been printed, it has been unknown if it came into life. Tirol1's *Constitution* predicted that the supervision and assessment of teaching quality had to be done by the Director of National Schools and Local School Supervisors. The Director of National Schools, among other things, had following duties: 1) to monitor if teachers followed the instructions given in the *Constitution of National Schools*; 2) to note down the number of children who attended primary school, as well as their behavior and their learning progress; 3) to help schools purchase school furniture and teaching aids; 4) to appoint teachers, assess their work and, in case of some omissions in their work or behavior, to decide on the punishment – from warning, over admonition, to dismissal from school; 5) to be familiar in detail with teachers' work, on the basis of their monthly and annual reports, and to solve upcoming problems; 6) to visit all primary schools in Serbia every year, organize annual exam and mark the pupils' success; 7) to monitor the way of teaching and initiate the teachers with shortcomings into better teaching methods.[7] The *Constitution of National Schools* set the rule for the Director of National Schools that he had to inform teachers on their marks and to address them

> "[...] in polite and modest manner, as those with important duty of educating the sons of motherland; he should be careful neither to cause any suffering to teachers, with behavior or with words, nor to leave them in trouble, but to care about their material status".[8]

On the other hand, local school supervisors should conduct the direct monitoring of everyday work of teachers – whether they taught regularly and whether they attended the church, on Sunday or during the holidays, together with children.[9] Since prince Miloš did not sign the *Constitution*

---

5   SA, MER, 1833, No. 902. The Report of Atanasije Teodorović on Pupils' Exam and Curriculum in 1833, Belgrade, 26th March 1833. Ibid., 42.

6   SA, MER, 1833, No. 682. The Constitution of National Schools in the Principality of Serbia. Ibid., 28-39.

7   Ibid., 36-38.

8   Ibid., 37.

9   Ibid., 39.

of National Schools, we do not know if it had legislative power. However, on the basis of the archive materials on teaching and primary schools that we have collected, we can conclude with high reliability that the regulations of Tirol's *Constitution*, related to the assessment of teaching, were applied in practice.

In March 1835, at the initiative of the Minister of Education Dimitrije Davidović, the Board was formed with the task to visit all primary schools in Serbia and submit the report on the conditions in which they worked. The Board visited 21 primary schools in which 28 teachers worked (Petrović, 1898, p. 767–768). After the Board submitted a report, the steps were taken to improve the working conditions in schools. First of all, the position of the Director of All Schools in March 1836 was established, and Petar Radovanović, a professor of the first and only Grammar school in Serbia, was elected for that position.[10]

The Directions for the Director of All Schools were given on 21st March 1836, with duties defined.[11] Among other things, he had to visit at least once in a year all primary schools in order to check if teachers taught subjects and used materials outlined by the Ministry of Education, as well as to help teachers create their teaching schedule and to monitor if they had good relationship with the clergy, fulfilling their duties towards the church. That included the attendance of teachers in the church services together with their pupils and helping priests in the church services if needed. He also had an obligation to keep records on the number of teachers, collect data on their age, origin, level of education, teaching style and behavior and to assess their work on the basis of pupils' marks.[12]

The first Radovanović's report *Short Observations* from 21st May 1836, referred to 41 primary schools he visited in the period from 19th April to 14th May.[13] In his report Radovanović presented the conditions of "[...] the general quality of school premises, as well as abilities and behavior of pupils and teachers".[14] After his visit to 68 state and municipal primary schools, Radovanović submitted a report on all primary schools

---

10 SA, MER, 1836, No. 1087. Diploma on Appointment of Petar Radovanović for the Director of all Schools in the Principality of Serbia, Kragujevac, 21th March 1836. Ibid., 56.

11 SA, MER, 1836, No. 1087. The Directions for the Director of All Schools in the Principality of Serbia, Kragujevac, 21th March 1836. Ibid., 57-58.

12 Ibid., 39.

13 SA, MER, 1836, No. 2016. Short Observation on Schools that the Undersigned Petar Radovanović Visited from 19th April to 14th May of the Current Year, Kragujevac, 21th May 1836. Ibid., 59-61.

14 Ibid., 59.

in the Principality of Serbia on 20th July.[15] In his report, he noted down if the schools belonged to the state or municipality (state schools were depended on the state budget, while municipal schools were depended on the local revenues) and if they lasted two, three or four years. When teachers were in question, he noted down their age, origin, level of education, the years of teaching service, marital status and how high their earning were. He would add his observations on particular work of some teachers. Radovanović's report from 1836 was the first one out of which we can reconstruct more comprehensively the criteria for teaching assessment. So we can see that the teachers' education and behaviour were in the foreground. Radovanović, for example, wrote that the teacher from Požarevac, Stefan Maksimović, completed Serbian and German schools in Srem and that he is "particularly good" in church chanting, that the teacher Stefan Popović from Kisiljev, "[...] does not have any education besides alphabet that his father, a local priest in the same village, taught him", and that the teacher Kosta Ignatijević "[...] is constantly drunk and neither competent, nor well-behaved".[16] Radovanović gave also the list of school subjects teachers taught and the grades from the annual exam. It is interesting that he graded pupils' success collectively: in 4 primary schools he estimated pupils' success as "poor" and "very poor", in 23 schools as "average", in 18 as "good", and in only 3 schools as "praiseworthy".[17] On the basis of the annual oral exam of pupils, Radovanović verified in the first place 1) what were the subjects teachers taught, 2) how sucessful they were in teaching and 3) what was the teachers' attitude towards the main school tasks, like education in the spirit of Christianity, pupils' knowledge of the history of church, or skills of church chanting and praying.

At the beginning of the school year 1835/1836 Radovanović visited again primary schools and assessed teachers. From the report he submitted to the Ministry of Education on 20th November 1836 we can see that he assessed teachers' competences and behavior descriptively: 3 teachers were graded with "good competence", 54 with "average competence", 4 as "quite competent", 3 teachers with "poor competence" and 12 teachers were left ungraded (Radovanović, 1882, p. 845–846). In 1830s, in the Principality of Serbia, more than one half of teachers originated from Vojvodina, which was at that time within the Habsburg Monarchy. Teach-

15 SA, MER, 1836, No. 3289. The List of all Teachers from State and Municipal Primary Schools in the Principality of Serbia, Kragujevac, 20th July 1836. Ibid., 134-147.

16 Ibid., 134-136.

17 SA, MER, 1836, No. 3289. The List of School Subjects that were Taught in State and Municipality Schools in the Principality of Serbia in the First Semester of 1836, Kragujevac, 28th July 1836. Ibid., 160-184.

ers from Vojvodina were, as a rule, more educated than those from the Principality of Serbia. Namely, in Vojvodina the Grammar School was founded as late as in 1791, then the Seminary, and in 1778 the first Serbian Teaching College was initiated. On the other hand, the Principality of Serbia had the first Grammar School just in 1830 and the Seminary in 1836. A comparative analysis of the grades given by Radovanović to the teachers who originated from the Principality of Serbia and those born and educated in Vojvodina, conducted by Jovanović (1882), showed that Radovanović graded 71.43% of teachers from the first group with "good competences", 78.43% of teachers from Vojvodina were graded the same, while no one was graded with "poor competences", but at the same occasion, 9.52% teachers who were from the Principality of Serbia were estimated as "poor" (p. 847). Thus, teachers from Vojvodina were assessed as better and more successful.

For further development of the school system in that period, the adoption of the *Plan for Schools that Should Exist* on 22nd August 1836 was of great importance.[18] It was the first general school law that, among other things, defined the role of the state in funding of 22 four-grades primary schools in the cities, and allowed the existence of two-grades primary schools in the villages, supported by the municipalities.[19] Two years later Radovanović initiated the inspection of schools and teachers: in his letter from 16th July 1838 to the Ministry of Education he stressed that the state authorities could have double benefits from the inspection – firstly, all teachers would try harder if knowing that the representative of the Ministry of Education would visit and assess their work; secondly, they could receive on time help and instructions about what and how they should teach (Petrović, 1881, p. 697). In July the Minister of Education Stefanović visited primary schools in the western part of the Principality of Serbia, while the schools in the eastern part were visited by the professor of Lyceum Konstantin Branković. Branković visited 14 state schools, 12 municipality schools and one county school. His assessment of teachers was based on two criteria: the first was the teachers' behaviour and the second one the assessment of their "abilities", that is, compentencies for the profession of teaching. The behaviour of all 27 teachers he graded as "good", and their competences were graded in the following way: 6 teachers were assessed as "with small competences", 5 with "average compentences", 10 with "good competences" and 6 teachers were graded as "ex-

---

18   SA, MER, 1836, No. 3394. The Plan for Schools that Should Exist, Kragujevac, 22th August 1836. In T. Dragićević & S. Timotijević (Eds.). (2009). *Schooling and Education in Serbia 1817-1838*. Belgrade: The Archive of Serbia, 62-63.

19   Ibid.

ceptionally competent".[20] For a certain number of teachers Branković also added his observations to the grades. So he recorded about one teacher of the primary school in Tekije that he

> "[...] is a common man who knows only to write, read and calculate, but the municipality authorities are satisfied with him. They keep him more to help the priest in the local church, with no high expectations concerning his knowledge. After all, they could not find better teacher for the amount of money they paid, and that was 600 grouts".[21]

The achievement of pupils Branković graded by the collective marks per school: the pupils of 5 schools were graded with the marks "pretty well" and "quite well", in 14 schools with the marks "good" and "quite good", in 5 schools with the marks "average" and "very good", while in 3 schools the achievement was "poor".[22] In the report, the names of "excellent" pupils were listed – out of 916 Branković recommended 30 to continue their schooling in the grammar school with state scholarship.[23]

In distinction from Branković, Minister Stefanović did not submit one full report on the primary schools he visited, but several reports on the particular schools and teachers. In his report he wrote about the primary school in Užice with one "untidy and careless" teacher, and pupils' knowledge that was "worthy of pity"; he asked the municipality authorities to visit that teacher more often in order to warn him to be more engaged in his teaching.[24] He noted down that in primary schools in Čačak there were no desks and chairs and that their children were sitting on the floor. Their teachers did not teach children calculation, since they had no school boards.[25]

Immediately after Minister Stefanović convinced himself about the situation in schools, and above all about the fact that teachers taught different contents, and even different subjects, according to their education and competence, he wrote a proposal of curriculum in order to standardize

---

20 SA, MER, 1843, No. 20. The list of schools and pupils in the second semester of 1838 created by Konstantin Branković, Belgrade, 27th July 1838.

21 Ibid.

22 SA, MER, 1843, No. 20. The List of Pupils that should, according to the Konstantin Branković, Continue their Schooling in Grammar School or Lyceum with State Scholarship, Belgrade, 27th July 1838.

23 Ibid.

24 A Letter Written by Stefan Stefanović to Magistracy of the District of Drina, Belgrade, 12th July 1838. In Petrović, N. (1881). Material for the History of Education in the Principality of Serbia – School Revision in a Year 1838. *Education Gazette*, *2*(18), 701.

25 Ibid., 701-702.

teachers' work. Thus, the first official curriculum for all primary schools was issued on 11th August 1838.[26] We can conclude that the school supervision brought multiple benefits in that period: it helped the formation of the first unique curriculum for primary schools; it also enabled the evidence of talented pupils who gained the right to enroll in grammar school with state scholarship; it enabled teachers to receive some sort of feedback on the quality of their teaching (pupils' marks could be partially observed as the result of teachers' engagement in teaching), while the state authorities could receive information on the number of schools and pupils.

In order to apply new curriculum in practice, the educated teachers were required, while those less competent needed additional help. That was the reason why Minister Stefanović, after the adoption of his curriculum, issued the *Guidelines for Teachers in State and Municipal Schools in the Principality of Serbia*.[27] The *Guidelines* had 26 points, explaining teachers' duties that related predominantly to moral education and teaching. The last few points of the *Guidelines* related to the teaching assessment: the point 20 gave instructions on organization of the exams two times per year in front of the Director of All Schools, in order to confirm pupils' progress, and also teachers' "zeal and diligence"; the point 21 ordered teachers to keep records on regular pupils' attendance, on their transfer from lower to higher classes, as well as on their achievements and subjects they taught, so that the Director of All Schools could monitor their teaching with more details and reliability and grade them with appropriate marks; point 22 stressed that teachers should always obey priests, avoid taverns and alcohol and be of "decent behavior".[28]

After the so-called Turkish Constitution was adopted on 10th December 1838, the Ministry of Justice and National Education was established. The task of new Minister was, among other things, to monitor "[...] the foundation of well-organized schools of higher and lower level in the country, in order to give proper education to Serbian boys and girls" (*The Constitution of the Principality of Serbia*, p. 53–54). For that purpose, he was given a duty to make the *Project on Main School Supervision* which would enable monitoring of teachers – whether they follow the given regulations, curriculum and pupils' progress. The *Law on School Supervision and Managing*, written by the Minister and issued on 18th July 1839, outlined the direct supervision over primary schools, conducted by two

---

26   SA, MER, 1838, No. 87. The List of School Subjects that Should be Taught in the First and Second Semester in the Primary Schools, Belgrade, 11th August 1838.

27   SA, MER, 1838, No. 87. Guidelines for Teachers in State and Municipal Schools in the Principality of Serbia, Kragujevac, 11th August 1838.

28   Ibid.

Main Directors, one for the western part of Serbia (from Belgrade towards the river Drina), another for the eastern part of Serbia (from Belgrade towards the river Timok), together with the position of the Higher School Supervisor.[29] The tasks of the Main Directors would be: 1) to conduct annual exams (in the presence of parents, district and local mayors, priests, municipal officers...) and to assess "[...] the teachers' competences and skills, as well as punctuality, diligence and zeal"; 2) to help publishing of the textbooks; 3) to organize during the school holidays the additional training in the form of so-called practical lectures for the teachers who do not have necessary education; 4) to post a local school supervisor in every place with an existing school with a task to care about school building and all "school necessities", as well as to overlook teachers' behavior, and 5) to appoint, award, dismiss and transfer teachers from one place to another.[30]

Radovanović, as the Main Director for the eastern part of Serbia, conducted the annual exam in the year 1839. Based on the analysis of Radovanović's report, Ivanović (2006) found out that out of total number of 96 teachers, 81 of them were graded with the mark "good", 3 with the mark "very good", 9 with the mark "average", "sufficient" and "pretty good" and 3 teachers as "poor" (p. 123). In that inspection, Radovanović assessed teachers from Vojvodina as slightly better than those from the Principality of Serbia: 85.25% of teachers gained the best marks, while the mark "good" gained 80.64% of teachers from Serbia (Ibid.).

Let us stress that on 1st August the *Instructions for Visiting Primary Schools in the Principality of Serbia* were issued for the first time.[31] The Main Directors were given precise guidelines in the *Instructions* on how to monitor and estimate teachers in several aspects. The Directors should: 1) visit all state and municipal schools and conduct annual exams, 2) listen carefully the questions of teachers, as well as pupils' answers, since that was the best way to estimate if children understood teaching material or learnt answers given by teacher by heart, 3) conduct examination of pupils in all subjects and learn if teachers kept to the obligatory curriculum, 4) monitor the way teachers used to examine pupils, in order to asses their "competences and zeal in teaching", 5) monitor if children attended regularly the church with their teachers, 6) collect information on teachers' behavior from priests, local school supervisors and inhabitants, 7) find out if pupils attended school regularly, 8) estimate children capable to continue

---

29   SA, MER, 1839, No. 924. The Law on School Monitoring and Managing, Belgrade, 18th July 1839.

30   Ibid.

31   SA, MER, 1839, No. 271. The Instructions for Visiting of Primary Schools in the Principality of Serbia, Belgrade, 1th August 1839.

their education in grammar school, 9) estimate the conditions in which school building, furniture and other "school necessities" were, 10) collect information on teachers – their names and surnames, the class in which they worked, their age, "where they were born", marital status, years of teaching service, their competences and behavior and additional remarks on their work, as well as information on school – the place, district, county in which it was located, how many grades it had, if it was state or municipality school, the techers' earnings, the number of pupils and "parental status", together with the information on teachers' work – what subjects did they teach in which classes, 11) to make a list of teachers who were "incompetent and lack good behavior" so that the Ministry could replace them with better teachers.[32] After issuing the instructions for the Main Directors, Đorđe Zorić (23rd September 1839) and Sima Milutinović Sarajlija (1st December 1839) were appointed to that positions (Milićević, 1868, p. 44). In the following decades, the model of supervision and assessment of teaching based on the Main Directors was preserved.

Conclusion

The development of the conception and institutional organization of teaching assessment in Serbia can be followed from the beginning of 19th century. The necessary preconditions for the development of national school system were the return of Serbia to the world stage, which was related to the First Serbian Uprising (1804–1812), and the gaining of the status of a vassal state within the Ottoman Empire (1830). The interest of the political elite for the improvement and dissemination of the primary schools in the Principality of Serbia was closely related to the need for increased number of literate population, able to participate competently in the democratic institutions that were gradually raised – in the municipal government, court proceedings and elections in all levels of the governmental organization. At the same time, for the economical development of the new state, the production growth of trade and craft was necessary, and above all, the general population that learned at least to read, write and calculate. In such economical and political conditions, the beginnings of educational policy appeared with the foundation of primary schools and the development of high education as priority, in order to prepare officialdom necessary for the constitution of modern legal administrative apparatus.

---

32   Ibid.

The first model of teaching assessment in Serbia was created in 1830s. Our analysis of the available archive materials, reports of school revisions in the first place and other resources (school laws, regulations and statutes) brought us to conclusion that the teaching assessment became the essential element of the educational policy from the very beginnings of the constitution of the independent national school system. A model of teaching assessment, created in 1830s was characterized by: 1) the assessment conducted by Director of All Schools and Main Directors, 2) the estimation of teachers' work that was descriptive – "poor competences", "average competences", "good competences", or with "quite competent", "perfectly competent", 3) the pupils' achievement as the first criterion for the teaching assessment – the Directors examined pupils at the annual exams and on the basis of their success it was estimated whether the teacher taught the subjects and contents outlined by the curriculum and how successful he was, while the second criterion was teachers' behaviour in the community, their relation with clergy and the church above all.

The further development of the conception and institutional organization of the teaching assessment in Serbia went in the direction of searching for more precise and diverse criteria. In 1880s it eventually evolved into a modern concept in which teachers themselves participated in the assessment of their work and that was more directed towards the raising of the quality of education and the training of teachers with the aim to achieve better results in their work and less to the inspection and estimation of teachers.

Resources and Literature:

Unpublished Resources

The Serbian Archive, Ministry of Education and Religious Affairs Fund (SA, MER).

Published Resources

Dragićević, T. & Timotijević, S. (Eds.). (2009). *Schooling and Education in Serbia 1817–1838.* Belgrade: The Archive of Serbia.

Radovanović, P. (1882). The Report of Petar Radovanović from 20th November 1836. *Education Gazette*, *3*(22), 844–850.

Petrović, N. (1881). The Material for the History of the School System in the Principality of Serbia – School Revision from 1838. *Education Gazette*, *2*(18), 697–704.

Petrović, V. & Petrović, N. (1884). *The Material for the History of the Principality of Serbia, the period of the First Reign of Miloš Obrenović, from 1821 to 1823.* Belgrade: State Printing.

The Constitution of the Principality of Serbia. (1840). In *Collection of Laws and Ordinances Issued in the Serbian Principality from 13th February 1938 until April 1840* (pp. 1–57). Belgrade: State Printing.

Literature

Ivanović, D. (2006). *Serbian Teachers from the Habsburg Monarchy.* Belgrade: ZUNS.

Jovanović, B. (1882). Schools in Serbia in 1836. *Education Gazette*, *3*(21), 847–850.

Milićević, Đ. M. (2005). *The Principality of Serbia.* Belgrade: Book & Marso.

Milićević, Đ. M. (1868). *The Schools in Serbia from the Beginning of the 19th Century to the End of the School Year 1867.* Belgrade: State Printing.

Milovanović, R. (1954). From the History of Our Schooling. *Teaching and Education*, 3(2), 194–198.

Novaković, S. (1893). Schools in Serbia in 1832. *Teacher*, *12*(5), 396–399.

Petrović, M. (1898). *The Finance and Institution of the Restored Serbia until 1842.* Belgrade: State Printing.

Spasić, M. (1892). Some Data on Primary Schools in Serbia from 1845 to 1862. *The Gazette of Serbian Association of Science*, *73*, 185–227.

Vukićević, M. (1899). Primary Schools in Serbia in the First Part of 19th Century. *Education Gazette*, *20*(3), 198–203.

Radmila Milovanović, * *Gordana Budimir-Ninković,* **
Aleksandar Janković ***

Socialization and Loneliness of Students and their Impact on Education Quality

Defined as the process of acquiring knowledge, skills, motives and attitudes that enables individuals to be accepted in the society to which they belong, the socialization process represents a long-lasting process that can have negative side effects such as loneliness. The aim of this study is to examine the prevalence and correlates of loneliness in a student population, as well as the connection of loneliness to the effects of socialization and their impact on education quality. For the purposes of this research, we used a modified *Questionnaire on the mode of crisis expression in adolescence by Kondić et al.*, a short form of the *UCLA scales* (*University of California Los Angeles Loneliness Scale*) and the *Battery of tests of socialization by Momirović et al.* The research was conducted on a sample of 300 students, who were all attending the first year of studies at the Faculty of Education in Jagodina, Belgrade University School of Medicine, Faculty of Philology and Arts in Kragujevac, and the Medical College in Ćuprija, and whose median age was 19.1. The results showed that 32% of the students in the sample reported as being lonely, that loneliness is to a large extent associated with other psychological difficulties (depression, self-image disorders, eat-

---

*   University of Kragujevac, Faculty of Education, Jagodina, Serbia
**   University of Kragujevac, Faculty of Education, Jagodina, Serbia
***   University of Novi Sad, Faculty of Education, Sombor, Serbia

ing disorders, sleep disorders), as well as the emphasised effects of socialization, i.e. excessive socialization, which is, in some way, connected with education quality.

Key words: students, socialization, loneliness, psychological problems, education quality.

Introduction

The process of socialization is the subject of interest for sciences such as: psychology, pedagogy, sociology, and anthropology. In the focus of their interest are also the basic principles of social learning through which socialization is achieved and the role of parents in the socialization process, the characteristics of the relationship between parents and children, and educational attitudes of parents and their educational practices, but special attention is paid to the specifications of the culture in which a child is raised, the role of school, peers, the means of mass communication and other factors of socialization. Simultaneously, their focus is no longer limited solely to the process of socialization of children, encompassing the process of socialization of students and adults. In the study of the socialization process, three major groups of problems can be distinguished: the modes, the sources and the effects of socialization. The subject of this paper is connected with the effects of socialization and we will repeat that the questions concerning the effects of socialization are related to the formation of knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values, as well as the systems of behaviour which allows a person to fit into the society which he or she lives in. In other words, a socialized person knows what the society expects from him or her and knows how to respond to the demands of the society, he or she knows how to make contacts with other people and develop social networks, to collaborate, to support, and to establish friendly or other relationships, to work and to develop relationships with other people. However, the result of socialization does not always have to be the kind of behaviour that the society accepts and values positively, the behaviour that contributes to the maintenance of the community – a pro-social behaviour. The result of socialization can also be the behaviour that society condemns, and persecutes, as well as the behaviour that does not harm the society itself as much as it makes the person feel unhappy and isolated. Many studies have confirmed the correlation between the effects of socialization and mental health. The negative effects of socialization may be characteristic for persons with various mental disorders such as psychopathic, asocial, aggressive personalities, but they can also be the cause of withdrawal from the environment, passivity, avoidance of social interactions and loneliness.

Theoretical Approach

Socialization represents a totality of organized and disorganized social influences, a continuity and integrity of the interactive process between the person and the social environment which results in the formation of personality that fits the needs of a particular type of society and that is capable of fulfilling their needs in that society (Epstein & Ward, 2011). Socialization is also defined as the process of acquiring knowledge, skills, motives and attitudes that enables individuals to be accepted in the society they belong to. (Vaidyanathan, 2011). The success of the socialization process depends on personal and social resources, as well as on the opportunities to reconcile the processes of individuation and the necessity of social integration, which contributes to the development of the identity (Bester, 2007). A prerequisite for a socialized personality is the existence of humanistic consciousness and behaviour resulting from harmonization of social and personal interests, or, in other words, if the effects of socialization are optimal, a person will be able not only to perform a variety of social roles, but also to meet their own needs, exercise their rights and achieve a normal quality of life (Levine & Hoffner, 2006).

In modern science, loneliness is defined as an emotional experience of emptiness and unhappiness, a painful and anxious craving which occurs in response to a lack of adequate positive personal relationships with other people, things or places (Xinyue, Sedikides, & Wildschut Gao, 2008: 1003), as a psychological condition that arises from the difference between people's desires and their real social relationships (Hymel, 2004: 53), as a source of emotional pain that occurs when a person feels alienated, misunderstood or rejected by others (Nilsson, Lindström, 2006: 101), as an emotional response to a lack of social relationships and partners for activities that provide an experience of social integration and an opportunity for emotional intimacy (Mahon, Yarcheski, Yarcheski, Cannella, & Hanks, 2006: 310).

People can experience loneliness for different reasons. The three-dimensional model of the antecedents of loneliness by K. Victor contains a lack of interpersonal relationships, stressful life events, as well as the character and development variables in the socialization process. A lack of interpersonal relationships may be a consequence of the factors of social isolation, inadequate social support or problematic and disharmonious relationship without intimacy, communication and understanding. Stressful events include the loss of important people, change of residence and personal crises. (Morita, 2009) Character and development variables in the socialization process include the existence of developmental defects such

as a lack of love and warmth in the nuclear family, childhood traumas and factors of personal restrictions, such as depression, fear of intimacy, negative self-perception, a lack of social competences, etc. (Victor, Keming, 2012).

Different authors define many different kinds of loneliness according to its origin. Most importantly, they define loneliness that occurs when someone avoids other people and the loneliness that occurs when a person is avoided by other people. First type of loneliness (active loneliness) is the result of social learning, as a consequence of unsatisfactory relationships with others in one's personal experiences, while the second type of loneliness (passive loneliness) is the result of "non-learning" as a result of a lack of social competences. In the first case, loneliness is the choice of a person, a defensive reaction that reduces the "feeling of anxiety that comes from the unsatisfactory relations with others", while in the second case, loneliness is something that a person feels to be a necessity that he cannot change (Karnick, 2011: 35). The most popular typology of loneliness was developed by Robert S. Weiss (Weiss, 1973). He distinguished the emotional from the social loneliness. Emotional loneliness occurs as a result of the inability of a person to become emotionally involved with another human being as a result of early emotional deprivation (Bowlby, 1988). Another important typology of loneliness is based on the perspective of time, and in that sense, loneliness is seen as a temporary or a permanent condition. Short-term (temporary) loneliness is transitory and is caused by an event or changes in one's environment (a sick person cannot hang out with friends while being ill). A person who feels lonely during a family meeting and who always has the feeling of loneliness regardless of being surrounded by people suffers from persistent (chronic) loneliness (Cacioppo & Patrick, 2008).

Loneliness is a universal human experience and it is likely that every person feels lonely at some point in their life, at least in a transient form. Moreover, it appears that loneliness is a cross-cultural phenomenon identified in a number of countries: Australia, USA, UK, EU countries, Scandinavian countries, Israel, and China (Rotenberg & Himel, 1999).

Many theorists and researchers emphasize that the experience of loneliness is a widespread and pervasive human experience and that, unfortunately, it is not restricted to adulthood. A small number of students manage to avoid the pain of loneliness. Many authors even suggest that loneliness is particularly intense during adolescence and that it is often characterized by the feelings of alienation and despair (Weiss, 1973; Brage,

Meredith & Woodward 1993; Mahon, 2006). The importance of loneliness in the development of affective disorders in adolescence is great. It is associated with alcoholism, drug addiction, suicidal behaviour, delinquency. It represents an integral part of all forms of psychopathology in adolescence. The struggle and search for a way out of this tragic situation is a central motivating factor for many forms of behaviour in adolescence, as well as in adulthood (Mahon, Yarcheski & Yarcheski, 2004). Numerous studies have shown that loneliness is associated with the level of self-esteem students have and that lonely students feel worthless, incompetent and unworthy of love. Family, partner and peer relationships have been identified as factors that are associated with loneliness in adolescence (Cendre, Seppala, James 2008: 732).

In our country there is a limited number of studies dealing with loneliness among older students. This paper represents an effort to contribute to the understanding of this complex phenomenon and its connection with the effects of socialization.

The Aim of the Research

The aim of this research was to examine 1) the frequency and the level of experience of loneliness in student population, 2) the association of loneliness with the variables of psychological problems (depression, eating disorders, sleep disorders, self-image disorders, and addictive behaviour), and 3) the connection of the experience of loneliness with the effects of socialization. 4) the connection between loneliness and effects of socialization and their impact on education quality.

The general hypothesis, which was the starting point in this study, is that loneliness in older student population is associated with a certain type of psychological problems and with particular effects of the socialization of an student's personality.

Method

Sample – The study included a total of 300 students from the student population. The research was conducted during the years 2011 and 2012. The structure of the sample in terms of the educational institution, age (median value – *m*) and sex are following:

- Faculty of Education in Jagodina: males– 43, females – 57, average age– 19.2 years.
- Belgrade University School of Medicine : males– 25, females – 25, average age–19.5 years.
- Faculty of Philology and Arts in Kragujevac: males– 25, females – 25, average age – 19.4 years.
- Medical College in Ćuprija: males– 50, females – 50, average age– 19.1 years.

Instruments – The *Questionnaire on the mode of crisis expression in adolescence by Kondić et al.* (1997) was used for collecting data about the experience of loneliness and other mental problems. In addition to the basic demographic data, the questionnaire contains 6 more variables (V1-V6):

V_1 – <u>Loneliness</u>, which is determined on the basis of the statement of the student: "I am lonely", and on the basis of the data about the lack of partner and friendly relationships lasting more than 6 months, as well as on the data about the characteristics of their social network (the number of persons that the student is close to and who he or she can talk to about intimate things),

V_2 – <u>Depression</u>, which is determined on the basis of the statements of the student: "I am depressed", and on the basis of the data about a frequent feeling of sorrow without an obvious reason, a feeling of apathy, a sense of the meaninglessness of life, reduced concentration while learning, a withdrawal from people and suicidal ideas,

V_3 – <u>Eating disorders</u>, which are determined on the basis of the data on the increase in appetite, overeating, the loss of appetite, vomiting, problems with body weight,

V_4 – <u>Sleep disorders</u>, which are determined on the basis of the data on insomnia, nightmares, and frequent nocturnal awakening,

V_5 – <u>Self-image disorders</u>, which is determined on the basis of the statement that students feel the need to change a certain part of their body, that they do not accept their body in its entirety, that they feel resentment towards their bodies and that they perceive themselves as less worthy,

V_6 – <u>Addictive behaviour</u>, which is determined on the basis of the statements of students that they are dependent on the Internet, cigarettes, that they often drink alcohol, that they often use tranquilizers and other narcotics.

In order to classify students into a certain category of these variables, it was necessary for them to express their opinions for at least two of the items offered.

For determining the level of the experience of loneliness a short form of the *UCLA scales* (*University of California Los Angeles Loneliness Scale*) was used. It contained seven statements with the responses in accordance with the Likert scale (from 1 to 5). The overall result was formed by adding the score on each of the claims, with the higher score indicating greater loneliness and the results ranging from 7 to 35. The scale was created as a result of numerous attempts at operationalization and measuring loneliness, and it proved to be stable in use with different samples (in terms of age, gender, education and economic status). Reliability coefficient of the scale, Cronbach alpha type, ranged in value from the 0.84 to 0.86, which is rather satisfactory if one takes into account the small number of claims.

The third instrument is the *Battery of tests of socialization* by Momirović et al., a battery of tests which can estimate the efficiency of the process of socialization in an objective, reliable and valid way. The efficiency of the process of socialization is defined as the ability to adapt to a changing social field and the ability to actively perform in the social field (Momirović et al., 2004). The battery consists of 4 tests:

<u>Delta 1st test</u>, the results which can indicate the effectiveness of communication but also the disturbances in the reception and identification of information from the social field, the low activation in relation to social stimuli, the closure of communication channels and communication difficulties with the environment.

<u>Delta 3rd test</u> is used for assessment of personality dissociation of regressive origin. The results of this test may indicate behaviours of a hysterical type which have been ontogenetically overcome (the hysterical regression), the forms of the behaviour of a primitive aggressive type which have been overcome, as well.

<u>SP 5 test</u> is designed to measure the hysterical aggression which is a special mode of secondary aggression, caused by primary anxiety, which largely hinders the establishment of normal interpersonal communication and is therefore one of the main disturbance factors in the socialization process.

<u>Sigma 1st test</u> enables estimating the propensity to antisocial and psychopathic forms of behaviour or antisocial personality disorder (which is the integration of uncontrolled aggression and amorality). The results of

this test can indicate the refusal of a person to accept the social norms of behaviour, a lack of pro-social orientation in behaviour (the absence of a sense of the welfare and needs of others), ruthlessness and aggressive fulfilment of one's own immediate needs and a lack of impulse control. All four tests have good metric properties which the authors have checked in several studies. The authors of the tests are K. Momirović, I. Ignjatović, D. Radovanović, Z. Džamonja, B. Wolf, M. Mejovšek, S. Horga.

We also compared data considering loneliness with average score achieved in studies in order to show possible connection between those factors and quality of education.

Research procedure – The research was conducted during the years 2011 and 2012 on several occasions, and it was conducted in groups. Filling in the questionnaires and solving the tests lasted approximately 45 minutes.

Data processing – First, students were sorted, in accordance to the answers to the questionnaire *Psychological problems in adolescence by Kondić et al.*, into a group of lonely students (group A) and a group of students who have not declared themselves as lonely (group B). The data obtained was statistically processed and analyzed. Group A and group B were compared in relation to the level of loneliness (the achievements on the *UCLA scale*), the number of people from social networks, in relation to variables of other psychological problems in their experience, and in relation to the effects of socialization (the achievement on the *Battery of tests of socialization by Momirović et al.*). The software used was the package for statistical analysis of data – SPSS 17.0.

Results and Discussion

The research results are presented in accordance with the aims of the research.

1st Aim: To investigate the frequency and the level of experience of loneliness among the students

In the total sample, a total of 98 (32.66%) students have been registered who claimed to be lonely while answering the *Questionnaire on the mode of crisis expression in adolescence by Kondić et al.* The frequency of the experience of loneliness in the total sample of students classified according to gender is expressed in percents and shown in Table 1.

Table 1: The frequency of the experience of loneliness according to gender (number and %)

	Male f (%)	Female f (%)	Total f (%)
Faculty of Education in Jagodina	12 (4)	23 (7.66)	35 35
Belgrade University School of Medicine	4 (1.33)	12 (4)	16 31
Faculty of Philology and Arts in Kragu-jevac	2 (0.66)	13 (4.33)	15 30
Medical College in Ćuprija	11 (3.66)	21 (7)	32 32
Total	29 (9.66)	69 (23)	98 32.66

The difference according to the gender proved to be statistically significant in favour of girls (F = 1146, p <0.001). Numerous studies have examined the relationship of gender with the experience of loneliness in student populations. There are contradictory results on the expression of loneliness in relation to gender. While some researchers report that women are lonelier than men (Weiss, 1973), others do not find gender differences in connection with the prevalence of loneliness (Neto & Barros, 2003: 357). In the studies in which the participants were required to explicitly state whether or not they were lonely, female gender achieved higher results (as is the case in this study), whereas in the studies in which indirect conclusions about loneliness were used there is no significant difference between genders – which has lead the researchers to conclude that the difference is the result of a lower level of willingness of male participants to admit their loneliness. In addition, women tend to report being lonely when they lack intimacy and emotional connection – intimate loneliness – while men may feel lonely when they lack a group of friends who they can turn to for support and friendship – social loneliness (Zhou, Sedikides, Wildschut, Gao, 2008: 1029).

Studies worldwide have confirmed that adolescence is a period of life during which there is a great risk of loneliness, but also that the amount of that risk varies with respect to different periods in adolescence (Asendorpf & van Aken, 2003). For example, research conducted by Gross, Juvonen, and Gable (Gross, Juvonen, Gable, 2002: 82) on a sample of students aged 11 to 18 showed a higher incidence of loneliness among older students. A similar tendency was observed in our study as well. According to some authors, the curve expressing the relationship of age and loneliness takes the form of the Latin letter "U", which means that the highest levels of loneliness can be found with students and the elderly who are above the age of 75 (Andersson, 1998). The interpretation of the obvious differences

in the percentage of lonely students over the years is beyond the scope of this paper. One of the possible reasons for the existence of a higher percentage of the lonely in the sample examined could be the structure of the sample, since all the examined students were the students of the first year of university studies, and had, for the most part, just left their families and their former home environment.

In order to examine the characteristics of social networks of students who identified themselves as lonely, as significant indicators of loneliness, data was also collected on the number of persons with whom students were especially close to and with whom they can talk to about intimate matters, including family, friends, partners and colleagues. The number of people close to students (as well as the percentage) is shown in Table 2.

Table 2: The number of people close to students in group A (lonely) and group B (not lonely)

Number of people	Group A (LONELY)		Group B (NOT LONELY)	
	N	%	N	%
0	28	28.57	0	0
1	39	39.79	0	0
2	14	14.28	28	13.86
3	2	2.02	65	32.17
4	3	3.06	29	14.35
5	6	6.12	45	22.27
6	1	1.02	24	11.88
7	2	2.02	2	0.09
8	1	1.02	5	2.47
9	0	0	1	0.04
10	2	2.02	3	0.13
Total	*98*	*100*	*202*	*100*

The average number of people that students in group A (lonely) can count on is 1.66 persons, while the average number of people that students in group B (not lonely) can count on is 4.12, which is a statistically significantly different (F = 3434, p <0.05). The data is consistent with the understanding that the essence of loneliness is a lack of people close to a person, as well as with the results of studies which show that the number of people close to a person is between 3 and 6 individuals for a majority of people (Cacioppo, Patrick, 2008: 118). Frequent subjects of interest in studies of correlates of loneliness are social networks characteristics, as well as the size and quality of the networks. The findings have lead researchers to conclude that loneliness has more to do with the quality

of social contacts than with the number of people and the frequency of social contacts. Researchers believe that experiencing support by people close to an student gives them a sense of belonging to a community, which contributes to reducing the feeling of loneliness (Sarason & Sarason 1985; Lee Stone, 2012). Our research yielded the information that 76 out of 98 students who identified themselves as lonely have not had an emotional partner (a boyfriend or a girlfriend) for more than 8 months.

Table 3 presents a comparative view of the level of isolation in group A (lonely) and group B (not lonely) which was obtained using the *UCLA loneliness scale*.

Table 3
The arithmetic means, standard deviations, the central values and the range of results on the UCLA loneliness scale for group A and group B

	N	M	*Sd*	C	Span
LONELY (A)	98	**28.22**	8.63	26	7 –35
NOT LONELY (B)	202	**13.60**	3.82	12	7– 25
Total	300	**20.91**	5.59	19	7–30

Since the range of possible results on the UCLA loneliness scale ranges from 7 to 35, we can see that the results obtained from students assigned to group A (lonely) is rather high (M = 28.22) when compared to group B (not lonely) whose results are quite low (M = 13.60). The resulting difference is statistically highly significant (F = 3143, p <0.01).

2nd Aim: To analyze the connection between loneliness and other psychological problems

Table 4 gives a comparative overview of the percentage of incidence of psychological problems in group A (lonely) and group B (not lonely).

Table 4
A comparative overview of the percentage of incidence of psychological problems in group A (lonely) and group B (not lonely), and the significance of the differences between the two groups

Variables	Group A		Group B		F	p
	f	%	f	%		
V2– Depression	95	97%	14	17%	12. 18	<0.001
V3– Eating Disorders	60	62%	68	34%	6.56	<0.001
V4– Sleep disorders	80	79%	42	54%	8.34	<0.001
V5– Self-image disorders	92	94%	30	32%	11.67	<0.001
V6– Addictive behaviour	20	21%	11	54%	4.78	<0.001

The analysis of the significance of the differences between group A (lonely) and group B (not lonely) showed highly significant differences in all variables examined. Group B has an advantage over group A only for the variable *Addictive behaviour* (a significantly greater number of students who declare themselves not to be lonely state that they have experienced some forms of addictive behaviour). This is in contrast with the findings of the research in which loneliness is associated with drug addiction to a great extent (Nilsson, Lindström, 2006).

Table 5 shows that there is a statistically significant correlation of loneliness with variables: the number of people close to a person (negative correlation), self-image (negative correlation), the effects of socialization (negative correlation), depression, and sleep disorders. The other variables show mutual correlation as well.

Table 5
Correlations of the examined variables for the whole sample

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	7
1. LONELINESS	------							
2. THE NUMBER OF PEOPLE CLOSE TO A PERSON	**–0.415**	-----						
3. SELF-IMAGE	**–0.502**	**0.234**	------					
4. DEPRESSION	**0.403**	**–0.262**	**–0.323**	-------				
5.EATING DISORDERS	**0.398**	0.038	**0.412**	**0.423**	--------			
6. SLEEP DISORDERS	*0.261*	–0.120	0.041	**0.399**	0.088	-------		
7. ADDICTIVE BEHAVIOUR	0.036	0.057	0.102	0.207	0.080	0.078	-------	
8. THE EFFECTS OF SOCIALIZATION	**0.418**	*–0.203*	0.167	0.132	–0.192	0.056	0.219	-----

All significant correlations are indicated by shaded areas. Correlations significant at the level of 0.001 are marked by the text in bold. Correlations significant at the level of 0.005 are marked by the text in italic.

This study has shown that loneliness in students is negatively correlated with the number of people close to a person and with student's self-image. Loneliness is significantly correlated with depression and the effects of socialization, and significantly correlated with sleep disorders and eating disorders. There was no statistically significant association of loneliness with addictive behaviour. These results are consistent with the results obtained in other studies. Numerous studies have documented a negative association of loneliness with self-image and self-esteem

(Bonetti, Campbell, Gilmore, 2010: 279). Lonely students feel worthless, incompetent and unworthy of love. Many studies have confirmed a positive correlation between loneliness and depression. Lonely students rarely report the experience of happiness and satisfaction with their life and they often report a feeling of emptiness, apathy, boredom and sadness (Qualter, Brown, Munn, Rothenberg, 2010: 495), which has been shown in this study as well.

3rd Aim: To examine the connection between the experience of loneliness and the effects of socialization.

In the Battery of tests of socialization, the achievement of students is expressed via coefficients of socialization (SQ). In accordance with the original instructions for grading, a normal value range of the coefficient of the socialization is between 85 and 115. Results higher than 115 indicate a socialization disorder, while results under 85 indicate overemphasised effects of socialization, in terms of rigid respect of rules, social anxiety and a fear of negative social evaluation. Social anxiety is associated with loneliness due to withdrawing of socially anxious individuals from social situations. For students who are dependent on the approval of others there is a greater fear of negative evaluation, and there is therefore greater social anxiety as well (Schlenker, Mark Leary, 2007: 653).

Table 6 presents a comparative overview of the achievements of the group A (lonely) and group B (not lonely) on the Battery of tests of socialization.

Table 6
Mean values and standard deviations of the coefficients of socialization (SQ)
for group A (lonely) and group B (not lonely)

SQ	D1	D3	S1	SP5	Total
Group A					
M	80.68	82.68	82. 89	84.54	82.69
Sd	7.89	8.43	8.86	10.52	8.92
N	98	98	98	98	98
Group B					
M	88.82	95.68	98.68	96.96	95.03
Sd	12.13	14.74	15.18	14.93	14.24
N	202	202	202	202	220

The analysis of the significance of differences between group A (lonely) and group B (not lonely) showed highly significant differences in all applied tests from the Battery by Momirović et al. [D1 test: (F = 4532, p

<0.01); D3 test: (F = 5329, p <0.01); S1 test (F = 4654, p <0.01); SP5 test (F = 4783, p <0.01). The results obtained from our sample show a tendency to coincide with the results obtained in other studies which have revealed an overlap between loneliness and the effects of socialization manifested as a fear of negative evaluation, dependence on the opinions of others, a low level of self-esteem and social anxiety (Tariq, Masood 2011: 224).

4th Aim: To examine the connection between loneliness and effects of socialization and their impact on education quality.

In order to prove connection between loneliness, socialization and education quality we compared average score achieved during studies with data acquired in our research.

Table 7 shows achievements of students by sex and correlations between average academic score and loneliness

	Academic Male Score(m)	Female Score (m)	Lonely Males f (%)	Lonely females f (%)	Corelation Males	Corelation Females
Faculty of Education in Jagodina	7.78	7.72	12 (4)	23 (7.66)	−0.362	−0.383
Belgrade University School of Medicine	7.66	7. 41	4 (1.33)	12 (4)	−0.285	−0.322
Faculty of Philology and Arts in Kragujevac	7.82	7.35	2 (0.66)	13 (4.33)	−0.295	−0.352
Medical College in Ćuprija	7.95	8.01	11(3.66)	21 (7)	−0.374	−0.432

Analysis of data shown in table suggests that there is a low to moderate negative correlation between loneliness and academic score, especially for female students. Meaning of this is that students who are lonely and socially isolated are also underachievers in terms of academic score. This result in contradiction to popular belief that socially isolated persons are often more successful on studies and oriented towards achieving better academic score.

A Critical Review

The main limitation of this study is the homogeneity of the sample. The participants in the study were first year students of different faculties and were tested a few months after arriving in a new environment (92%). Future research should include students of different ages and professional orientation.

Conclusion

The frequency of loneliness among students is high (32.66). There is a significant difference in the frequency of loneliness in favour of female gender. The analysis of the correlation of loneliness with the other examined variables has shown a statistically significant negative correlation with the number of people close to a person and one's self-image. Lonely students have social contacts with a small number of close persons (1.66 on the average), they lack emotional partners, they feel alienated, they see themselves as less worthy, and they feel the need to change their own body.

In addition, a statistically significant association of loneliness was found with depression, sleep and eating disorders and the effects of socialization. Lonely students are often sad, they have a sense of meaninglessness, and suicidal thoughts, they eat excessively and are obese or they lose their appetite, and they report insomnia and nightmares. Lonely students show the effects of exaggerated socialization, social anxiety and a fear of negative social evaluation.

Given the percentage of students who identify themselves as lonely and given the vulnerability of this developmental period, the results obtained can be regarded as worrying. They can be used as the basis for interpretation and understanding of many aspects of student behavior and as an instigator of organized social action which would help young people. The development of social competences and working on the development of skills useful in establishing social networks, exchanges and cooperation with others, could contribute to the socialization process of students in the direction of overcoming loneliness and establishing constructive interactions with one's social environment.

From a educational point, another important conclusion is that loneliness may in some degree and in some way influence academic achievements and therefore general quality of education. Further research are needed to prove more strongly this and other conclusions from our research.

References:

Asendorpf, B. J., van Aken & A.G. Marcel, (2003). Validity of Big Five Personality Judgments in Childhood: A 9 Year Longitudinal Study. *European Journal of Personality* 17: 1–17.

Andersson, L. (1998). Loneliness reacearch and interventions: A review of the literature. *Aging & Mental Health.* 2 (4): 28–36.

Brage D., Meredith W. & J. Woodward (1993). Correlates of Loneliness among Midwestern Students. *Adolescence,* 28 (2): 58–62.

Bester, G. (2007). Personality development of the student: peer group versus parents. *South African Journal of Education*, 27(2): 177–190.

Cendri, H. A., Seppala E. M. & J. J. Gross (2008). Loving-kindness meditation increases social connectedness. *Emotion*, 8(5): 720–724.

Cacioppo, J. & W. Patrick (2008). *Loneliness: Human Nature and the Need for Social Connection*, New York: W.W. Norton & Co.

Gross F. E., Juvonen J. & Gable L. Sh. (2002). Internet Use and Well-Being in Adolescence. *Journal of Social Issues*, 58 (1): 75–90.

Neto, F. & J. Barros (2003). Predictors of loneliness among students and nuns in Angola and Portugal. *The Journal of Psychology.* 137 (4): 351–362.

Nicholas A. Ch. & J. H. Fowler (2007). The Spread of obesity in a largesSocial Network over 32 Years. *The New England Journal of Medicine.* 357: 370–379.

Nilsson, B. & A. U. Lindström (2006). Is loneliness a psychological dysfunction? A literary study of the phenomenon of loneliness. *Scandinavian Journal of Caring Sciences,* 20 (1): 93–101.

Enuju, J. L. & S. Stone (2012). Co-occurring internalizing and externalizing behavioral problems: the mediating effect of negative self-concept. *Journal of youth and adolescence*, 41 (6): 717–731.

Elisheva F. G. & J. Juvonen (2002). Gable Internet use and well/being in adolescence, *Journal of Social Issues,* 58 (1): 75—90.

Epstein, M., & M. L. Ward (2011). Exploring parent-student communication about gender: Results from student and emerging adult samples. *Sex Roles, 65,* 108–118.

Hymel, Sh.(2004). Cross-sectional and longitudinal relations among peer-reported trustworthiness, social relationships, and psychological adjustment in children and early students from the United Kingdom and Canada. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology*, 88, 46–67.

Hughes, D. et al. (2006). Parents' ethnic-racial socialization practices: A review of research and directions for future study. *Developmental Psychology,* 42, 5, 747–770.

Karnick, P. M . (2011). Making the connection: theory, research, and practice. *Nursing Science Quarterly, 2*4 (1): 26–42.

Kendler K.S . & J.H. Baker (2007). Genetic influences on measures of the environment: a systematic review. *Psychological Medicine* 37 (5): 615–631.

Goossens, L. et al. (2009). Loneliness and solitude in adolescence: A confirmatory factor analysis of alternative models, *Personality and Individual Differences,* 47: 890–894.

Lasgaard, M. & A. Elklit (2009). *Prototypic Features of Loneliness in a Stratified Sample of Students.* Interpersona 3 (Suppl.1), 85–110.

Bonetti, L., Campbell, M. A. & L. Gilmore (2010). The Relationship of Loneliness and Social Anxiety with Children's and Students' Online Communication Cyberpsychology. *Behavior, and Social Networking,* 13(3): 279–285.

Levine, K. J., & C. A. Hoffner (2006). Students' conceptions of work: What is learned from different sources during anticipatory socialization?. *Journal of Student Research,* 21, 647–669.

Mahon, N. E. et al. (2006). A meta-analytic study of predictors for loneliness during adolescence. *Nursing Research,* 55: 308–315.

Morita, N. (2009). Language, culture, gender, and academic socialization. *Language and education*, 23(5), 443–460.

Qualter P. et al. (2010*).* Childhood loneliness as a predictor of student depressive symptoms: an 8-year longitudinal study. *European child & student psychiatry,* 19 (6): 493–501

Rotenberg, J. K. & Sh. Hymel (1999). *Loneliness in Childhood and Adolescence*, Cambridge: University Press.

Schlenker B. R. & M. R. Leary (2007). Social Anxiety and Communication about the Self. *Psychological Bulleti*n, 92 (3): 641–669

Sarason, R. I. & R. B. Sarason (1985). *Social Support: Theory, Research and Applications.* Dordrecht: Martinus Nijhoff Publishers.

Tayyibah T. & S. Masood. (2011). Social Competence, Parental Promotion of Peer Relations, and Loneliness among Students. *Pakistan Journal of Psychological Research*, 26 (2): 217–232.

Xinyue Z. et al. (2008). Counteracting Loneliness: On the Restorative Function of Nostalgia, Psychological Science,19 (10): 1023 – 1029.

Victor Ch. R & J. Keming (2012). The Prevalence of Loneliness Among Adults: A Case Study of the United Kingdom. *The Journal of Psychology: Interdisciplinary and Applie*. 146 (1–2): 85–104.

Vaidyanathan, B. (2011). Religious resources or differential returns early religious socialization and declining attendance in emerging adulthood. *Journal for the scientific study of religion*, 50 (2), 366–387.

Weiss, R. S. (1973). *Loneliness: The experience of emotional and social isolation*. Cambridge: The Mit Press.

II
THE QUALITY OF
ADULT EDUCATION

*Balázs Németh**

Making Higher Education to Open up to Adult Learners – An Actual Issue for Quality Education

Abstract

This paper is to analyse the state of art in how higher education in Hungary is prepared to open up to adult learners wanting to extend their knowledge and develop skills at an advanced level of education. Also, a detailed description of the roles and functions of higher education in adult learning will demonstrate some particular aspects of available tools and methods in use and their capacities to make HEIs to become capable to respond the adult learners' needs. A particular issue influencing quality of education is how far educational, research and third roles of universities may enable them to attract atypical learners as adults.

Key words: Lifelong learning, adult learning, higher education, recognition and validation of prior learning,

---

*   Faculty of Adult Education and Human Resources Development Pécs, Hungary

Key concept and short introduction

Definition of the term "adults" in higher education

The term „Adult" is not directly defined in the Act of Hungarian higher education[1] as the minimum age for entering into higher education studies is 18, therefore, all students and learners must be at the age of 18 or over, regarded as adults, when entering into universities and colleges (generally in levels of ISCED 5a and 5b) regardless of the level and forms of their education within higher education. Another marker to underline one identical precondition of entering into higher education, and that is *maturation*, which is formally accessible through a set of exams in secondary schools and secondary vocational schools at the age of 18 and afterwards. However, the Act on Adult Education[2] clearly defines *who is an "adult"* and this adult person, apart from being able to enter a variety of adult education and training programmes, can officially learn at HEIs in Hungary for either a BA and MA level diploma or a vocation-oriented certificate available through special accredited post-secondary Higher Vocational Training (Higher Education provided VET in ISCED 5b) as *an adult learner by holding a certificate of maturation.* One must also bear in mind that students having finished their studies in HVET are entitled to take relevant credit points into their BA level studies (up to 60 credits as maximum!).[3]

A general process of her/his entry to higher education to Bachelor, Master and Post-Graduate studies is achieved through a formal entry exam and this status enables the adult to become a student of the university or college and hold special rights attached to that status. One can directly enrol to full-time or part-time/distance studies, either at ISCED 5a or 5b. *Students learning in non-full-time formats are recognised as students and adult learners* most of whom are *considered by higher education institutions, according to the HEAD-indicated typology, in majority as recurrent learners, some deferrers or returners.*

The above listed types of adult learners are the ones which Hungarian higher education institutions consider as relevant in functioning and operation of colleges and universities. Again, they are dominantly recurrent learners, some deferrers and returners. There are still no available

---

1   Act on Hungarian Higher Education - CCIV./2011.
2   Act on Adult Education CI./2001. – According to the Act, „*an adult is a person who has already completed her/his compulsory education*" (strictly defined in the Act of Public Education - CXC./2011.)
3   http://www.ofi.hu/kiadvanyaink-110630/aims-and-types-of-study

statistics related to special grouping or types of adult learners other than those with reference only to sex and form/mode of education within the HEI (e.g. full-time, part-time, evening or distance education). The Chapter on statistical data underlines that most adult learners take their studies in part-time mode/form!

One must note that higher education in Hungary developed and has maintained some special roles in the education of adults in special part-time, evening or corresponding forms/structures of education during the last six decades. This kind of rather varying and changing partial role in adult education and learning has not yet turned most universities and colleges to recognise such actions belonging to their mainstream functions until the very end of the twentieth century. The mere emphasis to open up higher education to adults has been there for that period, however, some follow-up policy changes have not constrained academic cycles to step forward a more flexible and adult learner centred structure of higher education which stayed rather closed, in educational functions and orientations, for adults.

Criteria (e.g. age, life course) to define "adults" in HE in Hungary according to major groups of relevant adult learners

The OECD categories to define adults in higher education cannot be automatically used in the Hungarian context for the following reasons:

- all students above the age of 18 in higher education studying for a Bachelor, Master or a Doctoral degree are formally considered as adults in legal terms;
- people learning in higher education for a vocation are officially considered as adults learners in higher education in Hungary;
- the European statistical data collection system (Eurostat) applies the age cohort of 25–64 as an indicator to measure participation of adults in lifelong learning and it generates several questions and issues whether students and adult learners who start learning in higher education under the age of 25 may not be counted into/reflected by any lifelong learning indicator;

The OECD categories have not been directly used in Hungarian higher education, however, those categories are reflected in the changing concept of an "adult learner" in higher education from 2005.[4] That was the time when the newly accepted strategy on lifelong learning of the Hungarian Government heavily influenced law-makers to recognise each and

---

4   OECD (1987) *Adults in Higher Education.* Paris: OECD.

all students in higher education who study in part-time, distance or in evening educational formats both as students and adult learners.[5] The peculiar aim was to make higher education institutions turn towards growing the number of their non-traditional students with more care, better provision and services as part of university lifelong learning.[6]

Recently, the situation in academic cycles has moved attention to raise the research quality of higher education institutions through some top "research universities" (from 2010 and onwards) and to shift the problem of raising the number of non-traditional students to more "teaching-oriented universities". The biggest twelve universities in Hungary applied for the status of "research university", but only the best five was ranked to receive the label in 2010 from the Ministry of Education and Culture. Another five of them were ranked to receive the label of "excellent university". The process itself was a kind of paying more attention to research excellence instead of moving forward with the Bologna– process, as it is considered as a task formally having been completed by most higher education institutions. Universities and colleges, however, have started to show more attention and interest towards university lifelong learning and adult learners through their short-cycle programmes, vocational training programmes and peculiar distance/e-learning courses. Yet, the number of such programmes have been growing rather slowly and reflects the lack of overall institutional interest, the lack of adult training skills of most lecturers and the lack of appropriate and flexible curricula, proper teaching methodology and technical facilities. One could easily come to the conclusion that most universities are not yet fully interested in the raising of the number of their students from adult learners, other than from those who would enrol to traditional Bachelor, Master or Doctorate programmes.

Prevailing concepts of adults in HE in Hungary

The general concept of adults in higher education in Hungary is a bit different from the concepts indicated in the DIE-HEAD *Definitions and conceptions*, as some particular indicators of the approach may not be identifiable in the Hungarian context.

Adults learners in higher education programmes are defined as those who have completed their compulsory education period (according to the

---

5   Strategy of Lifelong Learning of the Government of Hungary – Govt. Decree 2212/ 2005.

6   The approach of university lifelong learning has been effectively represented and demonstrated by the Hungarian Universities Lifelong Learning Network Association/ MELLearN since 2003. Please find more at: http://www.mellearn.hu

new Act on Public Education, it is the age of 16 until which compulsory public education lasts!) and have enrolled to any vocational training, Bachelor, Master or Doctorate programme of the university/college; The age cohort of of 25–64 matters in the context of the EC, Eurydice, Eurostat surveys of lifelong learning.

The issue of participation of non-traditional students to represent underrepresented groups as minorities, disabled matters from the point of view of equal opportunities guaranteed by the Act on Higher Education.[7]

Most students, studying for a vocational certificate, a bachelor or a master degree, or even for a Doctorate degree in part-time, distance or evening course formats, can be described as persons who continue their studies which often paired with a family biography.

In the area of access and admission, one must recognize that access is formally open to any adult who holds a certificate of maturation and collects enough entry points through an entrance exam to Bachelor or Master programmes. Vocational programmes are open to all adults holding a Certificate of Maturation. Doctorate programmes require, as part of their admission criteria, a Diploma of Master studies and a successful entry exam. No alternative entrance and admission is available to accredited programmes of higher education institutions in Hungary. The only exception is the field of short non-degree courses, programmes for adults who want to upgrade their knowledge, skills in special continuing education for lifelong learners, for example in the programmes and courses as part of the university of the third age.[8] This point clearly underlines the orientation of universities and colleges to widen their Bachelor and Master programmes in part-time and distance formats of education for non-traditional courses, and, moreover, some exceptions show that particular universities and colleges open access and admission to non-traditional adult learners into their adult continuing education programmes or non-degree/non-credit courses also in pat-time, evening and distance education, week-end, etc. forms.

Since recognition and validation of prior learning has just taken some early experimental forms in higher education, it is just about to accelerate special admission or entry in its testing phase.

Some universities have already created special partnerships with employers, trade-unions, city/regional councils to promote smart city, creative city programmes, or to join in for the cultural capital programme, like

---

7   Act on Hungarian Higher Education - CCIV./2011.
8   The Programme of King Sigismund College is identical in this context. List of courses for elder learners is accessible at: http://www.zskf.hu/nyugdijasok

in the case of the City of Pécs for 2010, with open lectures and courses together with both citizens of the municipality and the visitors. Another aspect is to organise summer universities/open lectures, adult learners' weeks according to a major UNESCO initiative from 1997. Eötvös Lóránd University (ELTE), the János Vitéz College of Péter Pázmány University and the Faculty of Adult Education of the University of Pécs have so far participated such actions to promote non-credit courses, lectures and summer universities in such context. This point refers to new and experimental courses for the adult public in order to form partnerships amongst generations, associations and institutions holding specials knowledge better be transferred with new ways of c-operation. For example, museums and libraries are becoming special partners for higher education, and, also, industrial organisations are also invited to generate new forms of knowledge transfer on the basis of connecting research, development and innovation.

On the other hand, the typology of Slowley and Schuetze for lifelong learners can be partially and very cautiously applied in the context of Hungarian higher education.[9] In Hungary, a second chance learner is a person who wishes to take or to complete her/his public education in special schools offering second chance programmes. Therefore, the notion is not used in that direct meaning, or to reflect an alternative way of access/admission through special examination or assessment. This would, on the other hand, require a rather sophisticated RPL or VPL system in higher education which is still in experimental and early phase.[10] In Hungarian higher education recurrent learners and returners are the majority of lifelong learners, but refreshers and learners in later life are people who expand the number of new learners entering into higher education for gathering either scientific knowledge or practical skills.

Background information

Information on important regulatory issues and policies

So far as the regulation of higher education is concerned, it is the Act on Higher education that clearly regulates that only accredited degree programmes can be advertised and be accessible for candidate students within Bachelor, Master and Doctorate levels. The Act also describes the

---

9   Slowey, M. & Schuetze, H.G. (eds.) (forthcoming) *Global perspectives on higher education and lifelong learners.*

10 A latest project to focus on the development of validation system in higher education is described as follows (only in Hungarian!): http://tamop413.ofi.hu/validaciorol

number, forms (universities and colleges) of higher education institutions (state-funded, and private) and defines what makes a higher education institution. The Act demonstrates the process of accreditation of degree/ credit programmes at Bachelor, Master and Doctorate (PhD) levels and describes how the state finances state universities, colleges and regulates the forms of financing of studies at higher education institutions. This law regulates participation and defines entry forms and processes to degree and non-degree courses at Hungarian universities and colleges.[11]

Most relevant regulatory issues at national, regional and/or institutional level to stimulate the participation of adults in HE in Hungary (e.g. access and admission to HE, funding of HEIs, student grants/ loans)

A major principle of higher education in Hungary that it is attached to the European Higher Education Area (EHEA), therefore, higher education applies all achievements of the Bologna-process and considers itself as a significant actor in lifelong learning. Another principle is quality education and research, and this issue underlines the necessity of accreditation towards educational activities and the application of relevant quality assurance methods, tools so as to raise effectiveness of research, development and innovation potentials in consideration of partnerships with major stakeholders at national, regional and local levels. Hungarian state universities are active partners of EUA, and it means that most of them apply major principles and goals of EUA statements and charters, for example, the Charter of EUA on lifelong learning.[12]

Hungarian higher education is regulated by the Ministry of Human Resources and its State Secretariat for Education.[13] The main goal of the Ministry is to regulate higher education, as part of the educational policy of the Government of Hungary, so as to properly generate and disseminate quality knowledge. This approach is also connected to the Science-policy of the Government so as to help higher education become competitive by paying a significant attention to quality education and research through partnerships with key stakeholders in research-development, and in innovation. The Higher Education policy of the Ministry is to help higher

---

11   Act on Hungarian Higher Education - CCIV./2011.

12   EUA (2008) *European Universities' Charter on Lifelong Learning*. Brussels: EUA. Source: http://www.eua.be/eua-work-and-policy-area/eua-policy-position-and-de-clarations.aspx

13   Description of the Ministry of Human Resources: http://www.kormany.hu/en/minis-try-of-human-resources/news

education maintain and develop its education and research activities and services. This policy supports the orientation of candidate students towards all sciences, especially to natural and technical sciences and engineering. This approach is also reflected in the rate of state-funded places for students in higher education. The Government of Hungary supports the freedom of students to decide in which subject area to study, however, the state-funded places are limited to state-interests referring to the scientific area/major. Students can self-finance their studies in case of insistence on a major the state does not fully support according to its policies. The funding system is orientated mainly to support full-time students as part-timers are financing their studies from individual sources in most cases. However, part-timers can also have financial difficulties to cover the costs of their education and training. In that case, a special social support starts to make the student pay his/her fee in monthly instalments and not in one sum. A special state-owned student-loan system is also in operation and that is the only system to officially help students cover the expenses of the studies and pay back the loan in monthly payment.[14]

Another important aspect of higher education in Hungary is the Hungarian Rectors' Conference which is a highest platform for university and college leaders to demonstrate a common view and position in each and all issues to influence the status and future development of higher education in the aspect of regulations/law, financing and national development plans and EU-funded/co-funded programmes and initiatives.[15]

Participation in Higher Education is formally regulated by the Act on Higher Education, namely, any person who enrols to a certain university must pass an entrance exam, by holding a certificate of maturation, on the other hand, anyone can decide which major to enrol and choose what available format of education to take (e.g. full-time, part-time, distance or evening teaching). Another route is to take non-degree higher level vocational training, post-graduate specialisation, partial trainings, summer university courses which can also be accessed depending on the current level of education of the person. Such courses and trainings open *flexible learning for adults and imply innovative methodologies and the use a certain VPL and recognition of prior experience in workplace environment.*

The basic principle for degree courses is that they are to be accredited, namely, only accredited programmes/courses can only be advertised to adult learners. They may be accredited by the Hungarian Board of Ac-

---

14   http://www.diakhitel.hu/index.php/en/10-key-features-of-the-student-loan

15   Major Source on Hungarian Rectors' Conference: http://www.mrk.hu/en/ A short description of Hungarian Higher Education and its institutions is accessible at: http://www.mrk.hu/wp-content/uploads/2011/12/mfi_angol_2012.pdf

creditation (MAB), based on the Act on Higher Education, referring to degree-courses (BA, MA and PhD levels) or through the Adult-Training Accreditation Board (FAT), based on the Act Adult Education. This approach, on the other hand, allows higher education organisations *to provide their accredited courses with flexible provision and methodologies* referring to time (e.g. part-time, evening or distance forms of education) and new ways of knowledge transfer (e.g. e-learning, blended-learning, m-learning, etc.). Moreover, universities and colleges are autonomous to provide non-accredited non-degree courses in any format they recognise as beneficial to adult learners and, form another angle, they are responding either to current adult learning needs or local/regional stakeholders' claims. There are no other specific laws to regulate this area with any particular orientation and claims.

The existing regulations give way to autonomous universities and colleges to provide flexible learning opportunities through either accredited degree-courses or non-degree courses, or even attend the varieties of informal learning programmes provided by higher education institutions focusing on the dissemination of scientific knowledge or to develop social skills in dominantly community learning formats either within the institution or in extramural environment. A more *specific strategy on adult and lifelong learning would be of social benefit*, on the one hand, to help raising participation, and on the other, to get universities involved into local and regional learning partnerships for better learning performance.

National policies and trends in HE as well as in adult education, vocational education and training to overcome barriers between the sectors (e.g. cooperation between HE and adult education sector and NGOs, strategies for RPL)

A significant policy element and trend, as part of the one-step up orientation, is to urge students to learn for vocations, BA and MA/MSc and Doctorate degrees and gain knowledge, develop competences, and skills which are needed in the labour market. Higher education policy in Hungary has turned towards trying to raise the number of students in higher education, in accordance with the goals of the Education and Training 2020 programme of the European Union, referring to attainment in higher education by 2020.[16] However, demographic trends and the direct involvement of the Government to raise the number of state-funded places of full-time programmes in higher education in natural and technical sci-

---

16   Source: http://europa.eu/legislation_summaries/education_training_youth/general_ framework/ef0016_en.htm

ences, engineering, and to radically reduce state-funded places in social sciences, humanities, economics and law will eventually make it difficult to raise the overall number of students in higher education. Additionally, the number of graduating students in higher education fell after 2010 from 38.000 to 35.000 in 2011 (a 6.5% fall).[17]

It is seems fairly difficult to overcome barriers amongst sectors of education and training, as most adult education and training programmes are organised in the non-formal sector and consider higher education as a separate actor in the education of adults. Co-operation amongst higher education, vocational education and training and adult education is very rare and mainly demonstrated, within higher education, by departments and/or institutes of adult education/andragogy through their education and training programmes for the development of adult learning and education through the followings:

- accredited education and training of adult educators within Bachelor and Master programmes;
- research and development initiatives, projects in adult learning and education through partnership with major stakeholders, like labour market key actors, employers, chambers of commerce and industry, local councils, labour offices, training centres, adult training enterprises, civic organisations, churches, etc.;
- accredited adult training programmes for adult learners.

Universities having a rather strong adult education/adult training orientation have their own partnerships/consortia with VET and adult education organisations to appear in joint development or research projects for quality adult learning and education targeted in the national development plan or maintaining partnerships for raising practice-oriented education and training dimensions of their own portfolio.

Since the application of RPL, VPL mechanism is at a very early stage, most Hungarian higher education institutions have no or limited practice in the validation of prior learning, however, the new model for universities will be probably launched from 2014 and onwards at state-owned universities at least, and this can be regarded as a strategic development. One can only find an existing practice of RPL in non-formal initial (iVET) and continuing vocational (CVET) training programmes.[18]

---

17 Source: http://www.ksh.hu/docs/eng/xstadat/xstadat_long/h_wdsi001b.html
18 Please find examples of the validation of prior learning in Hungarian vocation training centre and second chance school at the Observal project website of EUCEN (European Universities Lifelong Learning Network): http://www.observal.org/country_profiles/hungary and http://www.observal-net.eu/node/50

Specific conditions/events/policy decisions shaping policy in the field of opening HE to adults (e.g. national policies which specifically mention the openness of HE to adults)

The new Act on Higher Education of 2011 urges for a better higher education developing its educational and training provision to support adult learning, as universities and colleges ought to open for new adult learners' needs in their localities and should develop partnerships with several institutions and organisations of education, culture, enterprises so as to raise joint actions of knowledge transfer by applying new ICT –tools, methods, curricula and identifying new needs of learners, organisations where higher education may play a significant, leading role implementing, developing and expanding quality leaning. Such efforts can go along with place management, social capital development, local and regional development programmes, interregional projects, like that of the cross-border partnerships within higher education, local and regional councils, joint ventures, chambers of commerce, etc.[19] Basically, one has to acknowledge that the conditions are provided for opening higher education for more adult learners, as, formally, each and all university and college lectures are open for adults to visit. Several universities and colleges organise their own actions by involving people from several age-groups to disseminate their services, their education and training portfolio through various programmes, festivals, projects, web-based contacts, public events, adult learners' weeks, third age university initiatives, city-region festivals, summer universities, etc.

Most universities' and colleges' websites offer several programmes, lectures, training-packages for adult learners at a bargain price or even for free. Universities and colleges are promoters of the dissemination of sciences through open lectures, public speeches in lecture halls combined with broadcasted events, labelled as open university programme.[20]

Disadvantaged and underrepresented groups of adult learners in HE

There are some disadvantaged and underrepresented groups of adult learners in higher education in Hungary, like the members of the Roma

---

19 Please find the example of Cross-border development programme for Hungary and Croatia with university participation and partnership-based educational, development and research orientation in the intercommunity human resource development dimension: http://www.hu-hr-ipa.com/en/funded-projects

20 The example of the Open University Programme of the University of Pécs is available at: http://www.nyitottegyetem.pte.hu/ Another good example for open university programme in the media is the „University of all Knowledge/Mindentudás egyeteme": http://mindentudas.hu/

minority, however, universities and colleges make every efforts to turn their institutions easily accessible for those groups and raise the number of Roma adults to learn and study in various programmes in higher education. Students from social disadvantages families can apply for additional social support from the university and it is a tool to compensate a significant part of social disadvantage. Such students can apply for being accommodated in halls of residence for the time of higher education studies. Also, students with disadvantaged family background can apply for a reduction of any occurring tuition fees or to state-funds in order to cover a proportion of or the total of their tuition fee. This approach applies to part-time students as well!

Successful policies in regard to opening higher education to adults

An analytical approach must underline that successful policies for opening higher education to adults are to cover up and measure the learning needs of adults and their own communities in the localities of the higher education institutions. Therefore, policies, missions of universities and colleges must focus on needs-oriented programmes as part of their education and training provisions. Also, universities and colleges are to demonstrate and maintain open access to several forms of scientific lectures, programmes and organize new forms of knowledge and data-bases where adult learners can decide which programme or service to take through a more formalised way. Higher education institutions may not consider themselves as places for adult learning, as they are, and not necessarily understand or rather slowly move in the direction of what makes an university a place for lifelong learning. The Hungarian Universities' Lifelong Learning Network (MELLearN) and its actions, annual conferences help universities and colleges to explore their potentials how to expand their education and training provision towards adult learners.[21]

A significant dimension of a successful policy is how an institution can become learner-centred, can turn to become a lifelong learning university. That means a new conception of organising the university/college into a flexible learning space where the organisation itself learns how to fulfil its missions in open and flexible ways through quality mechanisms and actions with a thorough monitoring of all actions and functions directly connected with education and training.

---

21 MELLearN website demonstrates, through conferences and publications, the policy orientation of higher education towards adult learning and opening up to adult learners with quality services, accessible tools and effective methods. Source: www.mellearn.hu

Important measures that have been initiated to increase openness of HE

Some initiated measures for widening the openness of higher education in Hungary are widening access to courses in part-time, open-distance and evening course formats for adult learners, establishing and developing new distance/e-learning programmes of non-degree programmes for adult learners, introducing and developing new higher vocational training programmes for adult learners and increasing new and effective methodologies of teaching and assessment. Universities and colleges have widened their collaboration with local and regional stakeholders, NGOs, etc. to collect some peculiar feedback upon which dimension and direction to expand provision and services in order to attain more learners from the local public. Therefore, institutions and organisations of adult education and training were also asked to give advice on how to increase openness of HEIs. One specific aspect has been the website-based virtual openness of the institution, and another has been the capability of recognising the corporate role of the university to respond effectively to local needs of adults, with new learning spaces, methods, contents amongst those needs.[22]

Finally, universities and colleges have had to turn their physical infrastructures as open learning spaces to adult learners and demonstrate an open and partner mood of mutual actions and communication so as to get rid of the unsuccessful mood of the academia by closing science into an ivory tower of academic cycles and, instead, disseminate quality knowledge, based on research, to the public through several open ways by, for example, the "night of researchers" which brings research and science closer to adult learners interested in human reasoning and mind-set.

The most important historical background with regard to opening HE to adults

There are several identical historical conditions and developments in Hungary which are of importance to the opening higher education to adults. The democratization of higher education started in 1945, however, early attempts of late nineteen and twentieth centuries marked a rather liberal attitude to make universities follow the modern English opening of higher education to the adult public through *university extension*. Those attempts could not break through towards explicit realisation of such an initiative, and no significant political and scientific support backed this rather liberal approach after World War I, but, on the contrary, higher

---

22   Please find more on corporate roles of universities at: Jarvis, Peter (2001) *Universities and Corporate Universities.* London: Kogan Page

education became dominantly attainable to students from middle-class family-background.[23]

A more modern and democratic reconstruction of higher education came into ground after 1945, yet, the Communist take-over and hegemony did not help the evolution of an autonomous set of institutions to develop. It was only after the mid–1960s that a slow liberalisation and democratization entered into public and higher education. Even if evening-courses started already in 1945, it took two decades that university and college life could get rid of a rigid heavy ideological constraint and slowly turn towards modern development with growing part-time and evening courses formats in education through universities and colleges. The late 1970s and 1980s were to establish a good environment for educational and scientific reforms so as to continue quality scientific research and combine it with opening higher education to non-traditional groups of students and adult learners at the turn of the communist regime into liberal democracy in 1989–90.

Since 1990, higher education in Hungary has gained a strong autonomy to plan, develop its educational, training and research programmes in co-operation with several stakeholders.

Actors and stakeholders to have been involved at national level to support the opening of HE to adults

In the last two decades a new system of higher education has been formed, therefore, more than sixty universities and colleges provide accredited courses for students all around the country, of which 19 universities and 9 colleges are state-owned institutions. There seven other private universities and 32 private colleges too. Most state-owned universities and colleges have created well-organised partnerships with major local and regional stakeholders in order to promote quality education and training programmes, and moreover, research and innovation projects with European co-financing through several funds administered by the European Commission. In 1999, the Bologna– process was introduced in Hungary as a systemic change of higher education in order to become a successful member of the European Higher Education Area in the peculiar Lisbon-process. Local councils, chambers of commerce and industry, main employers/industrial firms, NGOs have become close allies and partners of higher education and called attention of universities and colleges to the need for developing human resource development, adult education and training, skills upgrading and the improvements of key competences of

---

23   Please find a brief history of Hungarian higher education at: http://www.nefmi.gov. hu/letolt/english/highereducation2_1.pdf

both lifelong learning and those of the labour market. That is an identical reason why universities and colleges have started to open to adult learners, which has been effectively promoted by the Memorandum on Lifelong Learning and by the Lisbon Agenda to connect quality education and training with higher education programmes in flexible formats and methodology attached to quality content.

Programmes at regional level to attract adult learners in HE and their added value

There are not enough specific programmes at regional level to attract adult learners in higher education other than the programmes of the universities and colleges offering courses to adult learners to both adult students and adult learners. Their added value is the flexible way that adult learners can learn from them as they are accessible through either correspondence, evening or distance/le-education modes of delivery.

Certain monitoring mechanisms at national, regional and/or institutional level regarding the development of participation of adults in HE

Adult education and training programmes of higher education institutions are regulated by the Act of Adult Education. This Act enables that the educational programmes/curricula, delivered to adults, ought to be accredited, therefore, most programmes for adult learners provided by universities and colleges have been accredited and this accreditation provides a higher level of social recognition for the providing institutions. Another way of monitoring is a the way how adult learners think of the programmes provided by universities and colleges as part of their adult education and training services.

Résumé and outlook

The focus of existing evaluations on measures to increase openness and participation of adults in HE and structural changes initiated by these measures (e.g. monitoring mechanism for participation of adults in HE)

Existing statistical monitoring of the Central Statistical Office (KSH) only focuses on the number of adults who enrol to higher vocational trainings, Bachelor, Master and Doctorate programmes, post-graduate specialisation, however, direct monitoring and evaluation of programmes exist only at institutional level. The only exception is the MELLearN organisation and the Adult Education/Andragogy Sub-Committee of the

Hungarian Academy of Sciences which have generated some irregular national and regional comparative evaluations of universities and colleges to participate in adult education through their programmes.

It means that, recent higher education oriented researches of the National Institute of Educational Research and Development (OFI) have dominantly concentrated on the quality development of Hungarian higher education referring to creating the necessary environment for joining the European Higher Education Area and, at the same time, to develop necessary tools for higher education in order to fulfil its new functions, like that of the introduction of new VPL system by 2015. [24]

The influence of the Bologna process, Lisbon strategy, Copenhagen process etc. on the enhancement of adult learners in HE in Hungary

The Bologna-process has not had direct impact on adult learning in higher education other than the separation of bachelor and master degree majors helped many young adults to return for a higher master degree after collecting a significant work experience in relation to their first degree. Also, the Bologna-process has generated a rather floating shift of students from one scientific area to another to develop and raise scientific knowledge according to the concrete needs of the learner or/and, for example, of her/his employer. The Lisbon Strategy opened up the debate over lifelong learning and helped higher education institutions to demonstrate their capacities and actual steps towards becoming institutions of lifelong learning for raising employment and active citizenship in their localities. The Copenhagen-process has generated a more quality and performance-centred thinking to get strengthened within HEIs by starting to apply more quality mechanisms as CQAF and other quality assurance methods (e.g. ISO 9001). The Faculty of Adult Education and HRD of the University of Pécs was the first HEI in Hungary to introduce the ISO system for monitoring processes of educational administration.[25]

One must mention the peculiar example of the Faculty of Adult Education and HRD of the University of Pécs which developed and initiated the Bologna-structured education of adult educators both at BA and MA

---

24   The VPL model for Hungarian HE was developed through a project called TAMOP (Social Renewal Operative Programme) 4.1.3 – Source: www.ofi.hu

25   Jakab, Tamás – Németh, Balázs: Problems of Transformation of Existing ISO 9001: 1994 Quality Standard into 9001:2000 Quality Standard at a Higher Education Instituion in Hungary. Case Study 9.3 In: Urponen, Helka – Mitchell, Valerie – Rutkauskiene, Danguole – Mark, Rob – Moe, Frank – Brennan, Mick (eds.) (2006) *The Managers' Handbook for European University Lifelong Learning.* Kaunas: ISM-University of Management and Economics. Pp. 202-203.

levels which started after 2006. The main goal was to improve the professional development and character of adult educators/trainers in Hungary and, also, to provide relevant research and development programmes focusing on adult learning and education from the position of higher education. This example and special delivery of adult education related knowledge in a social science orientation was shown as a best practice within higher education management.[26]

General assessment of the situation of adult learners in HE in Hungary (e.g. development of the discussion over the last years, perspectives)

The researcher of the subject matter of HEAD, in the context of Hungary, must generally note that the situation of adult learners in higher education in Hungary is fairly complex. It mainly depends on social, economic/labour market status, and also, on former learning experience of the adult and his close family – social environment which may urge or constrain further engagement in education through flexible programmes. In many cases, flexible programmes require basic ICT knowledge and the status of regular ICT user with minimal hardware/communication capacities. Unfortunately, there are a lot of adults, young adults outside the big regional municipalities who are simply pulled back from choices of entering HE for their bad social statutes, as prisoners of growing poverty. For those who are in good and stable social environment, participating higher education will definitely be a tool of mobility.

Main particularities of Hungary in comparison with other countries (e.g. special characteristics of modes of study; exceptional features of adult HE)

One must recognise that there is not too much difference in the modes of studies in comparison with other Central-East European countries, however, one exceptional feature is the relatively low number of private universities and colleges (in comparison with Poland), and the limited educational policy orientation towards university lifelong learning, other than some individual university initiatives, and the positive impact of European projects funded by the European Commission.[27]

---

26   Davies, Pat – Németh, Balázs – Pausits, Attila: Development and Management of University Lifelong Learning. In. Huisman, Jeroen – Pausits, Attila (2010) (eds.) *Higher Education Management and Development.* Münster: Waxmann. Pp. 147-159.
27   Source: Tempus Public Foundation – http://english.tpf.hu/pages/content/index.php?page_id=22; http://english.tpf.hu/pages/content/index.php?page_id=14

An open research questions still apparent for analysis

A very significant research question became apparent: What the methods and tools of implementing a complex monitoring of adult learning in Hungarian higher education are needed today?

References

European Universities Association (2008) *European Universities' Charter on Lifelong Learning.* Brussels: EUA. Source: http://www.eua.be/eua-work-and-policy-area/eua-policy-position-and-declarations.aspx

Helka – Mitchell, Valerie – Rutkauskiene, Danguole – Mark, Rob – Moe, Frank – Brennan, Mick (eds.) (2006) *The Managers' Handbook for European University Lifelong Learning.* Kaunas: ISM-University of Management and Economics.

Huisman, Jeroen – Pausits, Attila (2010) (eds.) *Higher Education Management and Development.* Münster: Waxmann.

Jarvis, Peter (2001) *Universities and Corporate Universities.* London: Kogan Page Urponen,

Németh, Balázs (2012) (ed.) Andragógia kutatások és fejlesztések /Adult Education Research and Development. Pécs: PTE FEEK.

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (1987) *Adults in Higher Education.* Paris: OECD

Slowey, M. & Schuetze, H.G. (eds.) (forthcoming) *Global perspectives on higher education and lifelong learners.*

Kristinka Ovesni, Šefika Alibabić*

Organizational Learning: Implications for Human Resource Development

The primary purpose of this paper is to consider implications of organizational learning (OL) on human resource development (HRD) from the andragogical perspective. In the paper models of single—loop (Model I—learning), double—loop (Model II—learning), and "model of conversion of individual, team and group (collaborative) learning into the organizational knowledge" have been discussed. Changes in organization as a result of OL at the levels of rules, insights and principles were described. Importance of OL (especially at the level of insights) for designing and implementation andragogically positioned concept of learning organization has been pointed out. Differences between OL and concept of learning organization were delineated. Special attention have been payed to: classification of different definitions of relations between OL and concept of learning organization; to importance of different forms of learning (individual, collaborative – team and group, organizational); to importance of different forms of knowledge (tacit, implicit); and to forms of their conversion into the organizational knowledge (socialization, externalization, combination, and internalization) for creation of andragogical interventions in flexiblization of organization, and for effective and efficient andragogical activities in the field of HRD.

Key words: organizational learning, organizational knowledge, andragogical interventions, human resource development, learning organization

---

*   University of Belgrade, Faculty of Philosophy, Belgrade, Serbia

Introduction

Learning in an organization is a complex set of different forms of learning: individual, group, organizational, adaptive, generative, etc. Andragogical interventions in the process of HRD enhancing activities of learning at an individual level by fostering capabilities for changes and adaptation, and capabilities for team and organizational learning. From a traditional HRD perspective andragogical interventions are pointed toward: increasing and expansion of individual knowledge, memorizing facts, gain mastery in required skills, solving problems, application of theoretical knowledge, accepting rules, norms, social and communicational skills. Besides, from the latest HRD perspectives, i.e. from perspectives of knowledge management and learning organization, andragogical interventions are pointed toward: solving problems by using synergy of individual experiences and knowledge, development and maintenance of various forms of action researches, encouragement of experimentation, critical thinking, fostering abilities for transfer of knowledge across team, group or organizational boundaries, generate new knowledge by reflection of theory in practice, broadening and clearing communication channels and toward adoption of different standpoints.

In the broader sense, OL is development of the new knowledge, acquisition of the new insights which have potential to influence behavioral changes and thus to improve organizational performance. Organizational learning have characteristics of collective phenomena, and two basic forms of outcomes: a form of explicit knowledge (included in norms, rules, contracts, documents, handbooks, databases, etc.) and a form of tacit knowledge ("the largest database of any organization" situated in human resources). By utilization, exchange, transfer and application of these two forms of knowledge (implicit and tacit), organizations influences behavior and performance at individual, group, and at the system levels.

Present—day organizations have tendency to be characterized by lateral communication and constant circling of knowledge through individual, group, and organizational levels. They are characterized by a structure consisting of three layers:

- the operating system, which relies on the usual hierarchical form of performing,
- the operative teams within the organization (teams of variable composition with time—limited period of assembly, which ends with the finalization of duty or problem solving), and
- structure of incorporation of knowledge (knowledge that is developed in the organization is classified and re—contextualize into

the vision, culture and technological structure of the organization and fluently cycle through all three layers).

Organizational Learning

The traditional learning model in organizations which operates in a hierarchical way, as Argyris and Schön (1978: 18 *et passim*) explained, follows a scheme of single–loop learning. All functional systems (organizations) require different kind of information. In organizations which operates in a hierarchical way, executive management (first line management, supervisors) usually generates specific, subjective, implicit logical, for specific group characteristically information, that are difficult to generalize. In the organizational hierarchy high positioned managers are responsible for the functioning of the department or for the functioning of the whole organization. Therefore, they generate an abstract, objective, explicitly logical, comparable information that could be generalized.

Differences in perception between first line managers and senior executives and top managers, as Argyris (1998: 344) described, are caused by the difference in distances from "local" level. These differences are in the core of: tensions, "distorted information", and creation of conditions for downsizing performance. Argyris points that the main source of errors in the organizational functioning are in inaccurate, "untimely", "invalid", and "user—unfriendly" information. He wrote that "Error is a condition of mismatch. The first condition for learning is the detection and correction of error. The second condition for learning is match; that is, the ability to create conditions that match plans and expectations with effective action" (Ibid: 345). In situation of appearance of error (which imply work inefficacy and performance downsizing), necessity for andragogical interventions in the field of human resource development (HRD) strengthens.

Argyris and Schön (1978: 20 *et passim*) considers that organizational activities could be provoked or inhibited by "ecological" system of factors, i.e. by system of OL. When the learning system is only adequate enough to allow the implementation of organizational policies for achieving basic organizational goals, and when learning system is focused exclusively on improvement of efficacy of realization job tasks, the processes of learning could fit Model I—learning (single–loop learning). Argyris described Model I—learning by using analogy with "the thermostat that receives information about the temperature of the room and can turn the heat on or off if it too hot or too cold" (Argyris, 1998: 346).

Participation in educational and/or learning process in traditional organizations which operates in a hierarchical way, that only permits the ap-

plication of the single–loop learning is the beginning of "inhibiting loop", caused by errors in the existing system. The process of learning through "inhibiting loop" "mean simply interactions that tend to maintain and reinforce the original conditions that produce error" (Ibidem). If the learning outcome is positive, original qualities will be reinforced, and process will return to the starting position.

Human resource management (HRM) supportive only to single–loop act in a hierarchical way trying to achieve unilateral control. Such HRM is successful in situations which requires a fast and efficient solution (but not the examination of the causes) of the current problems in organization. The aforementioned approach to HRM does not encourage the development of creativity, or any kind of conditions necessary for the foundation of the learning organization. This approach has potential only for maintaining the current level of efficiency in the implementation of the acquired knowledge with the possibility for obtaining new but fragmented, functional knowledge and skills of employees through participation in traditional educational and training programs.

Such approach to HRM is not able to help organization in the process of bridging the gap between "organization which practice *workplace learning*" and "*the learning organization*". The mentioned approach is unable to effectively respond to the requirements of the modern world, and to the expansion of new models of business. Human resource management that promotes the maintenance of highly bureaucratized relations in the organization that foster and maintain the development of fragmented and highly specialized, uncommunicative knowledge – was useful in earlier periods, for traditional organizational structures. Nevertheless, when organizations starts to express a strong tendency for improvement of their performance and for achievement of competitive position in the global market, such orientation of HRM is dysfunctional in the implementation of strategic business models.

Approaches to HRM which avoid the fact that changes that have affected the organization are extensive and widespread, ignore necessity for development organizational climate oriented toward facilitating and dissemination of new knowledge in the organization, and requirement for hiring competent professionals with andragogical knowledge and problem solving skills too.

I agree with Robbins and Judge (2009: 663), who wrote that implementation of the concept of learning organization is possible only through Model II—learning (double–loop learning). This complex model is described by Argyris by using the analogy "as if the thermostat were capable of asking itself whether it should be set at 68 degrees" (Argyris, 1998: 346).

Unlike single–loop learning which refers to the detection and correction of errors in the system of norms and rules, double–loop learning refers to the detection and correction of errors in the processes of reconsideration and reexamination of existing norms and rules. Learning "through double–loop" is a reflection of negative outcomes of restrictive practice of single–loop learning, i.e. tendencies of:

- individuals to be unaware of their impact on error discovery and correction,
- individuals to be unaware of their impact on error if other members of the team/group are inclined to hide the impact it has on them,
- individuals to be unaware "that they are unable to discover–invent–produce genuinely corrective solutions to problems", and
- creation of "defensive group dynamics, with little additional problem solving, low openness and trust, and high conformity and covering up of threatening issues" (Ibidem).

Such "counterproductive intergroup dynamics" is another negative outcome, cause of the second "inhibiting loop". The second "inhibiting loop" shows not only the interaction with the first "loop", but also shows the persistence of the problems that caused occurrences of the error – the cause of creation of the first "inhibiting loop".

The possibilities for double–loop learning are almost insignificant: they are available only in case of errors that have such a large impact that their covering and inclusion would have more comprehensive and more extensive consequences than their detection and correction. However, in traditional organizations which operate in a hierarchical way, the extensiveness of the errors that can not be corrected are broader. As stated by Argyris, their detection is an open threat not only to individuals in the organization, but also to organizational norms and values. Therefore, in such traditional organizations they are "camouflaged, the primary and secondary inhibiting loops associated with them are camouflaged, or the camouflage is camouflaged" (Ibid: 347). As a consequence, norms within norms that prevent double–loop learning are developed. Therefore, in such a situation increasing:

- the predisposition to competitive win—lose games, deception, and the avoidance of risks,
- the tendency of maintaining *status quo* (the tendency of individuals to assert that their organizations are brittle and unchangeable, and conviction that their organizations are not designed for double—loop learning),

- the conviction among employees that there are no possibility for any kind of andragogical interventions in the field of HRD, which can lead to improvement of performance, which can increase organizational competitiveness, and by which organization can strive to harmonization with mission and vision, and

- the possibility to develop "camouflage of camouflaged", what is cause of creation of the second "inhibiting loop".

The only way out of this situation, by which double—loop learning is prevented, as Argiris suggests, is in a rigorous review of processes in which the error originally appeared and in completely restructuration of these processes (Ibidem).

Swieringa and Wierdsma offered a more complex explanation of the relationship of OL (which can be achieved by single–loop, double–loop or triple–loop learning) and concept of learning organization (Swieringa and Wierdsma 1992, In: Boonstra, 2004: 236). Their standpoint is that about learning organization one can discuss only taking in consideration changes in organization caused by organizational learning. These changes could be identified at three levels:

- at the level of rules,
- at the level of insights, and
- at the level of principles.

Organizational knowledge

The levels at which changes occur are associated with the appropriate learning processes. Behaviors of the members of organization are either implicitly or explicitly described by rules. Usually, rules can be found in the job description. Wierdsma states that "norms can be regarded as implicit rules" and that "rules partly derive from operationalized insights on organizing, managing, and changing". The rules (related to the activity) answer to the "how" questions (How to act in an organization?). "Common insights" or views about organizing, managing, and changing are in the very essence of the rules. The insights (explain relationships in the organization) answer to the "why" question (Why to act in a certain way in the organization?) (Wierdsma, 2004, In: Boonstra, 2004: 236). The role of insight is to explain and/or to help understanding of existing rules or to help in creation of new rules. The scope into the organizational processes of insights is wider and deeper than of the rules. Besides, consequences and changes initiated by insights are far—reaching than of the rules. The

principles are "insights which are not open to question because they speak for themselves"; they "define the identity of an organization" (Ibidem). The principles explain the meanings in the organization.

The process of OL focused on the rules differs from the learning focused on the insights, and from the learning focused on the principles. Wierdsma offered an explanation that "the learning and relinquishing of principles have a bigger impact than the learning and relinquishing of rules: when a rule is changed, the underlying insights and principles remain unchanged" (Ibidem). The single–loop learning is focused on the rules, and its positive outcome is directed to improve these rules and/or to improve the performance of activities. The double–loop learning is focused on the insights, and its positive outcome is directed to development these insights and/or to improve relations in the organization. The triple–loop learning is focused on the principles, and its positive outcome is directed to development of these principles. Learning in the present—day organization is a "dynamic mix" of activities, relationships and meanings, and OL focused on the rules, principles and insights (Ibidem).

Changes in the level of the rules may have an impact on the balance of the system of insight and principles, because they could cause potential consequences on the positions of the holders of certain roles, i.e., on the relations between individuals or groups in the organization. Changes in the relationships between groups and individuals in the organization (changes in the level of insights) can change the meanings in the organization, or to affect changes in the level of principles.

Wierdsma stated that the capacity of the organization for changes is included in the capacity of employees "to deconstruct and reconstruct meanings together and to re—order relationships and activities to take account of the external variety" … "what means that people in addition to their individual competence, are also capable of linking these individual competences and converting them into action in a particular context: collective competence or collective learning" (Ibid.: 240). He indicates that the process of organizational change does not start in "stable" elements such as structures and systems, but primarily in the field of management. "In the event of inconsistency between words and deeds, the organization's employees will focus on what their managers do (*theory in use*), not what they say (*espoused theory*)" (Ibid: 243). Therefore for organizational change, the developments of the following insights are required:

- "activate 'actorship'" (active role of management in the creation of organizational context),
- "focus on connection" (of management, management and their needs, employees, internal elements of organization with the external context),

- "work on the basis of the Temporary Workable Agreements" (which promotes responsible management),
- "build on the past" (which is rooted in the ideas of strategic management about the possibility of "organizational survive" searching for the support in "organizational strengths"),
- "develop the co—creation of possibilities" (through learning from errors, problem solving/coping challenges),
- "work backwards from the future" (reliance on vision, rather than on a rigid plans),
- "apply self—reference" (construction and/or reconstruction of meaning through dialogue), and
- "create a shared experience" (including the processes of construction, deconstruction and reconstruction of meaning and reflection of management and employees) (Ibidem).

Along with the organizational learning, in the area of HRD individual and group/team (collaborative) learning have very significant influence. Individual learning is in the essence of an organization because organizations learn through learning of its members. Therefore, every organization should encourage learning of its members by assigning responsibility to each individual according to their abilities and capabilities. Collaborative (group/team) learning is another essential factor in the development of any organization. The basis of this form of learning is the possibility for experience and knowledge transfer, between members of a team, and among the various teams. Successful dealing with the tasks and responsibilities of the team is not only dependent on teamwork, but also on learning of the team. The opinion of few members of one team have capacity to give to the whole team a chance to reflect on some of the problems, or to deal with it from different angles.

Employees who participated in the activities of HRD are beginning to educate other members, replacing critical approach with dialogue and understanding, while at the organizational level, the organization is directed and shaped by a unique vision and commitment to goals rather than with robust administrative requirements. To be involved in the modern, learning organization does not mean simply to not to be satisfied with one's own job and avoiding activities but instead to try to introduce some changes; moreover, it means that someone's activities are seen as a part of a whole, as an aspect of a system constructed from interrelation processes dependent of each other. In learning organizations employees have abilities for creative and critical thinking; they are prepared to provoke and realize changes, to learn, to help those in need, to act in collaborative

way, while they are committed to the achievement of vision and mission of their organization.

The only factor that really shapes the structure of modern organizations is knowledge. Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) graphically represented this process of creating and flowing knowledge in present—day organizations in the form of a spiral (Figure 1) that "oscillates" between explicit and implicit (tacit) knowledge, and moves forward and backward through the different levels of knowledge — individual, group, organizational and inter—organizational (or knowledge about organizational context). Organizational knowledge, which is acquired in different ways, has epistemological and ontological dimensions. Knowledge is originally created by individuals in organization by processes of individual or group (collaborative) learning. Thus developed knowledge, created by individuals, through process of conversion becomes organizational knowledge. Processes of creation of organizational knowledge have two dimensions – epistemological and ontological. In epistemological dimensions of knowledge one could distinguish two types of knowledge – tacit and explicit. Explicit knowledge can be documented and relatively easily transferred from one to the next person. Tacit knowledge, oppositely, is difficult for articulation because it originates from experience. The ontological dimension encompasses different levels for obtaining knowledge – individual, team, group, organization, and inter—organizational level.

Figure 1. The Spiral of Organizational Knowledge Creation
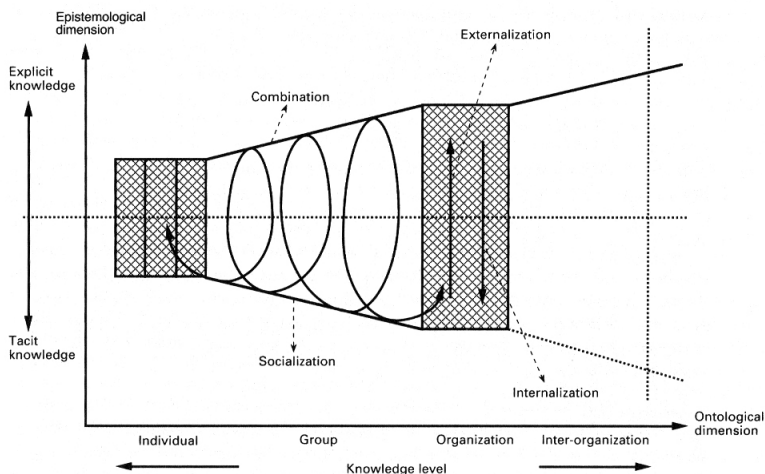
Nonaka and Takeuchi, 1995: 75

Conversion of knowledge (represented by spiral on Figure 1) appears when the interaction between tacit and explicit knowledge is dynamically elevated from a lower to higher ontological levels (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995: 57). The spiral of knowledge conversion can be created through four different modes:

- socialization (through conversion of tacit into tacit knowledge),
- externalization (through conversion of tacit into explicit knowledge),
- combination (through conversion of explicit into explicit knowledge), and
- internalization (through conversion of explicit into tacit knowledge) (Ibidem).

The concept of knowledge conversion developed by Nonaka and Takeuchi explains how individual or group knowledge moves into and throughout the organization. The concept consists of a five phases:

- sharing tacit knowledge,
- creating concepts,
- justifying concepts,
- building an archetype, and
- cross—leveling knowledge (Ibidem).

Through these five phases, this process emerges through four modes and under five conditions (intention, autonomy, fluctuation and creative chaos, redundancy, and requisite variety).

What the organization knows, ways of how it uses what is known, and the quickness to use what is known determine structure of the organization. Knowledge is the key factor of organization, which have ability to affect development and change of the vision, and medium that "controls thinking and ability that leads to intelligent behavior" (Nonaka, 1991: 98). Considering such structure, the key point in OL is middle management, which link the abstract concepts expressed by top management and first—line management experience. It combines strategic macro—knowledge (context free knowledge) and "translate it" into the operative micro—information (context—specific knowledge). Middle management connects the top management with the organization, directs and channels implementation of ideas and tasks.

Organizational Learning vs. Learning Organization

During last two decades a lot of discourses about OL have been related to the topic of the learning organization (LO), as one of the new approaches in the field of HRD. Maula (2006: 13) considered the concept of LO broader than the field of OL because it encompasses different forms of learning – (individual, team, organizational). Some authors, with whom I would agree, discussed LO as a concept, while they consider OL one of the processes of learning in the organization (Sunassee and Haumant, 2004, Merx–Chermin and Nijhof, 2005, all in: Busch, 2008: 22). Busch (2008) underlines few important distinctions between these issues:

- the central problem in the OL is creation of knowledge in organization,
- the main focus of OL is learning of individuals in organization,
- OL is retrospective, focused to the ways how organizations approached to some issues in the past, while concept of LO is oriented toward the future performance of the organization, and
- the process of OL can be separated from other ongoing learning processes in the organization.

Moreover, Busch indicated that OL is focused to the learning processes in organization, while through concept of LO we try to understand how organization can learn, and how it can transform this knowledge into improvement of performance in organization: "organizational learning is the way in which individuals in an organization learn, from the approach they take to addressing a task–related challenge, to their understanding of how they should learn, while a learning organization is one in which processes are imbedded in the organizational culture that allow and encourage learning at the individual, group and organizational level and be transferred between these levels" (Sunassee and Haumant, 2004: 266, In: Busch, 2008: 23).

Opinions about this problem are divided among some Serbian authors (Kulić i Despotović, 2004; Janićijević, 2006; Lojić, 2010; Alibabić, Milićević, Drakulić, 2011; Pavlović, Oljača, 2011; Jaško, Čudanov, Jevtić, Krivokapić, 2013). Pavlović and Oljača consider OL a venture and stimulation after mistakes and failure, because "after we caused the error, we will not pose a question 'Who causes the error', but: 'What we can learn from this?'" (Pavlović, Oljača, 2011: 77).

Kulić and Despotović (2004) considered that OL, as the dominant form of obtaining knowledge in modern organizations, is tightly connected to LO, as Senge and Argyris also underlined (Senge, 1990; Argyris,

1992). Alibabić, Milićević, and Drakulić pointed that OL is a process interconnected by organizational culture to the LO. These scholars define OL as "a process which involve provision, dissemination and usage of knowledge in the organization" and "process which include few phases: identification of the existing knowledge, formation and generation of the new knowledge, diffusion of the existing and of the new knowledge, integration and modification of the knowledge and usage of knowledge for behavior changes among members of organization" (Alibabić, Milićević, Drakulić, 2011: 78). Similarly, interconnection of organizational learning, learning organization, and organizational culture is pointed out by Jaško, Čudanov, Jevtić, Krivokapić (2013). These authors underlined that organizational culture in which dominates:

- openness toward environment,
- positive attitude toward changes,
- acceptance of ventures and tolerance to errors,
- orientation toward research (curiosity),
- openness in internal communication,
- systems perspective, and
- human resource development

are necessary for the creation of LO and for fostering OL (Jaško, Čudanov, Jevtić, Krivokapić, 2013: 362—363).

Janićijević (2006) assumed that OL is a process, while LO is at same time prerequisite and consequence of the OL process, as another group of scholars also pointed out (Kopp–Malek, et al., 2009; Easterby–Smith & Lyles, 2011).

Organizational learning is one of the organizational processes. Fiol and Lyles holds that changes in the organization (as key elements of the LO) are not always present in the OL. Organizational learning is "related to the development of insights, knowledge, and associations between past actions, the effectiveness of those actions and future actions" whereas adaptation is "the ability to make incremental adjustments as a result of environmental changes, goal structure changes, or other changes" (Fiol & Lyles, 1985: 811, In: Law, Yuen & Fox, 2011: 133).

Very interesting opinions about this issues were expressed by Arh, Dimovski, and Jerman Blažić who consider OL an independent aspect of organizational theory, "an area of knowledge within the organizational theory that studies models and theories about the ways an organization learns and adapts" (Arh, Dimovski, and Jerman Blažić, In: IRMA, 2012:

1059). Otherwise, Armstrong and Foley (2003: 74) holds OL as medium, and LO as an outcome of OL.

Tsang (1997) gave an intriguing definitions of OL and LO. He considered that OL is a description of the processes of learning in organization, while LO is prescription of how an organization has to learn (Tsang, 1997: 74 et passim). Some authors wrote that LO and OL belong to "different streams of theorizing in the field" (Easterby—Smith, Snell, and Gherardi, 1998, In: Easterby—Smith and Lyles, 2011:155). For others, OL "is a descriptive stream, with academics that pursue the question 'how does an organization learn?'", while, in contrast, LO "is a prescriptive stream, targeted at practitioners who are interested in the question 'how should an organization learn?'" (Vera, Crossan & Apaydin, 2011, In: Ibidem).

According to Senge (1990), OL has adaptive and generative phases. "For a learning organization, 'adaptive learning' must be joined by 'generative learning', learning that enhances our capacity to create" (Senge, 1990: 14). Despotović suggested that in adaptive phase learning would be framed by certain "boundaries" created by adoption of standardized processes and procedures. In this phase "employees do not review presumptions based in existing practices" (Despotović, In: Kulić i Despotović, 2004: 107). In the adaptive phase, learning is pointed toward solving actual problems, and it represents repetition and replication. The main goal of adaptive learning, in essence, is "to adapt, without achievement of adaptability" (Ibidem). In generative phase of learning, organization review mission and vision, practice and strategies, create new knowledge, and access new perspectives. Despotović mentioned that "generative learning encompasses continuous experimentation and feedback during process of inquiring determination and solving problems in organization" (Ibidem). While adaptive learning assumes adaptation to existing context, generative learning is build on new perspectives. Generative learning resemble to creation, therefore it is complex and "require 'system thinking', 'sculpting vision', 'personal mastery', 'team learning', and 'mental models'" (Ibidem).

The concept of learning organization is not based only upon adaptive phase of learning, which supports standardized actions of satisfying organizational needs. The LO integrates research, interaction and dissemination of knowledge through different communication channels as main components. Moreover, through generative learning, based on a developed system for application of explicit knowledge, and supportive management, LO has potential not only to achieve expected, but also to reach unexpected benefits.

Conclusion

Andragogical activities (which prepares employees for change and at the same time taking into account their individual needs) contributes to organizational performance, based on an understanding of the complex phenomena of OL, to organizational knowledge creation, focused on contemporary concepts of the LO and knowledge management has the full potential to be the basis for practice in the field of HRD. However, although the existing theoretical models of OL and organizational knowledge offers rich repertoire of principles and concepts and appreciate the contemporary andragogical knowledge, it is necessary to carry out further theoretical and empirical research in this field for more profound insight in the theoretical and practical approaches that will create opportunities for solid theoretical foundations of andragogical practice in the area of human resources development.

Literature:

Alibabić, Š., Milićević, V., Drakulić, M. (2011). Modeli učenja u korporacijama. *Andragoške studije*, 2, 65—82.

Argyris, C. (1992). *On Organizational Learning*. Cambridge: Blackwell.

Argyris, C. (1998). Managers, workers and organizations. *Society*, 35(2), 343—347.

Argyris, C., Schön, D. (1978). *Organizational Learning: A Theory of Action Perspective*. Reading, MA, Menlo Park, CA, Don Mills, ON, Canada: Addison—Wesley Publishing Company.

Armstrong, A., Foley, P. (2003). Foundations for a learning organization: organization learning mechanisms. *Learning Organization*, 10(2), 74—82.

Boonstra, J. J. (Ed.) (2004). *Dynamics of Organizational Change and Learning*. Chichester, UK: John Wiley & Sons Ltd.

Busch, P. (2008). *Tacit Knowledge in Organizational Learning*. Hershey, PA: IGI Publishing (an imprint of IGI Global).

Easterby—Smith, M., and Lyles, M. A. (Eds.) (2011). *Handbook of Organizational Learning and Knowledge Management* (*2nd Edition*). Chichester, UK: John Wiley & Sons Ltd.

Information Resources Management Association, Eds. (2012). *Organizational learning and knowledge: concepts, methodologies, tools and applications*. Hershey, PA and London, UK: Information Science Reference (an imprint of IGI Global).

Janićijević, N. (2006). Organizaciono učenje u teoriji organizacionih promena. *Ekonomski anali*, 51, 7—31.

Jaško, O., Čudanov, M., Jevtić, M., Krivokapić, J. (2013). *Osnovi organizacije i menadžmenta*. Beograd: Fakultet organizacionih nauka, Univerzitet u Beogradu.

Kopp—Malek, T, Koch, M., Lindenthal, A. (2009). *Die Europäische Kommission als lernende Organisation*? Wiesbaden, Germany: VS Verlag für Sozialwissenschaften.

Kulić, R., Despotović, M. (2004). *Uvod u andragogiju, prošireno i dopunjeno izdanje*. Beograd: Svet knjige.

Law, N. Yuen, A. Fox, R. (2011). *Educational Innovations Beyond Technology: Nurturing Leadership and Establishing Learning Organizations*. New York, NY: Springer.

Lojić, R. (2010). *Organizaciono učenje*. Vojno delo, 62(2), 331—347.

Maula, M. (2006). *Organizations as Learning Systems: 'Living Composition' as an Enabling Infrastructure*. Oxford, UK: Elsevier.

Nonaka, I. (1991). The knowledge—creating company. *Harvard Business Review*, 69(6), 96—104.

Nonaka, I. and Takeuchi, H. (1995). *The Knowledge–Creating Company: How Japanese Companies Create the Dynamics of Innovation*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press, Inc.

Pavlović, N., Oljača, M. (2011). Organizaciona kultura i uspešnost škole. *Pedagogija*, 66(1), 70—90.

Robbins, S. P. i Judge, T. A. (2009). *Organizacijsko ponašanje, 12. izdanje*. Zagreb: MATE d.o.o.

Senge, P. M. (1991). *The Fifth Discipline: The Art and Practice of The Learning Organization*. New York: Doubleday/Currency.

Tsang, E. W. K. (1997). Organizational Learning and the Learning Organization: A Dichotomy Between Descriptive and Prescriptive Research. *Human Relations*, 50(1), 73—89.

*Daniel Kober**

Managing Quality in Adult Education: Challenges and Prospects

The discussions about quality and quality management in adult and continuing education has a long tradition in western European countries like Germany, thus in many southern and eastern European states the debate about introducing and implementing measures of quality management in education can be considered a rather new one. The article deals with the question whether quality management can be applied to adult education and, if so, in which forms, taking into account which difficulties and perspectives are connected with it. Starting with different quality definitions, concepts and approaches, the historical and socio-political contexts fostering the development of quality management in adult and continuing education with special regard to the German situation will be analyzed. One central aspect of consideration are the characteristics of quality and transmission problems from the economic sector to the field of education. With the aim of deveeloping quality, quality management models occured. In this context, four models (ISO, TQM, EFQM and LQW) are presented and compared. These models were chosen for their international dissemination and their different starting points . The article concludes with an argument about the pros and cons of managing quality in continuing education and is making an attempt to open up further questions .

Keywords: Quality, Quality Management, Adult and Continuing Education, ISO, EFQM, TQM, LQW

---

*   University of Duisburg-Essen (Germany)

Definition of quality and quality approaches

The concept of quality is defined by several professional discipline and therefore used differently in theory and practice. While the Latin word origin initially goes back to a neutral and descriptive meaning of the word " qualitas ", which means nature, characteristic or feature, quality is nowadays usually equated with "good" (see Arnold 1994. If a product or service is a „quality one", then it is usallly considered to be of high or positive value.

The once neutral use has shifted towards a more judgmental. Quality is also a relational concept and definitions are needed . Relational therefore, since it must always be set in a relation to something else. Without prior establishment of standards, criteria or features nostatement can be made about whether it is good or bad or of high or low quality (see Arnold 1994, Faulstich 1991, Gieseke 1995, Gnahs 2004). After the concept of quality and the alignment of quality criteria have initially been foundedin the economic sector, in particular in the industrial area, they have been increasingly extended to the service sector over the last decades. Thus, the definition of quality is always strongly depending on the particular area where high quality is to be achieved. A discussion about the difficulties of transferability from the economic to the education sector as well as from products and goods to services and education will take place at a later stage. In addition to various definitions in different disciplines and in practice, types of quality are summarized in the literature. Garvin (1988:40 ff.) summarizes six types of quality:

- Transcendent approach

This dimension, which follows a philosophical orientation, describes quality as a naturally given property of a thing which cannot be quantified from the outside, but by the personal impressions and feelings of each individual subject (Krienke 2009:8)

- Absolute approach

As a further development of the first approach the absolute approach emerged. However, there is still a subject orientation and a lack of rational validation criteria . Overall the natural property as well as perceptions, emotions and judgements along categories such as good, average or poor are still in the foucs of this approach.

- **Product-based approach**

In contrary to the first two approaches this definition includes measurability if quality based on pre-formulated, objective and verifiable criteria and standards. Quality is considered as the "sum of the existing characteristics of products or services" (ibid.). Quality differences are caused by the degree of compliance with quality criteria. There is also a strong output orientation.

- **Customer-oriented approach**

Unlike the previous approach verifiability of quality is based on customer expectations and their fulfillment . The subjective impressions ought to be "objectified " by methods of tcustomer survey and make their expectations accessible. However, the approach which is often used in marketing, may be problematic if customer wishes are neither homogeneous or they are not accessible by the customers themselves.

- **Producer-oriented approach**

In this category criteria are based on the producer and service provider and the process comes into focus. In this case quality can be defined as compliance regarding the expectations of the prodrucer and the related processes (Krienke 2009:9).

- **Value-based approach**

The main reason for this approach is the price-performance-ratio, from a customer perspective, which has some parallels to the customer-oriented approach.

To complement and further develop previous approaches Harvey and Green (2000) define and summarize quality definitions to their own concept, which is widely used in many disciplines today. They try to systematize and combine the various forms into five categories.

Quality as an exception

In this understanding the „special" characteristic is emphasized. A distinction must be made between three perspectives. First quality as a " prominent exception," which requires no evidence, but is considered to be apodictic. Secondas excellence, which implies the fulfillment of elite,

almost unattainable standards and faultlessness. Incontrast, quality of the third perspective is understood as the achievement of minimum standards, by excceeding an absolute and objectivebarrier (Harvey & Green 2000:20f.)

Quality as perfection

This involves an approach that puts the process in the focus of the analysis . Fautllessness and correct action from the very beginning till the end of a processe can me named as main critreria. Thus, a prevention focus is accordingly of central interest, which requires the continous avoidance of deviations from specified indicators. The question here is whether one can speak of or expect faultlessness in educational institutions.

Quality as utility

In contrast to the excellence approach, the functionality of a product or service is formulated as the main criterion. If the expediency is met, this is considered high quality. This applies to both the customer and producers point of view. For the fact that in education always both parties – edcuator and learner– are involved in the "production process ", this understanding is difficult to integrate into the educational work, since the roles are not clearly defined and also expectations are difficult to access or anticipate (Harvey & Green 2000:26).

Quality as equivalent value

Although this approach implies parallels with the value-based approach by Garvin, not the customer's interest is in the foreground, but the professional resources dealing with funds from financiers. Means of quality-weak organizations are deducted and allocated to those who can convince on the market (Harvey and Green 2000:29f.)

Quality as transformation

Transformation can be understood as change towards a higher level or aim. In education, this may, for example, refer to the development of

knowledge or competence growth (value added) of a participant, as well as empowerment of the participant (empowerment), to gain the power and ability to plan and control his own learning processes.

These two classifications have demonstrated the diversity of different quality definitions and approaches. Especially for the consideration of the following quality management systems and their logics an understanding of what can be defined as quality and what characteristics this includes is significant.

Concluding all definitions quality can be defined as relation between characteristics of a product/service in relation to the achieved results and expectations in a specific context:

Specific context

Quality = Charactersitic (product/service) <-> expectations <-> results / output

---

Moreover all approaches, beside the transcendent and absolute approach, can be found in the literature and in the models reflected in varying degrees. In the next section quality is connected to the field of adult and continuing education.

Adult Education and Quality

The variety of quality approaches has shown that it needs an adaptation of economic logics to the " traditions of thought, of knowledge, concepts and logics" (Bülow-Schramm 2006:19) in education. Subsequently, the reasons for the emergence of the debate on quality in continuing education and the introduction of quality management models are outlined. After the Edding-Commission's findings (1974) and the educational reforms of the 1960s and 1970s, due to the so-called Sputnik shock in 1957, led to an educational expansion in Germany (see Arnold 1994, 2000, Gieseke 1995, Gnahs 2004). This was reflected by the establishment of new universities and colleges, but also in the expanditure of personnel. With the "realistic turn" in adult education at the beginning of the 1980s, a rational and utility-oriented perspective predominantes in adult education (ibid). Closely linked with this are declining financial resources of public funders. This leads to a stronger verification of learning outputs and therefore the benefits of education. The plea to evaluate trainings and to set standards in education has been formulated (Bülow-Schramm 2006:20). First, since no models of quality management were available in

education, but the external pressure increased by governmental institutions, models from the economic sphere were applied in the adult education sector even till the mid 1990s – and many institutions still do. The measurement and control of education and the adoption of economic principles initially met enormous resistance within adult education. Even today there are contradictory opinions on quality management and the establishment of systems for the recognition, maintainance and assurance of quality that address specificly the needs of the education sector – it is an ongoing process. In summary, a variety of reasons can be seen, which can be essential for a discussion of quality in education. These are applicable to all stakeholders: the learner, the professionals, associations, organizations, the financiers, the state, etc. They all have a specific interest in quality management systems.

Quality Management

The basic principles of quality management go back to Edward Deming. He established the " Plan-Do-Check-Act " cycle, which represents the major and basic steps of each quality management model. Measures are planned (plan), implemented (do), results evaluated (check) and further improved (act). From there, the cycle continues sequentially.Management measures can be defined as standardized frameworks that guide organizations to systematically represent and prove their processes and products (Veltjens 2010:254).

The open-endedness of quality management as a continuous improvement process. Therefore becomes clearly visible. Below four models respectively quality management systems are considered and compared (ibid.)

Total Quality Management (TQM)

As one of the first quality management models, the Total Quality Management (TQM) can be described, which is at the same time the basis for the later EFQM model. TQM is based on the idea of "quality starts in the head" by Carl Borgward. This means that on the onehand the beliefs and convictions of the management, on the other, the heads of the staff are meant (Bülow-Schramm 2006:24). "Total" describes that all levels of an organization and all employees from each work area are part of the quality process. "Quality " means the individual dimensions of quality in terms of

the overall organization, its processes, actors and products. "Management" emphasizes the systematic, controlled and continuous quality improvement that is aligned with the customers (Knispel 2008:56). TQM is based on four basic assumptions:

- In the long run, the price of high quality is cheaper than low quality,
- employees are dedicated to provide high quality of their work when they are involved and are equipped with appropriate resources,
- high level goals must be defined and organizational levels interlinked,
- the starting point is the company's management, whose thinking and acting is transferred to the employees (Hackmann & Wagemann 2000:24f., Zink 1995)

According to a report in 1994, only about 10–20 % of the started projects proveto be really implemented within the meaning of TQM. In addition, success within a whole process of a quality cycle and related changes are visible after a longer period and can lead to a decline ofmotivation. In order to counteract the weaknesses of TQM and to simplify the implementation of quality management for organizations the model of the" European Foundation for Quality Management" (EFQM) was developed .

European Foundation for Quality Management (EFQM)

The EFQM model, introduced in 1988 and finally modified in 2000, supports the introduction of a comprehensive quality management systems through the creation of a independent concept and by the European Quality Award (EQA) (see EFQM 2013). The award is a European equivalent to the American (Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award) and Japanese (Deming Prize) quality awards (Hanft 2008:282). The EFQM model is understood as a non– prescriptive approach, based on a "consistent orientation towards self-assessment " (Bülow-Schramm 2006:32). The model is based on the assumption that excellent quality in terms of customers, employees, processes and social requirements will be addressed by appropriate management and quality policy. The categories of " enablers " (actions of an organization) and " results" (output) are distinguished. Important to note is the circularity of the model. The results are influenced

by the enablers, but these are modified by the feedback that they receive by their results. This opens up new potentials for a learning organization.

Illustration

Organizations, which direct thei quality management measures aligned with EFQM model have opted for a holistic and comprehensive understanding of quality (Knispel 2008:67) . These characteristics of the EFQM lead to implementation challenges, a high demand of resources fort he analysis of structures and processes. Despite the expense even organizations from the non– profit sector adopt the model and see it as a valuable guiding concept in their quality development (Hanft 2008:285).

DIN EN ISO 9000

The BS 5750 quality management system, which was established by the British Standards Institution (BSI) in 1979, can be understood as a forerunner of today's ISO 9000 series. The ISO 9000 series was introduced in 1987 and is now recognized as an international standard (Deutsche Institut für Normierung 1995, 2000a, 2000b, 2000c, 2003a, 2003b, Pfitzinger 2000). According to the International Organization for Standardization (ISO) over 1 million certificates were issued based onthe ISO 9001 standard wordlwide by the end of 2009. In Germany more than 50,000 organizations follow the ISO standard (ibid.). The standard series EN ISO 9000 ff. applies as a sum of norms that serve as a basis for quality management measures. In constrast to quality assurance standards the series of norms focusses on developing an industry-speficic quality management system, which matches both products and services as well as their customers. Compared to previous standards such as ISO 9000:1994 ff, which is more oriented to standard procedures in industry, the ISO 9000:2000 ff. standard and its successors are generally based on the process. The EN ISO 9001 standard specifies minimum standards for quality management systems.

These are intended to help ensure that products and services are provided in a way that they meet customer expectations and regulatory requirements. Thereby ISO quality management follows eight principles (ibid.):

The eight principles of ISO-quality management are:

- Customer-orientation
- Management responsibility
- Envolvement of employees

- Process-orientation
- System-related management
- Continuous improvement
- Factual decision making
- Supplier relationships for mutual benefit

The current EN ISO 9001 was last updated in 2008 as EN ISO 9001:2008.

Learner-oriented quality model(LQW)

The learner-oriented quality model is specifically aimed at educational institutions and places the learner at the center (see Zech 2005)

„Education is a unique product unlike any product or service of any industry. This special status of the education sector enforces the development of an independent quality model" (Ehses & Zech 2002:7)

The LQW shares the customer orientation with the TQM and EFQM. In contrast to the consumers in economy, the customer must be considered differntly in education. The costumer in education takes the role of a "co-producer", who is significantly involved in the development and result of the „quality product education". Since education is a subjective process of adoption, organizations are more likely to create space supporting these processes rather than consequently leading to predictable results.

The starting point of quality development in this approach is the definition of successful learning by the organization (Hanft 2008:285). The definition does not follow any external standard, but is determined by self-reflection processes of the institution and integrated in the process of self-evaluation in a mission statement. Based on the model and the learning definition the organization undergoes an ongoing process that is based on the four stages of Demming . Knispel formulates principles underlying the model (2008:98f.):

- The learner as a co-producer of the educational outcome is the focus of all quality efforts and all processes are aligned with him.
- Changing environmental requirements call for a continuous quality development process of an organization.
- Improvements require a self-reflexive process within an organization that sees itself as a learning organization . Pure technocratic adjustments are not sufficient.
- The model combines self-evaluation and external evaluation.

- Both large and small organizations can apply the model and adapt it to their context.
- A network can be used for comparisons with each other and as a consulting pool.

In detail specific requirements in eleven sub-areas are formulated that can be configured for a specific organization and their needs. In these seperate categories relevant requirements are formulated, which are regarded as essential for the organization for enabling „successful" learning. The performance has to " be detected in a self– report and confirmed by a visitation" (Knispel 2008:99).

Conclusion and perspectives

The article has shown that there are different perspectives on quality in theory and practice. Against the background of educational expansion, primarily in the 1960s and 1970s, a reduction of financial resources by the public sector and a stronger competitive pressure on the training market, the introduction of quality management systems in adult education and training can be explained. A comparison of four quality management approaches TQM, EFQM, ISO and LQW has highlighted the different priorities, procedures and stages of development. The question of quality of education, but also the introduction of quality management systems, continues to provide a non-uniform assessment of opportunities and challenges. Arguments for both sides can be found. On a positive note is that the debate on quality has provided a new momentum in continuing education, that it questions one's own work, learning objectives and processes within an institution and to reflect on them. This gives rise to potentials to initiate processes of change and to innovate . In addition, the internal reflection process is supported by external assessors and consultants. On the other hand also problems and challenges related to quality management systems can be found in adult education. The question of mandatory standards is still unanswered. Although there are collections of various criteria, these seem even more arbitrary. The criteria are not sufficiently differentiated and empirically limited researched. This goes along with the argument that the power to define quality and its criteria is unclear. Which stakeholders should it come from? From the institution, by the professionals or by the learners? It is clear that between the different actors conflicts of interest may occur. At this point, there is a lack of a model that integrates the divergent interests. In this context, one aspect becomes obvious: there is not one quality in continuing education.

Quality must always be properly defined and linked to the particular learning situation. A future model would have to integrate the three levels teaching-learning process, organization and education system) with each other and simultaneously depict differentiated researched categories. So far, the quality models appear to be very limited un their focus on the organization.

But what is the use of organization-oriented approaches, if these do not include the logic of the system nor the micro-didactic sphere, which might follow other paradigms. A first approach (see Kober, 2013) could be the more adequate exploration of quality criteria in the fields of activity of adult education. The discourse on quality in adult and continuing education is far from being complete and by developments in other European countries new ideas for differentiation and clarification can be expected.

References

Arnold, R. (1994): Qualitätssicherung in der Weiterbildung. In: Grundlagen der Weiterbildung, 5, 1–9.

Arnold, R. and Wieckenberg, U.(2000): Qualitätssicherung aus pädagogischer Sicht. In: Erwachsenenbildung, 3, 100 – 104.

Bülow-Schramm, M. (2006): Qualitätsmanagement in Bildungseinrichtungen.

Münster: Waxmann.

Deutsches Institut für Normung (1995): Qualitätsmanagement und Statistik. Verfahren 3: Qualitätsmanagementsysteme – Normen. Berlin, Wien, Zürich.

Deutsches Institut für Normung (2000a): DIN EN ISO 9000, Ausgabe:2000–12 Qualitätsmanagementsysteme. Grundlagen und Begriffe, Dreisprachige Fassung.

Deutsches Institut für Normung (2000b): DIN EN ISO 9001, Ausgabe: 2000–12 Qualitätsmanagementsysteme. Anforderungen (ISO 9001:2000–09), Dreisprachige Fassung.

Deutsches Institut für Normung (2000c): DIN EN ISO 9004, Ausgabe: 2000–12, Qualitätsmanagementsysteme. Leitfaden zur Leistungsverbesserung (ISO 9004:2000), Dreisprachige Fassung.

Deutsches Institut für Normung (2003a): DIN Taschenbuch 226: Qualitätsmanagement und Statistik. Verfahren. Berlin.

Deutsches Institut für Normung (2003b): DIN EN ISO 9000 Berichtigung 1, Ausgabe:2003–04 Berichtigun– gen zu DIN EN ISO 9000:2000–12.

EFQM (2013): The EFQM Excellence Modell. URL http://http://www.efqm.org/the-efqm-excellence-model

Ehses, Ch. and Zech, R. (2001): Projekt Lernerorientierte Qualitätstestierung in Weiterbil– dungsnetzwerken im Rahmen des Modellversuchprogramms

„Lebenslanges Lernen". Abschlussbericht. Hannover. URL http://www.artset-lqw.de

Faulstich, P. (1991): Qualitätskriterien für die Erwachsenenbildung. In: ZBW, 7, 572–581.

Garvin, D. A (1988): Managing quality: the strategic and competitive edge, Free Press, New York.

Gnahs, D. (2004): Qualitätsentwicklung in der Weiterbildung – Effekte, Erfolgsbedingungen und Barrieren. In: Balli, C./Krekel, E./Sauter, E. (Eds.): Qualitätsentwicklung in der Weiterbildung – Wo steht die Praxis? Bielefeld, 41–59.

Gieseke, W (1995): Qualität in der Weiterbildung – eine pädagogische Aufgabe? In: Meisel, K. (Eds.): Qualität in der Weiterbildung. Bd. 3 der Reihe: Materialien für Erwachsenenbildung, Frankfurt/Main, 20–27.

Hanft, A. et. al. (2008): Bildungs-und Wissenschaftsmanagement. München.

Harvey, L. and Green, D.(2000): Qualität definieren. Fünf unterschiedliche Ansätze. In: Helmke, Andreas; Hornstein, Walter; Terhart, Ewald (Eds.): Qualität und Qualitätsentwicklung im Bildungsbereich: Schule Sozialpädagogik, Hochschule. Zeitschrift für Pädagogik, Beiheft 41, Weinheim und Basel. 17–39.

Knispel, K (2008): Qualitätsmanagement im Bildungswesen. Ansätze, Konzepte und Methoden für Anbieter von E-Learning– und Blended Learning-Qualifizierungen. Münster 2008.

Kober, D. (2013). Intercultural professionalisation in adult education. Andragocial Studies. Journal for the Study of Adult Education and Learning, 43–56.

Krienke, St (2009):Überlegungen zu einem erneuerten Qualitätsmodell für Dienstleistungen, Norderstedt 2009.

Pfitzinger, E. (2000): Die Weiterentwicklung zur DIN EN ISO 9000:2000. Berlin, Wien, Zürich.

Veltjens, B. (2010): Qualitätsentwicklung/Qualitätsmanagement. In: Arnold/Nolda/Nuissl (Eds.): Wörterbuch Erwachsenenbildung. Klinkhardt, p. 252–255.

Zech, R. (2005): „Lernerorientierte Qualitätstestierung in der Weiterbildung. Das Handbuch". Expressum Verlag, Hannover.

Zink, K. J. (1995): TQM als integratives Managementkonzept. Das europäische Qualitätsmodell und seine Umsetzung. München, Wien.

*Aleksandra Pejatović**

Situational Effectiveness of Education

Under effectiveness of education in this paper the following is understood: the characteristic of education to produce certain effects to some extent, both in relation to the personality of a participant, and in relation to different aspects and elements of their lives, as well as to the environment in which those participants live and act. We searched for effects of education on the basis of results of the four empirical researches which we related to certain life situations: a collectively difficult life situation; a situation of a specific life age, with involement in non-formal education; a situation of a specific life age, with intensive formal education; and an individually difficult life situation. The analysis of the results of the researches was carried out with the aim of considering situational effectiveness of education, given different indicators of life quality of the selected categories of adult respondents in different life ages and occasions. The results indicate that the respondents who are in an individually difficult life situation, who are unemployed and belong to the group of persons who find employment hard, recognise at the very least effects of education in the function of overcoming the situation they are in. The most direct and the most positive link between effects of education and life quality is expressed by the participants of U3A (University for Third Age), that is, the respondents who are in a situation of a specific life age, with involvement in non-formal education.

Key words: effects of education; effectiveness of education; education and life quality

---

* University of Belgrade, Faculty of Philosophy,

Introduction

Today there are numerous considerations on effects of education, both in the international context and on the national level. Considering the effects of the education process is associated with all levels of formal education, as well as with non-formal education, whether it comes to organised educational activities or independently undertaken learning projects. We come to the "story" on effects of education by, in fact, trying to more clearly comprehend products of education, that is, what it is that it produces, expressed by numerous possible changes in people's behaviour, in their lives and/or, again, by their actions in their surroundings. That comprehensive "story" on effects of education is permeated through: the issues related to students' achievements; capacity to work in a certain occupation; employment opportunities; competitiveness on the domestic and global labour market; social inclusion; poverty; standard of living; numerous indicators of life quality; as well as through many far, far more things important to life of people and communities.

Also, perhaps more indirectly, taking care of effects of education represents establishing different quality systems associated with numerous aspects and elements of the system we can call education. Thus, we believe that at the beginning and at the end of the processes, such as: developing and licensing teaching staff, accreditation of educational institutions, accreditation of educational and training programmes and introduction of various standards into education, there are intentions to improve effects of education.

Terms of effect and effectiveness of education

Based on the analysis of several dictionary definitions of the term "effect" it is evident that there is not much difference in understanding the meaning of this term. Differences, that is, mostly placing greater emphasis on some of the possible meanings, contribute to a more comprehensive consideration of the term "effect". We are going to give some understandings of the "effect" stating that it is: "a consequence, output, result of a previous action..." (Trebješanin, Ž, 2000:100); "an influence someone or something has on someone.... a consequence, result, output, performance,... (Aleksić, R, 1978:175); "performance, achievement of an action, consequence..." (Bosanac, M, Mandić, O, Petković, S, 1977:147); "a phenomenon or an event which inevitably comes after some other phenomenon...; result..." (Ingliš, H, Ingliš, A, 1972:99); "a change that results when

something is done or happens; an event, condition, or state of affairs that is produced by a cause;..." (Merriam-Webster.com, 2013); "something that is produced by an agency or cause; result; consequence...." (Dictionaty. com, 2013). In the presented definitions the term "effect" is most commonly understood as: a consequence, result and output of a previous action. If these meanings of the effect are placed in a context of education, then we refer to the effect education has, that is, to everything that occurs as a result of the action of the education process.

If we now focus our attention on the second important key term – "effectiveness", then we notice first that in this case, too, there is considerable consistency in different sources in providing its definition. Thus, for example, in one of the definitions it is stated that effectiveness is "the capability of producing a desired result. When something is deemed effective, it means it has an intended or expected outcome..." (Wikipedia, 2013). Therefore, effectiveness primarily indicates that something produces a result, and it is also stated, as an important characteristic of that result, that it is an expected result. In addition to this part of the definition the following meaning is also related to effectiveness "...The degree to which something achieves results..." (Wiktionary, 2013). In the next definition we practically come across a certain type of combination of the previous two, where it is stated that effectiveness is "the degree to which something is successful in producing a desired result; success..." (Oxforddictionaries. com, 2013). And yet another similar definition, in fact, assures us that when we talk about effectiveness, we refer to "...producing or capable of producing a desired effect..." (Thefreedictionary.com, 2013).

When we link education to the aforementioned definitions of effectiveness, with the intention to further specify what we referred to in the researches segments of which we are going to present in the paper, then we come to the conclusion that under effectiveness of education we can imply a characteristic of education to produce certain effects to a particular degree, both in relation to participants' personality and to different aspects and elements of their lives, as well as in relation to the surrounding in which participants live and work.

By the title itself we have highlighted that this text deals with situational effectiveness of education. In this way, we wanted to draw attention that all four researches dealt with searches for effects of education in some specific life situations in which our respondents had been at the time of the researches. The situations were the following:

- the period immediately after the NATO aggression, that is, bombing, which can be characterised as a collectively difficult life situation in which our respondents were;

- senior respondents, participants in the programmes of the U3A –
  a specific life age situation, implying a series of specific personal
  and life characteristics, with the involvement in non-formal edu-
  cation;
- students of Bachelor Andragogy studies, as a category of young
  adults – a specific life age situation with involvement in intensive
  formal education;
- older adults, category 50+, with the main characteristic that they
  are unemployed, which can be characterised as an individually
  difficult life situation.

The theoretical and methodological framework of the researches

The general theoretical framework in conducted researches contains
the outlined concept of life quality, made operational through a large
number of variables, conditionally distributed into two more general cat-
egories, into one including more objective indicators of life quality, and
into the other consisting of life quality indicators of more subjective na-
ture. The scope of the paper does not allow us to carry out a more detailed
analysis of the definition of life quality, so we are going to state that we
imply under it "a collective term, that is, a collective state, in a certain time
segment, positions reached on the dimensions of different characteristics
which a person, individuals, social groups and/or society associate with
objects, phenomena, themselves, other people, that is, roles, activities and
states, setting them in different relations, based on value standards and
meeting the needs." (Pejatović, A, 2006:15).

Although each of the four reseraches, whose segments of the results
are going to be presented and analysed on this ocassion, was initiated and
conceived with different goals, nevertheless, within each of them certain
relations were examined between education (primarily of adults) and on
those occasions selected different sets of indicators of life quality of differ-
ent categories of people. In this paper the analysis of parts of the results of
the four researches was carried out with the aim to examine effects, that
is, effectiveness of education, with respect to different indicators of life
quality of the selected categories of adult respondents in different life ages
and situations.

In line with the goal set we formed our basic expectation related to
the analysis conducted, which was focused on the assumptions that the

effects of (adult) education are numerous to people's life quality, that they are in various ways linked to different indicators of life quality, that they do not always work on the principle "the more education, the better results on life quality" and that effects of education on people's life quality do not necessarily have to be characterised as positive. All four researches are descriptive in nature and the techniques used in them are surveys, scaling and ranking.

In Table 2 the basic data on the samples and periods of implementation of each of the four researches are shown.

Table 2: Names, samples and periods of implementation of the researches

Research ordinal number	Research name	Research sample	Research implementation period
1.	*Education and quality of life of adults* – a collectively difficult life situation	402 respondents aged 18 + from the territory of Belgrade	July 1999 – July 2000
2.	*Education and quality of life in old age* – situation of a specific life age, with involvement in ono-formal education	105 respondents, participants of the U3A in Belgrade	March – April 2006
3.	*Quality of life of Andragogy students* – a specific life age situation with intensive formal education	60 students of Bachelor Andragogy studies at the Faculty of Philosophy at the University of Belgrade	August – September 2012
4.	*By education towards employment and active ageing* – an individually difficult life situation	387 unemployed people age 50+, from the territory of Novi Sad, Pančevo, Belgrade, Kragujevac and Niš	April – July 2013

Effectiveness of education in a collectively difficult life situation

For greater accuracy it should be noted that we believe that, in addition to bombing of Serbia, numerous events previously taking place in our country contributed to the severity of life situation. We are going to mention only: war conflicts on the territory of former Yugoslav repub-

lics, dramatic disintegration of the former state, hyperinflation, sanctions imposed by the international community... As the most difficult for life, based on numerous analyses and indicators, the year 1993 stood out.

Through one of the relations between the effects of education, represented in this part of the research, by the completed level of formal education, and the degree of satisfaction of respondents within different life domains, roles, relationships and activities (a total of 40 selected), we considered the degree of satisfaction in 1993, as well as expected satisfaction in five years time in relation to the time of the research. The results show that, related to 1993, the highest satisfaction level was expressed by the respondents with (in)complete elementary school, while the least satisfied were those having a university degree. Nevertheless, as for the expected satisfaction in the future, the respondents with (in)complete elementary school expect it to the least extent, and based on their assessments, they are rather different from the respondents with higher education levels (Pejatović, A, 2006:207–211). We believe that the obtained findings can be interpereted first, when it comes to the level of satisfaction in the past, by the respondents' life styles, as well as by different needs, the same needs expressed in a different degree and the need for different ways of satisfying the needs.

As for the relationship between the level of education and more objective indicators of life quality, the results show that people with a university degree have households which are among the best equipped, the facilities relevant to their everyday life are closest to their places of residence, the incomes per a household member are the highest, more often in comparison to other respondents they spent their last summer holiday in a tourist resort in the country, etc (Pejatović, A, 2006).

If we now associate some of the indicators of life quality of more subjective nature with the level of education, we will notice different tendencies from those observed. While assessing which of the values offered the respondents have to the highest degree in their lives, we came to the data that truth, fortune and joy are more present with respondents with (in) complete elementary school, whereas the people with scientific degrees have more creativity and fame in life in comparison to others. So, in this case, the relationship between the education level and life quality did not follow the tendency where with the increase of the education level life quality is increased, but here different education levels are related to different qualities in the lives of our respondents. It seems reasonable to us to conclude that education, seen as formal by completed levels, expresses certain effects with respect to different aspects and elements of life quality of our respondents.

We asked the respondents themselves directly about the effects of education in order to find out in which areas in their lives education played the major role. Table 3 shows the rankings of the areas based on their responses.

Table 3: The rankings of the areas in which education played the major role

Rank	Areas	Frequencies
1.	Work	157
2.	One's own personality	99
3.	Overall life	67
4.	Relationships with other people	41
5.	Family life and parenthood	36
6.	General culture	28
7.	Gaining more knowledge	22
8.	Acquiring material well-being	20

As can be seen, the respondents recognised job most often as an area in which education had played the greatest role, that is, where it had the greatest impact or most effects. Their own personality comes after, followed by overall life, as the broadest framework in which education had actions. Also, attention should be drawn to the broad nature of relevant life areas in which effects of education were shown. Practically, it would be difficult to find a life area which was not in a certain way "touched" by education (Pejatović, A, 2006:171).

By examining effectiveness of education in a collectively difficult life situation, based on the relationship between, on one hand, formally completed level of education and the respondents' judgements on life areas in which, in their case, education played the greatest role – effect, and the selected indicators of life quality, we can, among other things, conclude that in a such life situation, respondents of different levels of education expressed a different affective relationship, in terms of (dis)satisfaction, given the different elements in life. By further observing the relationship between education levels and more objective and subjective indicators of life quality, with the increase of the level of education changes are noticeable in the level of developed characteristics related to different indicators, firstly respondents' standard of living, as well as changes of the characteristics themselves in the case of more subjective indicators. We believe that the above mentioned findings, as well as those on the evaluation of the greatest role of education, were not largely influenced by a collectivelly

difficult life situation, so that the shown mutual relationships of education and its effects are fairly stable in relation to the "current" collective life situations.

Effectivenss of education in the situation of a life-specific age, with involvement of non-formal education

We tried to examine effectiveness of education in the situation of the specific, in this case, older life age, with the actual involvement in non-formal education, by observing the relationship between those things that, according to the respondents' statements, currently reduce the quality of their life and their evaluation of the contribution of participation in the programmes of the U3A for improvement of their life quality.

The respondents were in the age range from 45 to 78 and they attended programmes of the U3A at People's University "Braća Stamenković" and Culture and Education Centre "Čukarica". It should be noted that all respondents confirmed that the activities they undertook at U3D played a role in shaping their life quality, and they related them to concrete qualities. In Table 4 we presented in parallel the ranking list of what mostly reduces the actual life quality of respondents, as well as the ranking list of elements and aspects of life quality which are affected by participation in U3A programmes.

Table 4: Parallel ranking lists of items which reduce the actual life quality of the respondents and elements and aspects of life quality to which participation in educational activities has most effects

Ranking list of items which reduce the actual life quality			Ranking list of elements and aspects of life quality to which participation in educational activities has most effects		
Rank	Items	f	Rank	Elements and aspects	f
1.	Material and financial insecurity	34	1.	Socialising and making new friends	25
2.	Health deterioration (personal and close relatives' health)	26	2.	Keeping psychological and physical fitness	23
3.	The overall situation in the country	18	3–4.	Acquiring new knowledge	13

4.	Non-values	6	3–4.	Making up for what has been missed	13
5.	Family, children	5	5.	Gap filling, feelings of uselessness	10
6–9.	Distance from children	3	6.	Personality enrichment	8
6–9.	Loneliness	3	7–8.	Satisfaction;	7
6–9.	A death of a close person	3	7–8.	Creativity, creation	7
6–9.	For current opportunities and desires nothing	3	9.	Time devoted to oneself, doing what one likes doing	6
10–11.	Obligations to the mother	2	10.	Communicating with people	4
10–11.	Jobless	2			

While observing in parallel the ranking lists, it is easy to notice that, as opposed to distance from children, a feeling of loneliness and a death of someone close, as factors reducing the actual life quality of respondents, there are effects of participation in educational activities which contribute to socialising and making new friends, filling the sense of loneliness and feeling of uselessness, as well as communicating with people. Also, as opposed to health deterioration, we come across effects of education which encourage keeping psychological and physical fitness and personality enrichment, and as opposed to dissatisfaction with the general situation in the country and the present non-values, education contributes to the feeling of satisfaction, finding time to devote to oneself, in order to do what one likes doing (Pejatović, A, Živanić, S, 2006:180–184).

We can conclude that, when it comes to effectiveness of education in a situation of the specific older life age, with involvement in non-formal adult education, the impact of education is moving towards mitigating the factors reducing life quality in the specified life period. Also, when considering the greatest qualities in the present life of our respondents, effects of education occur as a support to those qualities, and education itself, through participation U3A occurs on the list of those greatest qualities (Ibidem). It is most likely that the reasons for the important effects education has on the third life age should be looked for, in this category of population, in the adapted organisational form of non-formal education, whose way of work and contents are based on the examined needs of participants and potential participants.

Effects of education in the situation of specific life age with intensive formal education

The overview of the results that follow is practically building on, at the same time being opposed to the previously presented results in the part referring to U3A participants. In this case it refers to the category of young adults, students of bachelor Andragogy studies at the Faculty of Philosophy at University of Belgrade, who are thus involved in intensive formal education.

The students, among other things, evaluation of the effect of the fact that they are students to quality of their present life (Table 5).

Table 5: Ranking list of estimated effects of study to the quality of actual life

Rank	Impact of studies to the quality of actual life	Frequencies
1.	Has a positive impact	38
2.	Has a negative impact	13
3.	Has quite a large impact	8
4.	Has no significant impact	6
5.	Current life quality at a very unfavourable level	2
6.	Significantly reduces life quality	1

While majority of respondents believe that their studies have a positive and a large effect on their life quality, a little less than a third of respondents (26.67%) point out that studying has a negative effect on their life quality. In Table 6 we are going to see how both of them explained their opinions.

Table 6: Ranking lists of explained effects of studying to the quality of actual life

Rankings of positive effects			Rankings of negative effects		
Rank	Positive effects	f	Rank	Negative effects	f
1.	New knowledge	18	1.	Lack of time for other things	9
2.	Contacts with people and socialising	14	2.	Poor financial situation	8
3.	A special status in the society, privileges	8	3–4.	The fact that one has to work while studying	2
4–5.	Personal development	6	3–4.	Health deterioration due to constant stress	2

4–5.	Feeling of satisfaction	6			
6–9.	Forming an image of oneself, getting to know oneself	4			
6–9.	Open the space for further improvement	4			
6–9.	Opinion development	4			
6–9.	Volunteering and work along with studies	4			
10–11.	General culture broadening	3			
10–11.	A clearer picture of the society	3			

The stated positive effects of education on their present life go into different directions, from acquiring new knowledge, through contacts and socialising with people, to a special status in the society and alternation of work and education. The list of negative effects is considerably shorter and we could say only for two types of effects that they are directly produced by studying, that is, education, and those are lack of time for other things and health deterioration due to constant stress. A poor financial situation and the need to work and study are effects of other social developments.

We can also note that younger respondents, students, who are in a different specific life age in relation to U3A participants, who belong to the third life age, point out that, in addition to positive, there are negative effects of education, while the older respondents mention only positive effects. The issue that still remains open is whether these differences should be rather attributed to differences in the life age, or to the fact that younger repondents are involved in intensive formal education, within which they have to reach certain standards, because of which they are exposed to continuous monitoring and evaluation, while the older participants completely independently, in line with their needs, opted for participation in U3A programmes, in which, among other things, there are no formal evaluations. In short, the dilemma should be further resolved of whether the data speak of effects in different situations of the specific life age or of differences between characteristics of formal and non-formal education.

We will also mention that we asked Andragogy students to evaluate the expected effect of the current studying to life quality in the future, and 48 of them (80%) stated that it has a positive effect, primarily on employment (38.33%) and further education and professional development

(10%). When they evaluated the expected effect on life quality in the future of the fact that they study Andragogy, 47 students (78.33%) evaluated that effect as positive. If we compare the number of those who evaluated the effect of studies as positive on the quality of their present life, it is little less than the effect from studying they expect on life quality in the future (63.33%: 80%). This means that better and/or greater effects of studying are expected in life in the future than in the life during studying.

Effects of education in an individually difficult life situation

We selected the situation of being unemployed, with people aged 50+, as an individually difficult life situation. This category of unemployed on the labor market is considered to be a hard-to-employ category. What is evident within this research is that among the respondents there are those who have been unemployed for less than a year, and on the other hand, there are those who have been unemployed for several and more decades.

Often, education is, among other things, mentioned as one of the culprits for high unemployment percentage in our country. In this context a huge space is certainly opened for considering effects of education on employment; however, on this occasion we are not going to open this space, but we are going to mention that when the data from the research are considered about the respondents' education level and the name of the occupations for which they qualified, numerous sources of unemployment can be seen.

Among the numerous questions, the respondents were asked about the extent to which they believe education can solve their unemployment issue (Table 7).

Table 7: Evaluation of the role of education in solving the unemployment issue

Items to be evaluated	Frequencies
Education ceratinly cannot solve my unemployment issue	79
Education cannot solve my unemployment issue	78
Perhaps education can solve my unemployment issue	151
Education can solve my unemployment issue	41
Education can certainly solve my unemployment issue	36

It is not difficult to notice that the respondents doubt more than they believe that education can help them, that it has this type of effect, to solve their issue of unemployment. The arithmetic mean of evaluations is 2.68, which means that the opinion expressed on average is that education can solve the respondents' unemployment issue, but due to the low arithmetic

mean, it is very close to the opinion that education cannot solve this problem, which is the view of 40.57% of respondents.

Such low confidence in education as a factor contributing to employment corresponds to a low readiness of the respondents to become involved in different types of educational activities from verification of prior knowledge, through formal education, then accredited, to non-accredited vocational training courses. The arithmetic mean which shows readiness of the respondents is the highest when it comes to accredited certified training courses, and it is 2.96, and it is the lowest when it comes to non-accredited certified training courses – 2.31. However, both of the stated values indicate the low level of readiness of the respondents to become involved in educational activities.

It is interesting that in the two out of the three presented researches education is largely associated with employment, while with the unemployed respondents this association is becoming weaker.

The data presented from the research with the unemployed respondents indicate that in an individually difficult life situation effects of education are perceived as significantly lower that in the previous three types of specific life situations.

Concluding remarks

Based on the analysis of several dictionary definitions of effects and effectiveness, we decided to imply the following under situational effectiveness of education: the characteristic of education to produce certain effects to some extent, both in relation to the personality of a participant, and in relation to different aspects and elements of their lives, as well as to the environment in which those participants live and act, and in different life periods and occasions. Furthermore, in line with the such understanding of effectiveness of education, we continued our search on the basis of the results of the four researches on relation of education and life quality which included respondents in different life situations. The following four life situations have been outlined: a collectively difficult life situation; a situation of a specific life age, with involement in non-formal education; a situation of a specific life age, with intensive formal education; and an individually difficult life situation.

Based on the analysis conducted we can conclude that our main multi-layered assumption we started from in our analyses have been fully confirmed, so we can say that effects of (adult) education on life quality are numerous, that they are in different ways related to different life quality

indicators, that they do not always follow the principle "the more educa-tion, the better its results on life quality" and that effects of education on people's life quality do not always have to be characterised as positive.

The weakest effects have been attributed to education by people who are in an individually difficult life situation – unemployment. Education is not seen to a large extent as a factor which can lead to employment, that is, to overcoming this difficult life situation. When it comes to a collec-tively difficult situation, the effects of education can be, through the level of formal education completed, recognised in a different affective reaction (in terms of (dis)satisfaction) on a collectively difficult life situation. Even in such a life situation effects of education remain quite stable in relation to, in certain cases, the development level of different characteristics of certain life quality indicators (especially those of more objective nature), as well as to the structure of characteristics of indicators (when it comes to those of more subjective nature). The most direct and the most positive link between effects of education and the greatest qualities of the actual life have been found in a situation of a specific life age, with involvement in non-formal education, that is, with participants of U3A. In the case of a specific life-age situation (Andragogy students), but with involvement in formal education, positive effects on the actual life quality and a few nega-tive effects, have been to a larger extent attributed to education. Observ-ing positive effects is higher when it comes to expected life quality in the future. So, in this case, it is expected that the "real" effects of education are expressed only in the future, though in relation to the present life it plays a very important role.

The thinking that starts right now, following the data presented and the noticed tendencies is: how to increase effectiveness of education even more, especially when it comes to the effects characterised as positive, and in particular when individuals are in the most difficult situation, in the situation we called an individually difficult life situation.

References

Aleksić, R, (1978), Rečnik stranih reči i izraza, Beograd: Prosveta

Bosanac, M, Mandić, O, Petković, S, (1977), *Riječnik sociologije i socijalne psihologije*, Zagreb: Informator

"Effect", *Dictionaty.com*, available at: http://dictionary.reference.com/browse/effect, (accessed: 17. 11. 2013)

"Effect." *Merriam-Webster.com*. Merriam-Webster, n.d. Web. available at: http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/effect, (accessed: 18. 11. 2013)

"Effectivenes", *Oxforddictionaries.com*, available at: http://www.oxforddictionaries.com/definition/english/effectiveness, (accessed: 13. 11. 2013)

"Effectivenes", *Thefreedictionary.com*, available at: http://www.thefreedictionary.com/effectiveness, (accessed: 12. 11. 2013)

"Effectivenes", *Wikipedia*, available at: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Effectiveness, (accessed: 13. 11. 2013)

"Effectivenes", *Wiktionary*, available at: http://en.wiktionary.org/wiki/effectivenes, (accessed: 21. 11. 2013)

Ingliš, H, Ingliš, A, (1972), *Obuhvatni rečnik psiholoških i psihoanalitičkih pojmova*, Beograd: Savremena administracija

Pejatović, A, (2006), *Obrazovanje i kvalitet života*, Beograd: Institut za pedagogiju i andragogiju Filozofskog fakulteta

Pejatović, A, Živanić, S, (2006), Obrazovanje i kvalitet života u starosti, u: „*Kvalitet života u starosti izazovi XXI veka*", Sedmi nacionalni gerontološki kongres, Zbornik stručnih saopštenja i postera, Vrnjačka Banja, 9 – 12. maj 2006, Beograd: Gerontološko društvo Srbije, p. 180–184

Trebješanin, Ž, (2000), *Rečnik psihologije*, Beograd: Stubovi kulture

Klára Bajusz[*]

The Second Chance Education System in Hungary

The second chance education gives opportunity to underschooled adults to enter the labour market, or to be an active citizen, or to be a better parent – often to be able to learn in adulthood, which is the essential requirement of lifelong learning.In this paper we delineate the changes in second chance education in Hungary in the last two decades. After the summary of the changes of schooling rates in Hungary (illiteracy, functional and digital illiteracy, the schooling gap) we discuss the economic and social influences on the status of primary and secondary adult scools. We will look at tertiary education as second chance institutions and, at last but not at least, the nonformal learning possibilities for illiterate people.

Key words: adult education, second chance, literacy

The school system

In Europe second chance schools came into existence after World War II. As opposed to Western Europe, where these schools targeted adults whose education could not be completed because of the war, in Eastern Europe they exist to this day. In Hungary, after the political, economical and social changes in the 90s the system changed in some ways, but

---

*   University of Pécs, Faculty of Adult Education and Human Resources Development Pécs, Hungary

the basic structure of adult education within public education remains the same:

- basic education: adults' primary school
- secondary education: adults' trade school and adults' grammar school
- tertiary education: there are no separate institutions but the part-time programs of colleges and universties (BA, MA, PhD)

Second chance education school qualifications acquired in adulthood are legally equivalent to the qualifications of regular age. This means that the final exams and the subjects are similar too, but the methods, coursebooks and learning ways can be different. Adults may study full-time until the age of twenty-three or part-time as well.

The main function of adult schools was changed in the 1970–80s. Between the 1940s and 60s the aim was to make up for the missing qualifications for adults who could not study due to the war or because of unequal social opportunities. From the 70s onwards 70% of adult students were younger than thirty years of age – a sign that the classical function changed to a correctional one: those young adults who could not be integrated into the Prussian educational system were now admitted to a different one: second chance schools. This was merely an attempt to cover up the functional disorders of the public education system. This correcting function is regrettably still the main function of Hungarian adult schools. One of the major reasons why older (30+) adults cannot find a real second chance in these schools is the age gap between them and their younger fellow students who are mostly aged 18–20. The other reason is the non-practical character of the curricula. The pressure of legal equality restricts it: if adults are expected to take the same exams, they are expected to study the same subjects. It means that topics which would be necessary for undereducated people to study (healthcare, economy, child rearing) are out of the curriculum, especially for part-time students. That means that undereducated students have less motivation to learn, because they find what they are expected to study less practical. Despite these difficulties second chance education needs legal equality to guarantee adults competitive qualifications. A survey in 2011 aimed at comparing qualifications acquired at regular school age and in adulthood, and also discussed how these findings may affect formal adult education. The research explored this phenomenon on three levels: from the different angles of the labour market, the adult student, and his/her social environment. Three-quarters of adult learners in second chance education deem their degrees equal in value to a regular degree in the labour market but they are concerned

about the prejudices of society. Three-quarter of employers ignore whether the adult has studied in full-time or part-time programs. They place more emphasis on the knowledge and the motivation of adults and their previous experiences. The respondents agree with the philosophy of the second chance schools (Bajusz, 2012.).

In the last two decades most primary schools have closed down in Hungary, mainly due to financial difficulties. The still existing primary schools for adults receive a particularly low government subsidy, therefore their maintenance incur a significant loss. The Ministry of Education does not regard functional illiteracy an elemental social problem although spends significant amounts of money on educating unemployed adults.

The target group

In Hungary the rate of early school leavers is 11,4 per cent. There are about 800,000 adults without primary school qualification. This figure amounts to 10 per cent of the population whereas there are 2,200 adults learning in basic formal education in the country a year – it means that less than 1% of them are able to take advantage of their 'second chance'. Those who live far have no money to travel, cannot access information about learning opportunities, and most of them lack the motive to complete primary level education. No adult beyond school age is obliged to participate in any form of education unless they themselves feel compelled to do so.

There is no real demand for this type of education in the target groups. In these families and communities it is relatively challenging to restart learning, the schools are usually far away in larger cities, and primary school qualification has no value in the labour market. Given these circumstances, only a handful of schools have survived, usually in the capital or in regional centres, and some of them in prisons.

Regrettably, the Hungarian educational policy does not focus sufficiently on the question of illiteracy and ensuing problems. Programmes for disadvantaged people are not efficient in reaching undereducated adults.

A 2008 law in Hungary declares that all registered unemployed persons under the age of 35 are required to complete primary education. However, results are not satisfactory as most job centres are unable to ensure access to second chance shools without a well-functioning institution system.In 2012 a nationwide roma education program was launched focusing on catching-up, abolishing extreme poverty, and promoting equal

opportunities[1]. Unfortunately the program does not work together with the adult primary schools.

Illiteracy as an issue of education policy

The 6th Conference on Adult Education (CONFINTEA VI) took place in Belem, Brasil, in December 2009. The question of literacy has always been a recurring issue at such conferences, and after Belem it became obvious that it is still a problem waiting to be solved. Different degrees of illiteracy are found in different countries, from adult illiteracy to digital illiteracy, according to a country's economic development.

The GRALE, a summary of the regional synthesis reports on adult learning and education emphasizes the following points:

- Many developed countries, including Canada and the United States of America, are now identifying the continued need for adult literacy and basic skills programmes.
- Literacy is about the acquisition and use of reading, writing and numeracy skills, and thereby the development of active citizenship, improved health and livelihoods, and gender equality. The goals of literacy programmes should reflect this understanding.
- Reducing adult illiteracy rates by 50% by 2015 is the EFA literacy target.
- The challenges remain immense – 774 million adults still lack basic literacy skills, two thirds of them women, and 45 countries have not yet achieved the developing country average of 79% adult literacy.
- Globally, basic education (mainly adult literacy programmes) remains the dominant form of adult education, with 127 countries (82%) declaring this as one of their programmes.
- The Belem Framework for Action stresses the following:
- Literacy is an indispensable foundation that enables young people and adults to engage in learning opportunities at all stages of the learning continuum. The right to literacy is an inherent part of the right to education. It is a prerequisite for the development of personal, social, economic and political empowerment. Literacy is an essential means of building people's capabilities to cope with the evolving challenges and complexities of life, culture, economy and society.

---

1   http://www.tkki.hu/page.php?mid=119

- In Europe, almost a third of the workforce has only the equivalent of lower secondary education, whereas two-thirds of new jobs require qualifications at upper secondary level or above.
- In many countries of the southern hemisphere the majority of the population does not even attain primary school level.
- In 2006, some 75 million children (the majority of whom were girls) had either left school early or had never attended school. Nearly half of these children were from sub-Saharan Africa and more than 80% were children from rural areas.
- The lack ofsocial relevance of the curricula; the inadequate numbers and, in some cases, the insufficient training of educators; the paucity of innovative materials and methods, among other obstacles, undermine the ability of existing educational systems to provide quality learning that can address the disparities in our societies.

In the course of the past few decades the international policy of education has declared a number of rules and goals concerning illiteracy. The most important, and interconnected, programmes are:

- EFA, Education For All 2000–2015[2]
- UNLD, United Nations Literacy Decade 2003–2012[3]
- LIFE-program, Literacy Initiative For Empowerment Life 2005–2015[4]
- DESD, Decade of Education for Sustainable Development 2005–2014[5]
- MGD's, Millenium Development Goals 2000–2015[6]

Illiteracy in the developing countries

The OECD International Adult Literacy Surveys have made it clear that illiteracy is also a problem in developed countries: the percentage of adults practically unable to process a text or having only basic reading skills is between 25 and 75%.

---

2   http://www.unescobkk.org/education/efa/
3   http://www.unesco.org/en/literacy/un-literacy-decade/
4   Literacy Initiative For Empowerment Life 2006-2015. Vision and Strategy Paper. (2007) UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning, Hamburg.
5   http://www.unesco.org/en/esd/
6   http://www.un.org/millenniumgoals/

In the European policy of education the term 'basic skills' has been replaced by 'key competencies' – referring to the fact that the meaning of literacy now has a much wider range (basic skills are not sufficient for community life, active citizenship, employability). Adult illiteracy, the inheritance of functional illiteracy, and the ongoing problem of early shool leaving must be addressed on a European level.

Digital illiteracy

In developed countries a new form of illeteracy is digital illiteracy. The digital gap stretches between those adult groups who are comfortable with ICT tools and those who are not. 57% of Hungarian adults are digitally illiterate. Digital illiteracy increases the chance of more and more adults falling behind in our digital society. It also highlights the fact that illiteracy is a multi-layered problem[7].

In adult education the expressions 'lifelong learning', 'learning society' and 'learning regions' are used day by day. But what is the significance of these terms without learning rights, access to education and institutions? Undereducated people have no ability to manage their own lives or to make decisions on their own and are dependent on state support and care. They do not look for learning and working opportunities, they do not use information and communication technologies. In our view this means that they are not able to take advantage of their human rights. In their families knowledge has no value and parents transmit their disadvantages to their children. There are many families where unemployment is transmitted to the third generation.

Conventional literacy is not enough for survival in the 21st century, despite the fact that it is a foundation for citizenship and learning on several levels[8]. For active participation in the community and labour market the population needs to be able to use ICT, foreign languages and complex abilities. If people are able to answer these challenges, then we can think about building up learning regions and lifelong learning.

If we really want learning regions to work, first of all we have to put underschooled adults in touch with learning opportunities. This, however, is certainly easier said than done.

---

7   Evaluation of the Implementation of the Communication of the European Comission. E-skills for the 21th Century.

8   Linking Adult Literacy and eLearning: What Needs to Be Done. Research Summary and Policy Recommendations
     http://www.futured.com/documents/eLearningandLiteracy-PolicyImplicationsinBC.pdf (10. 06. 2007.)

Possible solutions would be involving more nonformal adult education institutions in second chance programs: folk highschools, cultural centres, workplaces, etc. Higher education institutions could also contribute to the development of the necessary professional background. Such changes can only be expected if Hungarian educational policy recognises the real value of basic skills and the social benefits of adult literacy in the long run.

If we can reach underschooled adults and help them develop basic and learning skills, we will have a real chance to create a society which is a context for lifelong learning.

References

Bajusz, K. (2005): *Iskolarendszerű felnőttoktatás az ezredfordulón*. PTE FEEK, Pécs.

Bajusz, K. (2012)*: Az egyenértékűség problematikája az iskolarendszerű felnőttok tatásban*. In: Németh, B. (szerk.): Andragógiai kutatások és fejlesztések: Tisztelgő tanulmánykötet Koltai Dénes egyetemi tanár tudományszervezői és kutatói munkássága előtt. PTE FEEK Pécs. pp. 83–98.)

Evaluation of the Implementation of the Communication of the European Comission. E-skills for the 21th Century.

http://ec.europa.eu/enterprise/sectors/ict/files/reports/eskills21_final_report_ en.pdf

Learning a Living. First Results of The Adult Literacy and Life Skills Survey

http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/44/7/34867438.pdf (2012. 05. 11.)

Linking Adult Literacy and eLearning: What Needs to Be Done. Research Summary and Policy Recommendations

http://www.futured.com/documents/eLearningandLiteracy-PolicyImplicati onsinBC.pdf (2011. 01.12.)

Literacy in the Information Age. Final Report of the International Adult Literacy Survey. OECD, Statistics Canada, 2000

Supporting Digital Literacy Public Policies and Stakeholder Initiatives. Final Report. Conclusions and recommendations based on reviews and findings.

http://ec.europa.eu/information_society/eeurope/i2010/docs/benchmarking/dl_ topic_report_4.pdf (2010. 05. 17.)

Vári, P. – Andor, Cs. – Bánfi, I. – Felvégi, E. – Horváth, Zs. – Krolopp, J. – Rózsa, Cs. – Szalay, B. (2001):*Felnőtt írásbeliség-vizsgálat. Egy nemzetközi felmérés tapasztalatai.*=Iskolakultúra 5., p. 3–20.

Violeta Orlović Lovren

Education and Environmental Leadership

In this paper, the multiple links between education and environmental leadership are discussed in the light of modern interdisciplinary approaches and illustrated by tendencies based on the results of the research on adult education and capacity development for sustainable management of protected areas in Serbia.

The aim of the research segment presented was to identify characteristics of leadership as a dimension of capacities for sustainable protected area management, as perceived by both managers and staff of the involved organizations, as well as of educational needs from the perspective of managers only. The data collected through the survey with 15 managers and 17 staff representatives of 15 organizations, indicate that leadership is the weakest link of management capacity and among the strongest education needs of individual managers.

The implications of these results and tendencies are analyzed bearing in mind impacts of still insufficiently developed interrelations between concepts of leadership and environmental leadership at the global level, as well as lack of synergy between educational needs and programs which should meet the requirements of environmental leadership and characteristics of this particular target group in Serbia.

Key words: education, adult education, environmental leadership, sustainability, protected area management.

*   University of Belgrade, Faculty of Philosophy, Belgrade, Serbia

Introduction

Despite the rise in the consciousness and conscience about environmental issues, in the first decade of the twenty-first century we face the ecological and economic crisis and its dramatic consequences. Fight against poverty is not slowing down but the poverty is still a global issue. More than technological advances, global challenges and crises convincingly show that the economic, environmental, and social phenomena are in organic connection with each other and that the change and its effects are qualitatively different from thechanges we have been used to witnessing in the past – or only yesterday.

In considering the issue of approach to modern environmental challenges, the authors believe that it is about no longer a crisis but crises, that are " ... more global, complex and tied to the basic functioning of the economy than were the problems environmentalism was created to address forty years ago. " (Nordhaus,Shellenberger, 2007, p.8). Like any other, this crisis or crises-induced challenges open the learning opportunities and requirements.

Criticising former view of the natural environment as separate from the human, the authors argue for an integrated approach to learning and education which should useall available resources in developing competences for complex roles in the society. The belief according to which we are able as a human species to "manage planet Earth", Orr characterizesas one of the myths of the past, promoting the shift to an approach in which the only thing we can manage is ourselves, our needs and the community in which we live, its economics and politics. The change from the inside is needed, because "...it makes far better sense to reshape ourselves to fit a finite planet than to attempt to reshape the planet to fit our infinite wants." (Orr,2004, p.9) .

In the complex world challenges, serious changes in leadership are needed at all levels – from the global to the individual. Faced with major world problems, shortage of water, food, and causes and consequences of climate change, we are reliant on the world leaders whose capabilities should contribute to making the right choice and decision. What type of leadership and what kind of education to facilitate the development of competent leaders – is the question today,asked by the authors in various fields, and increasingly so in ecology. Despite the obvious evidence and a growing number of studies that point to the interconnectedness of economic and social development with environmental issues, environmental aspects are surprisingly little present in the consideration of issues of leadership in general. This is confirmed by the authors, trying to contrib-

ute to consideration of the mutual dynamics of development and natural resources, highlighting aspects and components of environmental leadership (Redekop, 2010).

Leadership and Environmental leadershipdevelopment

Summarizing terminology differences, Kotter recognizes two main meanings behind the word leadership:"...sometimes it refers to a process that mobilize people and/or their ideas" while, at other times "...to a group of people in a formal positions where leadership, in the first sense of the word, is expected."(Kotter, 1990,p.3).Kotter'schoice, in terms of the word he uses in his theory, would be the leadership in the first sense – since, as we agree, in reality it is not always true that "...anyone in a leadership position actually provides leadership." (Ibid.)

The success of leaders in its complex roles, be they global, national, local, organizational, even individual level, will vary depending on their competences, interaction with the social and, in our opinion insufficiently taken into account, natural environment. The dilemma about whether leaders are born or made seem to belong to the past. The more prevalent opinion todayis that the leadership competencies are being developed, in which process education certainly plays a crucial role. For the appropriate use and development of these roles, it is necessary to rely on the results of research on leadership competencies, notably researches conducted by Goleman et al, demonstrating that in addition to the cognitive and professional quality, successful leaders are different from less successful primarily by characteristics which are incorporated in the currently widely accepted model of emotional intelligence (Goleman,Boyatzis,Mckee,2003; Goleman,1997).

Along with other, the research conducted in Serbia, focused on the development of leadership competencies, showed that six hundred managers in education, ranked persuasion, communication and decision-making as the most significant properties of "top leaders". Other important skills identified, not significantly ranked lower, were: listening skills, change management, motivation, teamwork,self-development management, time management and conflict management (Alibabić, 2008).

The impact of these studies and concepts undoubtedly extends to the fields of ecology and sustainability, with a growing belief that the development and continuous improvement of leadership is a necessity. Nevertheless, in this context, we note the much weaker feedback of environmental

concepts to leadership, and in particular consideration of the environment and sustainability in everyday practice of leadership in other areas.

Judging by the influence of sustainability in the business sector, which resulted in concepts such as corporate social responsibility, sustainable leadership and sustainability in terms of respecting not only financial, but also social and environmental needs and characteristics, one could conclude that huge progress has been made in integrating environmental into economic concerns. New sustainability performance of companies should provide balance between environmental, financial, and social aspects, often defined as a "triple bottom line" approach. "As a business cannot be sustainable without "the bottom line" (the last line in corporate income statements, i.e., profit), the planet requires that two other bottom lines be healthy, environmental and social, to be sustained. "(Orlovic,Chen,Paun,2008.p.1)

Promoting the "ecological leadership" model, where leaders take environmental and social interests in serious consideration while making business plans and decisions, authors advocate development of leadership capacities to critically evaluate its impact and potential harm to the natural environment, and to understand mutually interactive processes, which, in the long term perspective, may cause harm back to the organization they lead. (Wielkenz,Stelzner,2010). Sustainability should serve, as stated by other authors, as a "decision-making framework", or "sustainability compass" (Flood,2013), not only in business sector, but in developing "responsible citizenship" through education and learning efforts.

As seen by Mc Neill, "...sustainability will not happen if the person at the top is not determined to make it happen" (Redekop,2010,p.4). At the same time, the authors of the above mentioned concept of "ecological leadership", find that assigning to "positional leaders" the main power in decision makingis characteristic of "industrial approach to leadership", where leaders were able to ignore environmental aspects, while within the new, "ecological leadership" approach, individual leaders (directors, CEOs, presidents, managers, etc.) are less important than joint participation of all the actors in the process and aware of importance of ecological context (Wielkenz,Stelzner,2010). Defining leadership as "...an emergent process arising from the human interactions that make up the organization" (Ibid., p.17–18), they find it detached from positional leaders, and focused on adapting to the ecosystem dynamic (Ibid.,p.31).

Strong focus on innovation, communication and sharing of perspectives is common characteristic of different international programs tailored to "new leaders for the future", "sustainable leaders", "global leaders", etc. One of that kind, developed within the International Institute for Sustain-

able Development (Canada), is internship program for young profession-
als, providing them with work experience with key sustainable develop-
ment organizations around the world, including training programs and
peer learning. A study on leadership competences, initiated within this
program, resulted in a list of qualities of a sustainability leader. Of the
skills identified, communication was at the top of the list, followed by the
ability to engage people, as well as work across sectors, personality types
and cultures (Timmer,Creech,Bucckler,2007). While the respondents
found individual training important for leadership development, they also
expressed a strong belief that leadership was a team rather than individual
process.(Ibid.)

The training program of the LEAD International, one of the world's
largest nongovernmental organization building leadership capacities for
sustainability, targets mid-career and senior professionals, delivering six
months experiential learning for selected candidates from all around the
World. (http://www.lead.org/)

The process of environmental education in general and in the field of
developing leadership competences in particular, is undergoing on both
individual and social level. Defining environmental adult education as an
"engaged and participatory process of political and social learning", Dar-
lene Clover emphasizes that it is not only the matter of "..individual be-
havior change and information transmission."(Clover,2003,p.10). Similar
to "detachment" from the focus on individual leaders only, responsibility
for environmental behavior should be shifted from mainly personal to or-
ganizational and social level as well.

Holding responsible roles in specific leadership field, executives of or-
ganizations in charge of protected area management have complex task
and, in a way, should serve as a model of sustainability leaders. To illus-
trate their leadership potentials and opportunities to improve them, one
segment of results of wider research on the role of adult education in ca-
pacity development for sustainable management of protected areas per-
formed in Serbia in 2010/11, will be presented here.

Methodologycal approach

The research on leadership dimension of sustainable management of
protected areas in Serbia has been performed using the capacity develop-
ment model originally created by the UNDP (Collvile,2008) and modified
for this purpose. Within each of the three levels of capacities – individual,
organizational and social – three dimensions have been analyzed: knowl-

edge, leadership and responsibility, which are all, in our opinion, of essential significance for sustainability and leadership.

The research methodology combines quantitative (survey, scaling) and qualitative (analysis of documentation, interviews, case studies) methods and techniques. Both internal (staff and managers of protected area organizations) and external (nature conservation experts) assessment has been performed, using questionnaires developed for this research.The research sample is comprised of 15 staff ad 17 leaders of 15 out of 21 most active management organizations in protection areas field in Serbia. Case studies involved leaders from four areas – two national parks and two nature reserves.

The definition of main concepts and summary of results related to leadership dimension on both individual and organizational level will be presented in the following text.

Management and Leadership in Protected Areas Management Organizations (PAMO)

The impact of global challenges and threats to the PA can be mitigated only by a high-quality management – and high quality education to develop capacity within the PA.Modern trends expand the variety of management entities from the government, i.e. publicly owned enterprises, to private, non-governmental organizations and local communities.

The term "management" in this paper indicates the total activity of the organization responsible for the PA, while the "leadership"is usedto denote the process and the function performed by the senior management. Considering the fact that as an individual, a manager with his team performs both managerial and leadership tasks, deciding to use the term leadership we had in mind relationships and processes taking place in the relation "manager – employee – local and wider community", as well as the style of leadership that is applied. Therefore, as the authors have cited above, we understand leadership not only as a function of individual managers but also as a collective process which contributes to the sustainability of the organization, or PA.

The designation and the management of PA impose reorientation of primarily economic activities towards the balance between environmental and economic interests, and finding the right measures. Conflicts of interest are therefore an integral part of these processes, and conflict management skills are essential for managers and staff of Protected Areas Management Organizations (PAMO).

The authors rightly emphasize the exposure of the PAMO to an increased public attention, dynamics of natural and social processes, con-

stant change and the risks and uncertainties of the outcome, whether it is on the impact of human activity on nature or consequences of natural disasters. Due to a chronic lack of resources – human and financial – in most of the PA, each function and the individual are important, especially theirprior experience in this area, ideally aided by the traditional knowledge of the local population.

To achieve leadership roles, the management of PAMO should be particularly guided by ethical principles. In addition to the usual requirements to contemporary leaders in this respect, in the context of the PAethical principles concern attitudes towards the use of resources and special care about equality, and ensuring the availability of resources for current and future generations.

In this – as in other areas today, strategic leadership involves foresight, flexibility and inspiring others to change (Ireland and Hit, in Lockwood et al, 2006). In a number of dimensions, which are referred to as elements of a strategic approach to managing the PA, we would like to single out the following:

- Upgrading of key competencies using functional skills represented in the PAMO to manage the PA;
- Development of human capital by improving the knowledge and skills of all employees in the PAMO, starting from the premise that human capital is a resource which should be maximized, rather than it is the cost which should be kept to a minimum (Ibid.).

Furthermore, the importance of communication skills for staff in general is increasingly emphasized, and competences of managers are inevitable precondition for encouraging the competence development in others.

Considering the domain of influence of every leader/manager, the authors note that, in the general trend of democratization, the power is placed behind the care for people. Considering that the adequate manifestation of power has a motivating role in the collective, the authors do not advocate authoritarian management style but the demonstration of a strong and clear influence, where the desire for personal power does not predominate over concern about the collective, to whom the clear responsibilities are given and adequate working conditions provided, ("institutional manager") or the need that "everybody loves them" (affiliation) is dominant over the strengthening the team spirit and discipline. (McClelland, Burnham, 2003). Demonstration of power, characteristics of "institutional" manager as well as tendency to show affiliation in above described way, have been used and operationalized into indicators of the type of power, e.g. of the leadership styles in our research.

Discussion of results

Table 1: Indicators of leadership at individual
and organizational level

Individual level	Organizational level
Previous management experience; Experience in nature protection field Membership in professional associations;	The organizational structure; Number, age and staff turnover; Membership in national/international organizations
Leadership style and leadership skills The involvement of others in decision making; Willingness to change; Flexibility	Planning, management and decision-making; Channels and models of internal and external communication; The attitude towards the changes
Attitude to work; How the manager position was obtained	A system of monitoring, rewarding, and giving incentives to employees; General quality of interpersonal relationships among employees

Summarizing the findings ona personal and organizational level at the dimension of leadership, we have selected the following:

- *Previous experience in management/nature conservation*: Most managers and staff have been working for more than 10 years in the particular PA. Half the managers have gained their previous experience in other sectors;around 30% of them do not have previous management experience at all.
- *Willingness to work in PAs management (PAM) field*: Over 80 % of managers are, according to results, highly satisfied with experience in this field; more than a half of them reported they were determined to find the job exactly in PAM field, while majority of them are not willing to change their job.
- *Leadership style/interpersonal relations in organizations*: Most of the managers highly value importance of transparent information flow and mutual trust in their organizations. However, in almost a third out of the selected organizations, there is no system for internal and external communication in place. Majority of managers practice "institutional" style, paying efforts to provide and secure proper working conditions for today as well as for the future.

- *Looking at the decision making processes in the PAMO, one can notice a h*uge gap in estimations provided by managers and other staff representatives in the survey: according to the second group of respondents, in nearly 80% of inquired organizations, decision making process is taking place within small management circle and information is shared randomly, not transparent for all. At the same time, decision-making and problem-solving are perceived by most of the managers included in this survey, as some of their strongest competences, in which they do not find particular need for improvements.

- *Monitoring and evaluation of employees*: At the declarative level, again, majority of the managers agree about the importance of having these procedures in place. However, judging from the responses of staff representatives, there is no adequately designed, nor organized and continuous procedure for staff development, evaluation and provision of the feedback on their performance, including the lack of opportunity for guidance in their career development planning. It all, not surprisingly, leads towards implementation of both incentives and disciplinary measures on an "ad hoc basis" and very rarely on previously and transparently established criteria.

Comparing the results of the research about capacities for sustainable PA management, collectively in all three dimensions (knowledge, leadership and responsibility), it turns out that the leadership is the weakest link in the overall operationsin all organizations participating in the research.

Table 2: Self-assessment of managers(existing and desired) skills and knowledge

Skills and knowledge	I own	I wish to improve	I do not have and do not want to improve
Decision-Making and Problem-Solving	13	4	0
Human Resource Management	5	11	1
Organizational Skills	12	5	0
Financial Management	7	10	0
Strategic Management	7	10	0
Knowledge of Law	5	11	1
Planning skills	7	10	0
Knowledge of the Principles of the PA Protection and Monitoring	8	9	0
Project Management	5	12	0
Report Writing Skills and Experience	11	6	0

Communication Skills	7	9	1
Presentation Skills and Public Speaking	7	9	1
Interpersonal and Leadership Skills	4	12	1
Computer Skills, Data Processing Programs	9	7	1

From the above Table, one can see that the most developed skills, according to PA managers' estimations,are the one related to decision-making and problem-solving, followed by organizational skills, and then those relevant to the report writing. Among the skills that they would like to improve, project management and leadership (interpersonal) skills are convincingly "in the lead". One can therefore conclude that the PA managers are aware of the weaknesses of personal management and leadership-capacity and the need to overcome it.

The educational profile of PA managers and opportunities for improvement of leadership capacities

Figure 1: Education level of PA managers
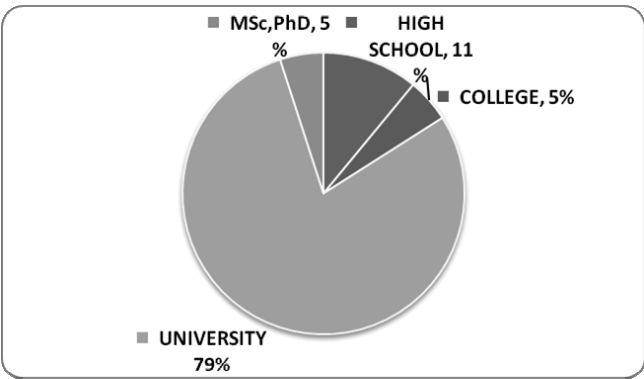
The education level of managers is much higher than the level of other PAMO personnel. Nearly 80% of managers have a university degree, mainly in the fields of engineering, then biological, legal, and economic field. However, also nearly 80% of themwere not included in any competence development or skills acquisition program. Only two PAMO had official staff development policy. More than a half of external experts in their assessment also warn that there are no organized programs for acquisition and development of knowledge and skills for the management of

PA in Serbia. In practice, they are organized within the very few international projects or sporadically, within conferences and study visits.

Greater need of PA managers to improve thanopportunities provided for participation in such programs clearly indicates the educational needs, whose satisfaction has had no properly organized support in Serbian community yet. Development of their leadership capacity and management of PA is left upon their own self-initiative, dependant on their ingenuity and willingness to engage in programs for further formal or non formaleducation, in the absence of an organized and systematic activity of continuous professional improvement of this target group.

Conclusion

Despite the understanding of growing complexity in a changing world, as well as of studies showing necessity to integrate environmental issues in decision making and implementation in all spheres of our life, environmental aspects are insufficiently present in the consideration of issues of leadership. At the same time, the leadership concept, requirements toward leaders and belief that their competences are not inherited but rather developed through learning and education, largely extends to the field of ecology and sustainability today.

Implications of accepting sustainability as a globally leading concept and the "leadership compass", have not only been visible in modern corporate responsible practice, but also in applying of "responsible citizenship" and "ecological intelligence" in everyday life. However, "green washing" phenomena, or lack of strategic approach to environmental policies in countries of different development profiles, indicate obvious need to seek further on for the most appropriate approach of learning and education to increase awareness and understanding of mutual relationship between environment, development and future of society for all.

What should be the most appropriate approach in reaching as many people to become successful leaders, considering ecological context and human needs on the way to economic well-being? According to modern views of different authors, that would be the "detachment" from "positional leaders" and shifting of paradigm – from catastrophic to development script relied on innovation and trust, rather than on restrictions and warnings about limits only.

Getting educated,leaders should be developing not only their competences, but abilities to educate and develop others. Educators – from policy makers to trainers – are successful in developing others only when

they grow and take their leadership responsibilities. Shifting the focus from individual leaders and individual responsibility to team players or to society, doesnot mean that authors in environmental leadership and education field believe that there is no individual responsibility for the future. On the contrary – it can be developed and nurtured only if there is mutual synergy between individual, organizational, community...level as well as between environmental, social and economic segments of our lives.

As it is being more and more emphasized by authors of today, environmental leadership is organically rooted in both sustainability and leadership concept. Modern times require leaders who are open to learning and exchanging experiences across the sectors, borders and cultures, individually competent but oriented towards team endeavors and able to engage and inspire others; those who have highly developed communications skills, personal values and responsibility.

In recent years, this has been taken into consideration not only in designing programs to tailor the needs of "sustainable leaders" or "young professionals" for the future, but also in developing curricula for non-formal education or university courses in environmental leadership, sustainability or protected area management.

Understanding leadership as an interaction between competent individuals and motivated and engaged collective, we have conducted research on the role of education in developing capacities for sustainable management of protected areas. According to results of the segment of research related to leadership dimension, the lack of leadership skills that exist among managers of PAMO in Serbia involved in this research, followed by the lack of experience in projects and project management skills, has been recognized by them and not by decision-makers and education programs developers nor providers. However, the gap between perceptions of their own ("strong")decision-making and problem-solving skills and poor practice of democracy and transparency with limited participation of employees and partners in these processes, as reported by the staff of majority of PAMO, are not being recognized neither by managers nor by authorities, program designers or organizations supplying it, especially in the non-formal education field. Having that in mind, it is not difficult to realize why the results of the research show that leadership dimension of capacities for PAM, in comparison with others – knowledge and responsibility – is exactly the weakest one.

Having in mind the widely agreed importance of leadership competences in general and in relation to environmental context in particular,

as well as the role of PA as potential sustainability classrooms, one can understand why we find that greater needs than opportunities for managers to develop their leadership skills and weak participation of staff and stakeholders in decision-making and own (individual and organizational, e.g. community) development planning, should be seriously taken into consideration by decision-makers in each sector of the society. There are a growing number of initiatives, best practices and education efforts, across the boarders, scientific fields and cultures,that may be of support in this process, as well as infuture research.

References:

Alibabić,Š.(2008). Razvijanje liderskih kompetencija,Andragoske studije 2, 250–265

Colville, J. (ed.)(2008).*UNDP Practice Note: Capacity Assessment*, New York:UNDP

Flood,M.(2013)Sustainability as Leadership Ethos,in: Barlett,P.F.,Chase,G.W.(Ed.) Sustainability in Higher Education, The MIT Press

Goleman,D. (1997). Emocionalnainteligencija, Beograd: Geopoetika

Goleman,D.,Boyatzis,R.,Mckee,A.(2003).The New Leaders: Transforming the Art of Leadership Into the Science of Results, London: Time Warner Paperbacks

Hill,H.L.,Clover,D.(Eds.)(2003).*Environmental Adult Education: Ecological Learning, Theory, and Practice for Socioenvironmental Change*, San Francisco: Jossey – Bass

Kotter,J.(1990).A Force for Change: How Leadership Differs from Management, New York: The Free Press

LEAD International: http://www.lead.org/ /visited on November 18,2013.

Lockwood, M.Worboys,L.G.and Kothari,A.(2006). *Managing Protected Areas: A Global Guide,* UK and USA:Earthscan.

McClelland,D.,Burnham,D.(2003)Power is the great motivator, *Harvard Business Review*, pp.3–11

Nordhaus, T., Schellenberger,M.(2007).*Break Through: From the Death of Environmentalism to the Politics of Possibility*. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company.

Orlovic,V.,Paun,D.,Chen,C. (2008).The triple bottom line: Evaluating Corporate Financial, Environmental and Social Responsibility Practices. Kopaonik: *COSEP proceedings.*

Orr, D.(2004).*Earth in Mind*. Washington/Covelo/London: Island Press.

Redekop, B.(Ed.)(2010).Leadership for Environmental Sustainability, Routledge, NY and Oxon,UK

Timmer,D.,Creech,H.,Bucckler,C.(2007).Becoming a Sustainability Leader: IISD's role in shaping the next generation of sustainable development leadership, Manitoba: International Institute for Sustainable Development

Wielkenz,R.,Stelzner,S. (2010).An Ecological Perspective on Leadership: Theory, Research and Practice, in: Redekop,B.(Ed.)(2010).Leadership for Environmental Sustainability, Routledge, NY and Oxon,UK, 17–36.

Nada Kačavenda-Radić, Bojan Ljujić,[*]

Extracurricular Activities as Stimuli of the Leisure in Adulthood[1]

Participation in extracurricular activities at school is one way in which child exercises his right to play which is later, in part, modified into the right of the adult to an adequate choice of leisure activities. The role and significance of extracurricular activities is irreplaceable in training young people to use their leisure time in a well thought-out and organised manner. Properly directed extracurricular activities, as part of the activities carried out during one's leisure time, could have a strong bearing on developing the use of leisure time in and out of school. The reflection of this influence is surely evident not only in youth, but also later in life.

The subject of our paper was the relationship between leisure time use in adulthood (factual and value) on the one hand, and extracurricular activities engaged in during the previous period of education. The aim is to establish whether, to what extent and how participation in the free activities organised at school interferes educational preparedness for leisure time use during adulthood.

The results we obtained imply some interesting conclusions. We found the confirmation of the complex role played by the school, teachers and the community at large in the interrelationship between extracurricular activities engaged in in youth and the adequate utilisation of leisure in adulthood.

Key words: extracurricular activities, leisure, leisure activities, leisure in adulthood, educational preparation for leisure.

[*]   University of Belgrade, Faculty of Philosophy, Belgrade, Serbia

Introduction

Regardless of the presence of considerable terminological and conceptual diversity in defining the notion of "extracurricular activities in school" it is generally agreed that one of their main functions is their positive impact on the culture of leisure time use, not only in youth but also later in life.Participation in extracurricular activities at school is one way in which child exercises his right to play which is later, in part, modified into the right of the adult to an adequate choice of leisure activities.

Extracurricular activities under our conditions are based on the law and schools have obligation to organise them as a special form of educational work to meet the diverse needs of youth and adults engaging in culture, entertainment, practical engineering work, sports, humanitarian and other activities.

In this paper the term "extracurricular activities" is used to imply the totality of educational activities which the school is obliged to offer in an organised and planned fashion outside instruction itself, on its own or in collaboration with any other social institutions.

In contrast to some relativistic and even pessimistic authors, we would argue that leisure time has certain general characteristics that apply to all historical epochs, to all age groups and categories of people. Were it not so, there would be no point in conducting any theoretical debates, drawing any conclusions or making generalisations. Nonetheless, the in view of the relativity of the specification of its significance the view that leisure time is the time of a specific category of people has to be accepted as valid. Consequently, regardless of diverse theoretical determinations, when the notion of "leisure" is operationalised one should always have in mind the specific category of people covered by our inquiry and there is no better way of determining it *in concreto* than through the application of the principle of self-evaluation by the respondents themselves.

Two typologies were used for grouping data – those of M. Kaplan and J.F. Murphy. The order of preferences is as follows:

D_1 – the time left after all professional, family and social obligations have been fulfilled (X=3.65; SD=1.52)

D_2 – the time when one is free to choose what to do (X=2.36; SD=1.14)

D_3 – the time to express oneself and achieve inner satisfaction (X=3; SD=1.15)

D_4 – the time providing a chance to discover and learn something new (X=2.68; SD=1.32)

D_5 – the time that helps one in the struggle against loneliness (X=2.03; SD=1.18) (Kaplan, 1975; Murphy, 1974).

In this paper we observe leisure as a construct whichconsists of several elements rated according to the degree of their acceptance: freedom of choice (which implies the absence of obligation); self-assertion; pleasantness; discovering of learning something new; and social contact.

The subject of our paper was the relationship between leisure time use in adulthood (factual and value) on the one hand, and extracurricular activities engaged in during the previous period of education. The aim is to establish whether, to what extent and how participation in the leisure time activities organised at school impacts educational preparedness for leisure time use during adulthood. We also point out the results of relevant empirical researches which imply that there are important connections between engagement in extracurricular activities during schooling at young age and leisure time use in later life, with effort to relate them with the results we obtained in our inquiry. In our research, we used a non-proportional stratified sample model. We covered 760 adults of various levels of education, of various degrees of preparedness for the activities they engage in their leisure, of both sexes and fully employed but whose working hours are in the morning. The instrument consisted of a battery with several scales, an inventory of activities and queries.

Andragogic justification of investigating extracurricular activities in youth in relation to leisure in adulthood

The more one comes to realise necessity to treat leisure use in adulthood, especially the part of it which is dedicated to education in some way, the more one finds necessary, important and differentiated the need for empirical study, theoretical conception and practical diversification of prior educational activity of adults which occurred during schooling. There is here, therefore, a direct proportionality, but also a complex interactive relation. To be more specific, relying on previous researches, we are free to express the belief that, since being closely related to leisure of youth (Fredricks and Eccles, 2006), extracurricular activities during the schooling could be the factor with the strongest influence on leisure time use later in life (Feinstein, Bynner and Duckworth, 2005; Scott and Willits, 1998).

For the very reason of programmatic flexibility and versatile possibilities of organisational and programmatic diversification, extracurricular activities could closely be connected to different functions which education at young age has, but could also reflect on different functions that are

dominant in adulthood. Properly organized and executed extracurricular activities at young age should represent the form of shaping leisure time use in adulthood.

Extracurricular activities, as special form of educational activities of schools, enrich, expand and deepen the curriculum, school life and work in general and those attending it as well. They have a multifaceted role and great significance, primarily testing, expanding and deepening the acquired knowledge, skills and habits. As Fredricks and Eccles (2006) point out, participation in extracurricular activities have many beneficial effects. Active participation in these activities is positively linked to academic outcomes among which educational aspirations may be of greater interest having in focus the subject of our paper. There are also many psychological benefits of participation in extracurricular activities (higher self-esteem and lower rates of depression). Participation in extracurricular activities during schooling predicts a higher school attendance, more favourable mental health and increased civic engagement. By engaging in these activities the risk of drop out and substance use is decreased.

In comparison to attending classes, extracurricular activities offer much broader possibilities of testing and confirming the acquired knowledge, skills and practice. Also, they appear as a significant fact that has a bearing or forming and gaining new knowledge and skills. As highly organised and institutionalised form we meet the concept of *Community Schools* in USA which is, in some sense, a specific way of encountering different types and kinds of extracurricular activities. In these institutions various agents take their parts and contribute to intergenerational, multifunctional and holistic interrelation between different domains of communal activity. This link between schools and community partners is a critical element of community schools, offering students ways to develop the skills and knowledge necessary for success in adulthood (Melaville, Berg and Blank, 2006). Such concepts help in creating the familiarity with the real world, or as Braund and Reiss (2006) point out, to engage with *actual* world in scientific manner. However, it would be totally wrong, especially as regards adults, to treat extracurricular activities as supplement and addition to the curriculum. The educational aspect is present and very important, but it is unjustified from both the pedagogic and andragogic aspect to over-stress it.

Scientific literature and official documents as well, point out that extracurricular activities should meet certain specific needs, interests and inclinations. Although, no doubt, one should proceed from existing positive interests and inclinations in programming and realising extracurricu-

lar activities – the need to create new ones should be perceived and made for us.

Properly programmed, organized and executed extracurricular activities offer broad possibilities for linking the school with the immediate societal environment as well as with the wider social community. As Fredricks and Eccles (2006) state, participating in variety of structured contexts provides youth with opportunities to develop a range of competencies and interests and gives them exposure to different experiences and people. Through different extracurricular activities young people affirm their personality. These activities provide for broad opportunities to acquire and promote models of solid and proper personal relations. Similar to that, Feinstein, Bynner and Duckworth (2005) state that participation in extracurricular activities in youth determines family characteristics and different aspects of social exclusion in adulthood. Thus, this would surely have a positive effect on relations outside school, both in the present moment and in adulthood.

The role and significance of extracurricular activities is irreplaceable in training young people to use their leisure time in a well thought-out and organised manner. Properly directed extracurricular activities, as part of the activities carried out during one's leisure time, could have a strong bearing on developing the use of leisure time in and out of school. The reflection of this influence is surely evident not only in youth, but also later in life. Hankock, HyjerDyk and Jones (2012) conducted research which showed that extracurricular activities positively influence the perception and development of leadership skills. Although this inquiry does not focus explicitly on leisure time of youth and adults it implies that well organised and controlled extracurricular activities may lead to development of crucial managerial skills that contribute to better organisation and management of leisure activities during entire life.

Relying on argument that Kelly (2006) points out, according to which museums visits, for instance, are undoubtedly connected with the processes of learning, education and entertainment, we can say that extracurricular activities represent powerful means of meeting a compelling need for entertainment during leisure time. This can contribute to a more joyous and richer life during the entire lifespan.

From this point it can openly be set out that in the scientific sense the problem of extracurricular activities in youth and its relations toward leisure time use in adulthood has been much neglected. It is an unpleasant fact that andragogic-pedagogic debates and research in this area are almost totally lacking, despite the facts that extracurricular activities are legalized and have been carried out in schools more or less successfully for

a relatively long time ant that some researches of earlier date pointed out strong connection between extracurricular activities in youth and the use of leisure, both in youth and in adulthood (Scott and Willits, 1998).

So far, the rather scant pedagogic literature treating this problem has for the most part pointed out the significance and tasks of extracurricular activities without any arguments considering their influence on leisure time use in adulthood. One of the reasons of poor study of this problem is that subject of this research is put too broadly. Potential solution could be narrowing of the research focus and concentration on specific phenomena in the domains of extracurricular activities in youth and leisure time in adulthood. The examples of that are not numerous, but are present in literature:

- Kačavenda-Radić (2013) conducted the research which was focused on *school excursions* as a form of extracurricular activities, which were partially argued in relation to different aspects of leisure time of adults;
- Lutz et al. (2009) researched the influence of *athletic engagement* during schooling on early adult life experiences;
- Fredricks and Eccles (2006) investigated engagement in *school clubs*, *sports* and *pro-social activities* in relation to different domains of life in adulthood;
- Feinstein, Bynner and Duckworth (2005) tried to define the connection between engagement in *youth clubs*, *church activities*, *out-of-school lessons* and *volunteering* in one side and leisure engagement later in life, in other side.

Extracurricular activities in youth and leisure in adulthood – empirical view

The largest percentage of our respondents had no educational preparation at all (37.7%) for the activities they engage in their leisure. With respect to educational preparations, 22.2% of the respondents relied on the preparations acquired through extracurricular activities during their formal education in youth; 26.8% on self-education in youth or later, and 13.3% attended some form of organised adult education courses.

If we go step further in the quest for any links between so-called extracurricular activities of young people at school and leisure time activities in adults, we find that by far a larger percentage of respondents (64.3%) engage in leisure activities in adulthood that have nothing to do with the

activities that used to be organised at school. The number of respondents who engage in activities that are in any way related to the extracurricular activities that used to be organised in their school account for a far smaller share (35.7%).

Though the values of the statistical parameters indicate that the differences are statistically significant between various levels of education the distribution of responses is such to warrant the assertion that there is no connection between leisure activities of adults and extracurricular activities at school in the case of the two lowest educational categories (incomplete or complete elementary education – 36.1%), the two middle categories (three and four-year secondary school – 32.4%), and the two highest educational categories (higher and university level of education – 31.4%). The downward that accompanies the increase in the educational level is so small as to be negligible. There is a small though not convincing increase in the connection between leisure activities in youth and leisure activities in adulthood with the increase in the level of education (28.4% for the lowest, 35% for the medium and 36.5% for the highest educational category).

Similar results in our country were obtained by D. Savićević (1983) in an inquiry conducted among a heterogeneous sample population of 999 adults. The author found that a large percentage of the respondents (36.8%) felt that their regular education in youth had hardly or not at all prepared them for an active (creative) use of their leisure time. It should be noted those respondents with lower levels of education were more or less equally dissatisfied with the contribution of their regular schooling to their preparedness for proper leisure time use as those with higher levels of education.

Consequently the findings of mentioned inquiries point to the conclusion that there appears to be a need for regular educational institutions to revise this particular aspect of their activities. As an argument that corroborates this claim we would like to mention the results we obtained testing a sample of students and teachers attending a school for adult education. True, both samples gave a high priority to the usefulness and significance of the leisure activities organised by the schools but one cannot neglect the fact that 25% of the students did not consider them to be useful or significant. Apart from the fact that some of were not even aware of the fact that their school organised any extracurricular activities, others saw no purpose in such activities at school considering them to be superfluous. There was also some criticism of the quality and quantity of those activities (Kačavenda-Radić, 1985).

All mentioned arguments and the results of some inquiries of newer date which indicate the recognized importance and usefulness of extracurricular activities among participants in sense of both, formal schooling and their reflections on adulthood (Lutz et al., 2009), are not sufficient merely to make the organisation of extracurricular activities mandatory by law. The results obtained are indicative of the complex role of the school, teachers and the community at large in the organisation and actual conduct of this type of activity.We are even more convinced in our attitude having in mind that participation in less structured leisure settings, as Fredricks and Eccels (2006) point out, could lead to involvement with risky peer groups, demonstration of inappropriate behaviour, substances abuse and greater level of stress and anxiety.

The results of our inquiry show that former educational preparedness reflects in varying degrees on the kind of activities engaged in by adults in their leisure. The results are statistically significant with respect to physical-recreational activities as well as educational activities whereas the value of statistical parameters become insignificant when it comes to passive leisure activities, hedonistic-gambling and altruistic-pedagogic activities.

Percentagewise, physical-recreational activities are mostly enjoyed in leisure by those who had prepared themselves for them through some form of adult education (schools, courses seminars, etc. – 54.7%); then come those who had prepared themselves through extracurricular activities in school (52.2%) and those who had prepared themselves through self-instruction (40.6%). The respondents who had no educational preparation at all account the smallest share (36.7%).

Lutz et al. (2009) came to similar findings. They stress out that those adults who participated in sports as a part of extracurricular activities in youth engage more in vigorous physical activities later in life than those who did not practice this kind of activities during schooling. Besides that, they argue that athletic involvement during schooling is associated with different aspects of life in adulthood such as better physical and mental health, life satisfaction, greater civic engagement and lower amount of risky behaviours. The most interesting finding indicates that adults who expressed greater preference and satisfaction toward physical activities during schooling achieved greater level of education and adult education attainment compared to non-athletes.

The tendency is identical in the case of cultural-aesthetic activities. By far the largest group to engage in these activities attend some form of adult education (68.4%), followed by those who did not attend any adult education but who had engaged in such activities in their youth through extracurricular activities in school (64.8%), then those who had engaged

in self-education (56.3%) and lastly those who had not prepared themselves in any way for leisure activities (41.1%).

Fredricks and Eccles (2006) mention the similar results they obtained in their research. They point out that participation in extracurricular activities predicts involvement in socio-cultural causes in early adulthood.

When we look at the intensity of manual-aesthetic activities, organised educational preparedness appears to have even greater impact. Out of the total number of respondents who had some form of education, 68.4% engage in such activities intensively, which is a far higher percentage than for any other category of respondents. Out of the total number of respondents that engage in these activities intensively, 52.1% had prepared themselves through self-instruction and 46.5% had relied on the knowledge and skills they had acquired through extracurricular activities. The respondents who had no educational preparation for leisure time use devote the least of their leisure time to these activities (45.9%).

When it comes to religious activities however, we find that they are most popular among category of respondents who had no educational preparation at all. Out of the total number of respondents in this category, 39.3% engage in religious activities extensively. As for the other categories of respondents who had some kind of preparation for leisure time use, the percentage engaging extensively in religious activities is lower but more or less evenly spread among them (28.9%, 28.4% and 27.6%).

It is interesting to mention the results Feinstein, Bynner and Duckworth (2005) obtained in their research. Although they did not investigate religious engagement in adulthood, they tried to find the connection between church-based activities as a part of extracurricular involvement in youth and some aspects of life in adulthood. The results of their inquiry show that engagement in church-based activities positively influences the issues of social exclusion in adulthood.

A far larger number of respondents who had some kind of educational preparation for leisure time use engage in educational activities of cognitive sphere than those who had no preparation. We see that 56% of total number of those who underwent some kind of preparation in their youth, 55.8% of the total number of those who attended some form of adult education and 51.6 of all those who prepared themselves through self-instruction have a pronounced interest in these activities.

The situation is similar with respect to educational activities of predominantly psycho-motoric sphere. Out of the total number of respondents who prepared themselves by attending some form of adult education courses, 54.7% showed a pronounced interest in educational activities of the predominantly psycho-motoric sphere, 53.5% of those who were

prepared through their formal education in youth and finally 33.33% of those who prepared themselves through self-instruction. This percentage is significantly lower in the category of respondents who had no educational preparation and it amounts to 24.1%. Within this category of respondents, the share of those with little interest in educational activities of the psycho-motoric and cognitive sphere is far higher (75.9% and 61.5% respectively).

The results obtained therefore, indicate that engagement in educational activities in leisure varies depending on the educational preparedness for the leisure time use. The difference is conspicuous between respondents who had some form of educational preparation and those who had none. In numerical terms, educational activities both of the predominantly cognitive and predominantly psycho-motoric sphere are more or less equally popular among respondents who were educationally prepared for them in their youth as well as those who attended some form of adult education for that purpose.

Results obtained by Fredricks and Eccles (2006) indicate the similar though more specific tendency. They found out that participation in some extracurricular activities (school clubs, sports and pro-social activities) has positive influence on educational expectations later in life, which can be in some way taken as a factor that indicates educational participation in leisure time in adulthood. As they state, extracurricular educational preparation in youth offers opportunity to build interpersonal competence and formulate educational plans for the future and skills that are critical to adult education attainment.

If we relate the various kinds of leisure activities engaged in by adults to participation in extracurricular activities in school in youth, we obtained the following order of intensity:

- Cultural-aesthetic;
- Educational activities – predominantly cognitive sphere;
- Educational activities – predominantly psycho-motoric sphere;
- Physical activities;
- Manual-productive; and
- Religious.

Kelly (1982) gives the findings of a study carried out in America which point to the conclusion that the activities engaged in by adults in their leisure are only in a small percentage (6%) the same as those at school ant that the highest percentage are cultural activities after all.

The results of our research have shown that educational preparedness is also a variable that hinges significantly on the position taken towards

education in leisure. The position on education in leisure varies, depending with statistical reliability, on educational preparedness for leisure time use.

The differences are most conspicuous in the case of extreme answers. A far smaller percentage of respondents who had some form of educational preparation for leisure time use of all categories have a negative attitude towards education in leisure than the respondents who had no participation. In the category of respondents who prepared themselves through extracurricular activities during their formal education in youth this percentage is only 5.7%, then come those who attended some form of adult education – 6.3% followed by those who prepared them through self-instruction – 7.8%. The highest percentage with a negative attitude is found among the category of respondents who had no educational preparation at all – 12.8%. The positive tendency is true of the extreme positive attitude but also in the case of a predominantly positive attitude. Thus, 90.6% of the respondents who were educationally prepared for the leisure time use at school had predominantly positive attitude towards education in leisure.

It is hard to tell whether the attitude preceded educational activity (in the sense of preparations for leisure time use) or educational activity came before the shaping of the attitude towards education in leisure. Our inquiry does confirm a significant link between these two variables and if there is any justification for generalisation, the findings corroborate the claim that the earlier educational activity the more positive the attitude towards education in leisure.

We avoided in this occasion the distinction between education in and education for leisure but it should be noted that statistically significant results have been obtained with respect to educational preparedness and the attitude towards education for leisure (readiness to engage in education, preferences with respect to the contents and forms of education). It can be noted that respondents with previous educational experience in preparations for leisure time use have a more positive attitude towards education for leisure and are ready to undergo further training with a view to improved utilization of leisure than those with no such experience. A very large percentage (90.5%) of adults who participated in extracurricular activities in their youth were eager to engage in education for leisure time use. The percentage of other categories with educational preparations was high but lower than the firs group (81.1% and 80.2% respectively) and it was lowest for the category with no education preparation (70.2%).

Results that Lutz et al. (2009) obtained leads to similar impression. Their inquiry showed that those adults who participated in extracurricu-

lar activities in their youth (sports activities) engage more in adult education compared to those who did not express preference or actual engagement in these activities during schooling.

Conclusion

The empirical material collected as a result of our inquiry points to a number of interesting results.

First, all the categories of respondents with some training in leisure time use either in their youth or in adulthood engage in a higher percentage in physical-recreational, cultural-aesthetic and manual-productive activities than the categories of respondents with no educational preparation at all. The more coherent and organised those preparations were in the educational sense the stronger the urge to engage in such activities. The exception are religious activities which are engaged in most in their leisure by the category of respondents who had no specific or organised preparation for leisure time use whereas the emphasis on these activities changes in the category of respondents with some kind of educational preparation. This is probably linked to the fact that religious education in our country was separated from regular education at the time we conducted our research.

Second, participation in extracurricular activities at school appears to be a relevant factor for engagement in certain activities in leisure time in adulthood. To judge by the intensity and frequency of those activities, this connection is most pronounced in the case of aesthetic-cultural activities (64.8%) followed by educational activities of the predominantly cognitive sphere (56.7%), educational activities of the predominantly psycho-motoric sphere (53.5%), physical-recreational activities (52.2%), manual-productive (46.5%) and finally, religious activities (28.9%).

Third, in the context of the other forms of educational preparation for leisure time use in adulthood covered by the study, participation in extracurricular activities has been proven to be a stronger factor than self-instruction but also as an equally significant factor (in the case of educational activities of both the cognitive and psycho-motoric sphere) or as a less significant factor (in the case of the other activities measured) than organised educational preparation in adulthood.

Fourth, the attitude towards education in leisure and readiness to engage in some educational effort in order to promote leisure time use is in direct proportion with previous educational preparations. For the respondents who participated in leisure activities that used to be organised

by their school in their youth in most cases take a positive or very positive attitude towards education in leisure. This category also shows the highest degree of readiness to engage in further training for leisure activities.

Finally, the fact that all types of activities are not significantly correlated to educational preparedness (passive rest activities, hedonistic activities, gambling, altruistic-pedagogic activities) points to the conclusion that educational preparedness for leisure time use affect in varying degrees of intensity the various types of leisure activities. In that sense, Brighthill and Mobley (1977) are right in saying that what we do in our leisure does not depend only on how well prepared we are for leisure time use but also on our attitudes, values, interests and abilities as well as on the natural and social conditions under which we live.

The results of our research also confirm the complex role played by the school, teachers and the community at large in the interrelationship between leisure activities engaged in in youth and the adequate utilisation of leisure in adulthood.

References

Braund, M. and Reiss, M. (2006). Towards a More Authentic Science Curriculum: The contribution of out-of-school learning, *International Journal of Science Education*, 28 (12), 1373–1388.

Brighthill, Ch. K. and Mobley, T.A. (1977).*Education for Leisure-Centered Living.* New York: John Wiley and Sons.

Feinstein, L., Bynner, J. and Duckworth, K. (2005).*Leisure contexts in adolescence and their effects on adult outcomes*. London: Center on Research on Wider Benefits of Learning.

Fredricks, J.A., and Eccles, J.S. (2006). Is Extracurricular Participation Associated With Beneficial Outcomes? Concurrent and Longitudinal Relations, *Developmental Psychology*, 42 (4), 698–713.

Hancock, D. HyjerDyk, P. and Jones, K. (2006). Adolescents Involvement in Extracurricular Activities: Influences on Leadership Skills, *Journal of Leadership Education*, 11 (1), 84–101.

Kačavenda-Radić, N. (1985). Slobodneaktivnosti – činilacvaspitno-obrazovnogra daosnovnihškolazaodrasle. U: Bulatović, R. isar. (ur.). *Osnovnoobrazovanjeo draslih*(175–199). Beograd: ZUNS.

Kačavenda-Radić, N. (2013). Školskeekskurzije – neksuspedagogije, andragogijeiturizma, *Andragoškestudije*, (1), 161–181.

Kaplan, M. (1975).*Leisure: Theory and policy*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Kelly, J. (1982). *Leisure.* New York: Prentice-Hall.

Kelly, L. (2006). *Visitors and Learners: investigating adult museum learning identities*. Sidney: University of Technology.

Lutz, G.M., Cornish, D.L., Gonnerman, M.E., Ralston, M. and Baker, P. (2009). *Impacts of Participation in High School Extracurricular Activities on Early Adult Life Experience: A Study of Iowa Graduates.* Iowa: The Iowa Girls' High School Athletic Union.

Melaville, A., Berg, A., & Blank, M. J. (2006).*Community-based learning: Engaging students for success and citizenship*. Washington, DC: Coalition for Community Schools.

Murphy, J.R. (1974) *Concepts of Leisure: Philosophical Implications.* Eaglewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall.

Savićević, D. (1983). *Čovjekidoživotnoobrazovanje.* Titograd: RZUŠ.

Scott and Willits (1998). Adolescent and Adult Leisure Patterns: A Reassessment, *Journal of Leisure Research*, 30 (3), 319–330.

Branislava Knežić, Maja Savić,[*]

Challenges to Adult Education in Serbian Prisons

A global trend of increasing prison population, overcrowded prisons and economic crisis, which illustrate the conditions in Serbian prisons as well, severely violate the inmates' rights and affect the performance and security of the staff employed in the penal institutions. High population density in the Serbian prisons, financial difficulties, architectural and technical features of the prison-buildings impede the inmates' classification, adequate treatment and the quality of their resocialization processes. At the same time, the insufficiency of the qualified staff in charge of treatment, training and employment further hinder the implementation of the Law on the Execution of Criminal Sanctions – **LECS**. This paper identifies the main challenges (institutional and personal) which adult education in prisons as well as advanced training of the prison staff are faced with. In addition, we will argue that both inmates and their trainers are "trapped" in wider social circumstances, clearly reflected in prison treatment. New forms of staff-education and advanced training are rare and involve quite a few relevant institutions and individuals. Nevertheless, they still represent certain progress in the field of penological treatment and serve as an encouragement to other prisons, prisoners and staff.

Key words: prison education, prisons, inmates, staff employed in services for treatment, education and employment of prisoners

[*]   University of Belgrade, Faculty of Philology, Belgrade, Serbia

The role of prison education

In the two past decades there is a general trend of increasing prison population worldwide (Walmsley, 2012; Sisk, Juhász i Damianos, 2010) while, at the same time, due to the current economical crisis it became rather difficult to justify the investments into prison education. Despite the fact that, as the relevant researches have showen, education and educational programs in prisons are important factor which positively affect the resocialization of the prisoners and significantly decreases recidivism (Cecil et al., 2000; Steurer, Smith, 2003; Vacca, 2004; MacKenzie, 2006) it seems that expectations from the transformative role of education are too high and that in reality there are many challanges to optimal and appropriate prison education. The prison environment itself as well as the prisoners' personalities oppose educational processes and it takes a lot of social and state support to implement an educational program tailored to the specific needs of the prisoners, i.e. a program which would be practical and useful for both – the inmates and the society to which they return to after release.

Prison education undoubtfully presents a means of prisoners' change and improvement which reduces recedivism rate, provides better reintegration to the society and increases chances for employment. Aditionally, it has many indirect positive results such as: character improvement, strengthening of self-confidence, acquisition of competences, encouragement of introspection, establishing of moral values, enhancement of social skills, internalization of social standards, etc (Wilson & Reuss, 2000). Besides these, it has been proven that inmates who participate in correctional *education programs* serve as role models to other prisoners, prompting them to reconsider their goals and motivation. Aditionally, their behavior is improved which results in fewer violation of the prison rules.

Apart from education, another meaningful way to occupy prison time, which at the same time functions as an instrument of further resocilazion, is prison work as well as inmates' cultural and recreational activities.

The model of prisoner treatment based on education, training and employment is supposed to be the most effective one since it completes three tasks: 1) prepares a prisoner for the life after release, 2) enables better prison functioning and 3) fulfils the purpose of the prison sentence i.e. discourage offenders from *committing additional crimes.*

While planning and organizing prison education and training as well as in their implementation and evaluation, andragogical disciplines should be consulted. The problem is multi-faceted: slow return to the concept

of resocialization (irrespectively of how it is defined), insufiency of the skilled staff, mistrust toward educational prgrams and lack of motivation both of prisoners and prison staff and, finally, lack of finances and social support in the broader sense. In order to achieve success in resocialization of prisoners into society, rather than to assimilate them into prison conditions, it is necessary to engage competent and trained staff whose task would be beyond ***mere maintenance of law*** and order through the use of repressive measures.

Legal provisions provide an adequate framework for inmate training in order to successfully integrate prison population into society and life after release. The European Prison Rules[1] on education in prison consist of seven articles, among which we want to stress the the following: **28.1** *Every prison shell seek to provide all prisoners with access to educational programs which are as comprihensive as possible and which meet their individual needs while taking into account their aspirations.* **28.2** *Priority shall be given to prisoners with literacy and numeracy needs and those who lack basic or vocabulary education.* **28.3** *Particular attention shall be paid to the education of young prisoners and those with special needs.* Also important for further analysis is the article **81.2** concerning the prison staff: *Management shall ensure that, throughout their career, all staff maintain and improve their knowledge and professional capacity by attending courses of in-service training and development to be organised at suitable intervals.*

Respectively, the Article **86** of the Serbian Law on the Execution of Criminal Sanctions states the following*: A convicted person's work is an integral part of the program of action. The purpose of such work is for prisoners to acquire, maintain and develop their skills, working habits and professional knowledge.* In addition the Article **87** claims that *The labour of convicted persons must by purposeful and may not be degrading.* Although the above mentioned legal solutions provide a good platform for prison education, there are numerous obstacles to its realization.

The problems and the challenges begin with the fact that convicts are by force of the law brought into correctional institutions where they can hardly find any motivation for learning, not even had the prisons been transformed into fully equiped modern classrooms. On the other hand, among numerous negative impications ***of incarceration, pursuing prison education can be perceived as a positive and beneficial one, which at the same time presents a*** meaningful way to occupy prison time.

---

1   The Recommendation of the Committee of Ministers Rec (2006)2 **on the European Prison Rules** approved by the Committee of Ministers at 952th meeting of the Ministers' Deputies (January 11th 2006).

Challenges to education in prison can be analysed in terms of:

– **Prisoners** (age, length of sentence, previous level of education, negative experiences in school, learning difficulties, drug and alcohol addiction, length of sentence and type of commited crime, motivation for continuing education);

– **State and its correctional institutions** (inability to provide education programs due to: financial difficulties, lack of appropriate space, inappropriate technical conditions, lack of motivation among prison management and staff to organize educational activities, security concerns, lack of motivation among the staff to improve their own competences and skills, necessairy to perform the job effectively).

Obstacles to access to education – prisoners' point of view

Sykes (Sykes, 1958, according to Wilson & Reuss, 2000) defines the prison experience as isolation from the community, deprivation of material goods, deprivation of sexual relationships, limited personal autonomy and personal safety. Due to this situation prisoners withdrow from the prison staff and the wider community. Therefore, prison education and labor can strengthen bonds between the inmates and the community and facilitate their return to it. However, the obstacle to such perception of education is widespread lack of motivation to participate in educational programs or work activities.

As the most common reason for avoiding educational programs, prisoners refer to the lack of motivation for learning and previous negative school experiences (GHK, 2012). In our study conducted on a convenience sample (Knežić, Savić, 2013) as the most common cause for not pursuing further education, the prisoners singled out their satisfaction with the achieved level of education and competences already acquired, whilst some of them, besides the lack of motivation, underlined the belief that they don't need further education. Taking into consideration generally negative experiences with the previous educational process, low academic achievement, and the fact that inmates usually come from poor, marginalized and discriminated groups this lack of intrinsic motivation is not unexpected.

In some countries, prisoners are encouraged to pursue educational programs through extrinsic motivation. Thus, for example, in Ireland, Hungary and Lithuania prisoners attending educational programs are entitled to daily or monthly stipends as a compensation for the loss of income due to absence from work. In Algeria, the Dominican Republic,

Guatemala, Mauritius, Peru, Poland and Tunisia participation in educational programs is taken into account when considering a conditional sentence, while in Peru and Tunisia the length of prison sentence is shortened for time spent in educational programs (Munoz, 2009). In some countries the participation of prisoners in education process is encouraged by certain privileges, such as family visits, books, going out for a weekend (GHK, 2012).

An important factor which affects inmates' decision to pursue prison education is their age. The age structure, in which 68.5% are aged between 21 and 40 years, indicates that prison education should meet the needs of modern economy. However, a lot of inmates feel that they are too old for schooling, since the age appropriate for education is childhood and adolescence, and thus refuse to participate in it. According to the following statistics[2]: 2.8% of prisoners are completely illiterate, 15.2% have not completed primary school, 26.5% have completed elementary education, while 6.6% are with incomplete secondary education. These facts point to the necessity of a functional adult education as well as of additional training and retraining. In 2011, according to the Department for Execution of Criminal Sanctions data (2011 Annual Report on Prison Administration Operations), in prison education programs in Serbia were involved only 316 male prisoners and 9 females which is approximately 4% of total prison population. 49 people (0.7 %) gained basic literacy, 45 prisoners (0.6 %) completed primary school while educational courses were attended by 167 men (2 % of total male prison population) and no women. Less than 1% i.e. 64 male prisoners completed three-year vocational secondary school and no women. From the same source we learn that in 2012 in educational work were engaged 152 or 2.1% of men, while 24 women or 9.2% attended the course. 25 men (0.4 %) gained basic literacy, 39 men (0.6 %) completed primary school, 59 (0.8 %) completed courses, and 29 (0.4%) completed three-year vocational secondary school. Apart from these basic competencies, prison education programs should provide the prisoners with skills and knowledge useful for employment. Additionally, these programs should train inmates for successful functioning within society, family, working surrounding, etc.

The sentence length is an important factor which determines prisoners' involvement in educational and work activities. Offenders *serving short-term sentences* usually are not motivated for educational program simply because they cannot complete it. Thus, it is not surprising that the majority of recidivist criminals are "recruited" from this group of prison population, since they are not trained almost at all while in prison. The sentence length should not be an obstacle to prison education and educa-

---

2   The data are referred according to Directorate for Execution of Criminal Sanctions 2012 annual report.

tional programs should be modified according to the needs of short-term prisoners as well. For example, prison education should include alternative courses specially created for short-sentence prisoners which would prepare them for return to the community and provide them with practical knowledge on how to find adequate job, or how to get information concerning suitable training course, how to prepare for a job interview, how to contact potential employer, etc. (Bracken, 2011). On the other hand, providing the long-sentence prisoners with a possibility to be engaged in meaningful work and training helps them to get accustomed to working discipline and responsibility which are integral part of "normal life". In addition, education makes time spent in prison meaningful and helps inmates to strengthen the feelings of self-esteem and self-efficiency.

One of the challenges to effective prison treatment is heterogeneity of prisoners convicted of serious offences, among whom many are drug addicts. This doesn't mean, however, that the programs are doomed to fail and that we should be pessimistic regarding their potentials, but rather that we should provide an environment suitable for positive changes and development of human recourses based on useful, purposeful and according to prisoners' needs tailored and created education.

Institutional obstacles to education

Besides prisoners' personality, the accessibility of education depends on conditions in which it is carried out. More specifically, these are: technical and financial conditions which affect the organization of education process or work, staff's attitude towards prisoner education, staff's competences, safety factors, availability to educational resources (library, internet), the possibility of engaging volunteers into educational process, etc.

According to the survey on prison education and training in Europe (GHK, 2012) Serbia in the period 1993–2009 records increase in prison population to 183% and the utilization of the prison capacity to 158 % in 2009. It goes without saying that high density of prisoners affects the accessibility to education, since in such circumstances the prison authorities are challenged to establish and maintain the balance between security measures and the prisoners' rights to work and education.

However, the prison environment itself and its strategies in organizing educational activities, accompanied with appropriate room and technical conditions (such as classrooms separated from the main prison building, educational activities which do not overlap with regular prison agenda, availability of the library, etc) significantly contribute to a positive learning atmosphere (GHK, 2013).

A need for digital literacy is recognized as a special issue within the prison environment. On the one hand, digital literacy is becoming increasingly important in everyday life, work and personal development of an individual, but necessary equipment and access to the Internet, which digital literacy requires, are often far beyond financial and security capacities of Serbian prisons. Since computers and the Internet present potential means of learning, invaluable source of learning materials and a source of information concerning employment possibilities, limited access to them stands an obstacle for an inmate while in prison as well as after release.

The educational climate in prison is significantly affected by the prison management's and staff's system of values, their attitude toward prison education and its purpose (Blake & Sackett, 1975, according to Vacca, 2004). An ambivalent attitude can be seen toward prison education regarding the goals of penal system (control of criminality, punishment, intimidation, retribution) and especially in cases when the prisoners are perceived as privileged due to their access to education. Unfortunately, prison authorities do not recognize always in education a potential to change and improve prisoners. On the contrary, sometimes they consider education as a mechanism of control and regulation of inmates' behavior, as a means to employ idle hands and as an instrument which can prevent violation of the prison rules.

Prison management as well the staff in charge of treatment, training and employment should share the same goals – to engage prisoners into meaningful activities, to provide them with a safe environment and to contribute to their positive change, which will prevent them to return to prison after release. In cases where guards and prison staff themselves have lower levels of education, education of prisoners might be a problem since staff and guards might feel that the prisoners are given more opportunities than they were and other people at large. Therefore it is very important to inform prison staff about potential value of education for prisoners' rehabilitation.

Despite numerous limitations and challenges, which staff in charge for education and training is faced with, educational programs need to be implemented. Implementation, however, raises many questions such as:

– Is it possible for the stuff engaged in services for treatment, training and employment to perform properly their job taking into account the excessive number of prisoners and the insufficiency of skilled staff?

– Can insufficient number of teachers successfully "improve" the inmates, which is their primary task? Do they have enough time, are they motivated enough and are they capable to deal with significantly increased number of inmates?

– Are the persons working as educators, teachers and instructors, who provide practical education, adequately trained to perform these particular duties and tasks?

– Do trainers and educators, holding relevant degrees, rely only on theoretical knowledge gained during the studies?

– Are both prisoners and prison staff are "captured" in the net of rules and (im)possibilities predicted by the LECS?

The educators (usually recruited from various fields of humanities such as defectology, pedagogy, psychology, andragogy, social work, etc), can not fulfill the role assigned to them since there are up to 90 inmates per an educator. In addition, there is significant lack of educated and skilled trainers specialized for particular type of treatment. Prison staff often recognizes the necessity of special treatment of particular categories of prisoners (such as: drug addicts, sex offenders, etc). However, a great deal of staff, working in training and employment departments, believe that they do not need any advanced training regarding the specific demands of the group they are dealing with. They believe that rich experience they have gained can compensate eventual lack of theoretical knowledge, while their objections are solely related to outdated technology. Given that a great deal of staff is not professionally trained to work with prisoners (history and sociology teachers, persons graduated in the field of defense and security, geography, etc) additional courses and training should be mandatory regardless the years of experience (Kuzminović, Palibrk, 2012).

Taking into consideration the specific nature of prison education and training, it is of outmost importance to provide the prison staff (especially young and new teachers) with certain kind of training that will help them to understand better the prison environment, security issues and their own role and responsibilities in prisoners' rehabilitation. For this purpose in 2006, within the Department for Execution of Criminal Sanctions, the Center for Training and Professional Development of Staff was founded in Niš with the support of the OSCE Mission in Serbia. In 2012, from 363 prison employees who attended Center's courses only 62 came from the Department for treatment (2012 Annual Report on Prison Administration Operations). There is no doubt that the role of the Department for treatment is quite specific and that education of its staff is the most complex, but the organization of advanced trainings in other departments deserve greater attention and programs applicable in practice.

Teaching in prison is much more time demanding in comparison to outside community because prisoners are not motivated to learn and are often preoccupied with other issues during the classes such as: upcoming court hearings, personal problems at home or disciplinary problems with-

in the prison (Bracken, 2012). Due to these, it is important that prison teachers develop adequate skills and competencies that will enable them to adjust themselves to this unique working environment in which they are required to meet diverse learning and support needs of their students. It is also important to give them the opportunity for continuous trainings in order to be updated with professional achievements in their field, to share experiences and resources with colleagues from other prisons as well as with colleagues engaged in theoretical studies. They also need to collaborate with staff involved in maintenance of the prison regime (prison guards, social workers, etc.). In other words, it is essential for prison staff to constantly develop and improve their own communication and social skills.

An essential part of any prison is its security department, which is the most numerous as well. In addition to duties and responsibilities related to security issues, its officers are in constant interaction with the prisoners. It can be said that on daily basis a guard employed in security service, apart from his primary role, a the same time, performs the role of a supervisor, a custodian, a keeper of order, an administrator, an observer, a facilitator, a mentor, a supplier and a diplomat (Braggins & Talbot, 2005). Considering the importance of both formal and implied roles that guards play in prison life, they can be important figures in supporting and motivating prisoners to attend educational activities and to exploit all available resources and rights related to prison education. On the other hand, since the guards are exposed to stress on daily basis due to constant contact with inmates of various profiles and due to struggles to maintain order in harsh conditions of overcrowded prisons, they need additional trainings in the field of conflict resolution, mediation, communication skills and anti-stress programs.

It is justified to question, not only in Serbian prisons but on wider scale, the competences, qualifications and motivation of people in charge for prisoner trainings. The attitudes and opinions of prison staff and of common people, who obey the law, regarding prison education are rather rigid. Generally speaking there is an oversimplified perception of prison education as mere teaching of reading and writing, identical to courses intended to illiterate persons. Such an attitude is negative and degrading toward people who "violated" the laws.

The participation of volunteers in prison educational programs, which, unfortunately, have not taken root in our country, is potentially important resource which could significantly support and improve prison education. However, in order to be accepted in the prisons, the idea of volunteering needs to be developed and expanded throughout whole community, which is not a case in our country. In some countries there are

programs which involve skilled volunteers in prison education, the aim of which is not to replace the educators but to make a link between the community and the prison environment. Such a program exists in France where the organization GENEPI gathers more than 1,000 students – volunteers involved in tutoring work, cultural, social and educational activities in 80 prisons in the country.

Example of good practice in Serbian prisons today

Until twenty years ago the prisoners, especially in Požarevac, Sremska Mitrovica and Niš, were employed and trained in small factories, built with the state support. Additionally, there were centers for basic and vocational education, the programs of which were adapted to social and prison conditions. Adequacy of this program, its content and method of trainings cannot be examined in this paper, but recent researches (Nikolić-Ristanović, 2000; Knežić, 2001; Stevanović, 2010; Knežić, Savić, 2012) as well as the monitoring of the human rights in prisons (Kuzminović, Palibrk, 2012) showed that the current factories for prisons are almost empty and abandoned with outdated technology while education centers intended for prisoners do not exist any more.

Although, even today there are many skeptics among researchers dealing with correctional institutions regarding the prison educational trainings, the pilot project "Support to vocational education and training in prisons in Serbia" conducted in 2012–2013 and financed by the European Union, presents a glimmer of hope. The project was intended to support the Directorate for Execution of Criminal Sanctions of the Ministry of Justice and Public Administration in its efforts to establish a sustainable and efficient system of vocational education and training (VET) of prisoners in Serbia. The aim of the project was to contribute to prisoners' resocialization process and to increase their employment capacity after release. The prisoners were trained for five occupations which are in demand on Serbian labor market: bakery (three types of training), screen printing, welding (three types of welding), carpentry and vegetable farming. Vocational education and training were conducted in three correctional institutions: Požarevac, Sremska Mitrovica and Niš. The prisoners were selected on the basis of following criteria: psychological assessment, testing and assessment of learning abilities. 500 inmates successfully completed the training. The project also included 60 officers for treatment and 5 instructors –professionals in mentioned occupations who were previously trained for program implementation. In addition, 20 teachers of vo-

cational schools, certified for adult training, were in charge of theoretical classes. The selected prisoners were trained on modern equipment used in occupation they chose. The equipment was specially purchased and installed in this purpose (2012 Annual Report on Prison Administration Operations).

The results of the said VET project prompt us to examine the possibility of continual and sustainable education in all Serbian prisons. It is of crucial importance to which extent the gained experience will be applied in order to make more fundamental approach not only to training, but to prison education and employment as well. We hope that until recently uniformed and stereotypical opinions shared by both prison management and society in general – that prisoners are not interested in education – are shaken at least. The success of 500 prisoners from three institutions included in the project clearly show the potential of prison education processes. When educational needs and personal professional interests of a convict corresponds to certain occupation in demand on employment market, and provided that educational activities in prison are carefully planned and realized, then inmates will be highly motivated for training. And not only inmates, but staff as well, i.e. instructors, tutors, teachers. Everyone engaged in education and training of specific categories of adult learners, in such circumstances, will be motivated to further his/her own education. Both prisoners and their trainers need education which is adjusted to the new criteria of employment and work. In other words they both need purposeful and useful knowledge which can meet the demands of the labor market and modern society. These new challenges could prompt modernization and improvement of traditionally marginalized adult education in prisons. In the "behind the bars" community, characterized by constant conflict risk and general uncertainty, it is necessary to find a way out. Education, work and free time activities can be solution and, for great part of prison population, far better choice than repression in establishing meaningful and peaceful life. Underestimation of all kinds of prisoners' treatment other than repression, which can "break" an offender, should be behind us.

Individual projects, irrespectively who finances and organizes them or how effective they might be, cannot replace the role of the state. Only the state can guarantee that the positive experience of prison education and training as well as the advanced training of prison staff will be continued and improved.

At this point it should be emphasized that not only the prison staff but also the relevant ministries (of Justice, Finance, Education and Science) bear the responsibility for the failure of prison treatment.

Conclusion

In other to achieve successful resocialization of prisoners and to reduce recidivism, inmate treatment programs must include educated and skilled professionals willing to improve their own skills and knowledge throughout entire professional life-time and devoted to work in specific environment of penal institutions with even more specific categories of people: prisoners convicted of the most serious crimes, psychopaths, drug-addicts, etc. Another challenge to prison education is to reconcile the needs and concerns of the prison staff, and particularly of those employed in the services for training and employment, with the needs and interests of the prisoners.

The results of the short-term project conducted during the past two years in three Serbian prisons (Požarevac, Sremska Mitrovica and Niš), even though a small number of staff and inmates were involved, are encouraging and stimulating for further efforts. Inmates' voluntary participation and strong motivation confirm the usefulness of the prison education and training. In addition inmates' positive attitude toward the education is a huge potential which can ***deter them from committing future crime,*** stimulate their further education and, consequently, help them to find a job. For all these reasons, it is necessary to support current prison education programs, the teachers, who with only basic and insufficient knowledge of andragogy managed to train the first learners, and, last but not least, the prisoners. Prison education is a complex task which demands further trainings of teachers and profound adjustments of educational programs to the needs of society and convicted persons and above all more enthusiasm and commitment of relevant authorities. Once again, it should be stressed that prison staff engaged in services for training and employment, besides further specialized trainings in their own branches, are faced with additional challenges (of psychological, social, adult-education and didactic nature).

There are many obstacles to prison education and many reasons for the failure of institutional treatment (personal characteristics of the prisoners, lack of competence and motivation of the staff, the prison environment with all the deprivations it produces, inmates' lack of motivation and /or understanding of treatment as an additional punishment, inadequate programs, stigmatization, etc). Although education and training are no guarantee that the prisoner will not commit a crime again, they are a good platform for changing inmate's attitudes and developing skills which can improve his professional perspectives. Meeting the challenges of contemporary prison education, regarding the motivated learners at least, pre-

sumes more intensive communication between these institutions and the society the world and planned preparation for the life outside prison. Education and work are indispensable parts of the penal treatment and they require steady and permanents investment and commitment rather than occasional and symbolic attention.

Bibliography

Braggins, J., Talbot, J. (2005). *Wings of Learning: the role of the prison officer in supporting prisoner education.* The Centre for Crime and Justice Studies.

Retrieved from http://www.crimeandjustice.org.uk/sites/crimeandjustice.org.uk/files/wings-of-learning.pdf

Blake, H., Sackett, D., (1975). *Curriculum of Improving Communication Skills: A Language Arts Handbook for Use in Corrections.*

Bracken, C. (2011). *Bars to Learning*: **Practical Challenges** to the '**Working Prison**'. CIVITAS: Institute for the **Study** of Civil Society.

Retrieved from http://www.civitas.org.uk/crime/barstolearning.pdf

Cecil, D., Drapkin, D. A., MacKenzie, D. L. & Hickman, L. J. (2000). The Effectiveness of Adult Basic Education and Life-Skills Programs in Reducing Recidivism: A Review and Assessment of the Research. *Journal of Correctional Education, 51*(2), 207–226.

Foley, R.M., Gao, J. (2004). Correctional Education: Characteristics of Academic Programs Serving Incarcerated Adults, *Journal of Correctional Education*, Vol. 55, No. 1, pp. 6–21.

GHK, (2012). *Survey on Prison Education and Training in Europe – Final Report.* Retrieved from http://ec.europa.eu/education/adult/doc/survey/survey_en.pdf

GHK, (2013). *Prison Education and Training In Europe: Current State-Of-Play And Challenges.*

Retrieved from http://ec.europa.eu/education/more-information/doc/prison_en.pdf

Izveštaj o radu Uprave za izvršenje krivičnih sankcija za 2011, (2011). [2011 Annual Report on Prison Administration Operations]

Retrieved from: http://www.uiks.mpravde.gov.rs/cr/articles/izvestaji-i-statistika/

Izveštaj o radu Uprave za izvršenje krivičnih sankcija za 2012, (2012). [2012 Annual Report on Prison Administration Operations]

Retrieved from: http://www.uiks.mpravde.gov.rs/cr/articles/izvestaji-i-statistika/

Knežić, B., (2001). *Obrazovanje i resocijalizacija – metode merenja* [*Education and resocialization – the assesment methods*] Beograd, Zavod za udžbenike i nastavna sredstva.

Knežić, B., Savić, M. (2012). Obrazovanje iza rešetaka. U Kron, L. (ur.) *Delikt, kazna i mogućnosti socijalne profilakse* [Education behind the bars – *Offense, penalty and possibility of social prevention*]. Institut za kriminološka i sociološka istraživanja, Beograd, str. 179–193.

Knežić, B., Savić, M. (2013). Obrazovanje u zatvoru: od prava do realizacije [Prison education: from rights to implementation] *Andragoške studije*, br.1, str. 99–116.

Kuzminović, I., Palibrk, Lj. (2012). Praćenje reforme zatvorskog sistema u Srbiji – S*tanje ljudskih prava u zatvorima*. Helsinški odbor za ljudska prava u Srbiji.

Retrieved from:

http://www.helsinki.org.rs/serbian/doc/zatvori%20-%20mart%202012%20-%202.pdf

MacKenzie, D. L. (2006). *What Works in Corrections: Reducing the Criminal Activities of Offenders and Delinquents*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Munoz, V. (2009). *The right to education of persons in detention*. New York: UN Human Rights Council.

Retrieved from: http://www2.ohchr.org/english/bodies/hrcouncil/docs/11session/A.HRC.11.8_en.pdf

Nikolić-Ristanović, V., (2000). *Od žrtve do zatvorenice-nasilje u porodici i kriminalitet žena* [*From victim to female prisoner – domestic violence and female criminality*], Beograd, Viktimološko društvo Srbije i Institut za kriminološka i sociološka istraživanja.

Sisk, S., Juhász, A. & Damianos, P. (2010). The prison as a positive environment for learning: Regime issues, role of governors, prison officers supportive of learning. Report submitted at the European Conference on Prison Education "*Pathways to inclusion – Strengthening European Cooperation in Prison Education*

and Training", Budapest, Hungary.

Retrieved from http://ec.europa.eu/education/grundtvig/doc/conf11/a7report.pdf

Stevanović, Z., (2010). Zatvorski sistem i tretman osuđenih lica u Srbiji [Incarceration system and inmate treatment in Serbia], doktorska disertacija, Fakultet za specijalnu edukaciju i rehabilitaciju Univerziteta u Beogradu.

Sykes M. G. (1958). *The Society of Captives: A Study of a Maximum Security Prison*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Steurer, S. J. & Smith, L.G. (2003). Education Reduces Crime: Three-State Recidivism Study Executive Summary. *Correctional Education Association.*

Retrieved from: www.ceanational.org/PDFs/EdReducesCrime.pdf

Vacca, J. M. (2004). Educated Prisoners Are Less Likely To Return to Prison. *The Journal of Correctional Education*, *55*(4), pp. 297–305.

Walmsley, R. (2012). *World Prison Population List (9 edition).* London: ICPS.

Wilson, D., Reuss, A. (2000). *Prisoner Education: Tales from the Field*, London: Waterside Press.

Edisa Kecap[*]

Employee Education and the Prevention of Work-Related Stress[1]

The aim of this paper is to point out the importance of employees' stress prevention, which is considered to be the main obstacle in their successful working. Besides employees, we find it important to emphasize the role of the people who are in charge of the organization and their understanding of the process priority. Given the fact that these are the people responsible for leading, planning and organizing work in an organization, who keep it standing, create its culture, contribute making an atmosphere at a workplace, we consider them the most responsible for inducing work-related stress. We will present some of the numerous causes of stress at a workplace, as well as the most important symptoms of stress which affects employed people. Also, we will indicate the consequences that this psychophysical phenomenon has on both the employed and the organization they work at. Finally, since we approach this stress prevention from an andragogical point of view, we will show the educational preventive precautions of stress at work. Besides medical and psychological stress problem research, we deem andragogical aspect very important.

Key words: employee education, prevention,work-related stress.

---

*   University of Belgrade, Faculty of Philosophy, Belgrade, Serbia

Introduction

The research topic we have decided to deal with is a current one, since dramatic changes in the nature and demands of jobs have happened and are still happening. As a result of technological and technical development in certain work spheres, the way of working changes day after day, becoming conducive to stress occurrence. Also, due to the economic crisis, the pressure also lies in the fight for jobs, competition is ruthless, the number of temporary jobs has been increasing, and the employed have been forced to look for another job besides the "main" one. An occasional temporary job, among other things, leads to the increasing psychological pressure and fear. Reorganizations in work establishments are a common thing, which causes a fear of being fired. Inventions such as laptops and mobile phones have brought versatile commodities both in personal and professional life of almost every individual; however at the same time imposing a situation in which work becomes a preoccupation which is present seven days a week, in every aspect of life. Therefore, the increasing interest in the research of stress problems at employed people is not surprising, since this phenomenon has become widespread and become one of the main preoccupations of work organizations across the world, taking into account the consequences this phenomenon has on them and their business, including the fact that it has been declared the disease of the 21st century.

Challenge is an important ingredient for a healthy and productive work and it is often said that a little bit of stress can have a positive influence as a driving force in our professional and private lives. The pressure can keep the employees cautious, increase their motivation, make them learn, but this to a great extent depends on the available means, and also on the personal characteristics of the employees. However, a problem occurs when this condition exceeds and turns into a state which interferes with normal functioning at work and their entire lives. Stress can seriously damage employees' health, but also decrease considerably their efficacy at a workplace. The great interest in exploring this contemporary phenomenon is becoming clear now, as well as the fact that employers and company-owners benefit from its prevention, alongside with the employees whose lives that are personally affected by this "contemporary work disease". Studying relevant literature, we have noticed that most authors consider stress at workplace harmful for both sides. However, some authors (Casserley and Megginsom, 2009) state that stress at workplace can be an ideal and unique opportunity for learning.

So far, the problem of employees' stress has been studied from medical and psychological point of view. However, the studying of it is also necessary from an andragogical point of view, considering the fact that successful measures of preventing stress are mostly educational. We will try to summarize some of the causes of stress at workplace as well as the resulting consequences. We will also mention some of the symptoms in order to emphasize the importance of studying this problem; however we will not go further into detail about the development and phases of symptoms. Finally, to support the claim that andragogy has the full right to study this ongoing phenomenon, we will present some educational measures which could be taken to prevent employees' stress.

Some causes of stress and its potential consequences on employees

The causes of stress with employees are versatile. Depending on what the cause actually is and how an employee reacts to it, as a result we have numerous symptoms and behavioral patterns. However, it is often the case that no special attention is given to stress symptoms, which leads to neglecting, even though their development can have serious consequences.

World Healt Organization– WHO (Leka S. et al., 2004, p.3),emphasize that "work-related stress is the response people may have when presented with work demands and pressures that are not matched to their knowledge and abilities and which challenge their ability to cope..." (Ibidem). Stress occurs in various work situations, but it usually aggravates when employees feel they have very little or no support at all from their superiors or colleagues; when they have very little control over work or the way to cope with work demands and pressure. Some of the causes of work-related stress can be a monotonous, depressive work environment, insignificant or unpleasant work tasks; a pace of working where employees have too many or not enough work tasks, or when they work under strong time pressure.

Another suitable causes of stress stated by the abovementioned World Health Organization (Leka S. et al., 2004, p.7) are the strictly determined and unpredictableworking hours, inflexible timetable. Work-related stress can develop as a result of the increased superiors' or colleagues' control, when an employee does not participate in decision-making process, but also as a consequence of the lack of employees' control over the method of working. The process of career development, reaching certain position or salary rate can also be some causes of stress. There is also job instability, vague role or work with people, work in helping professions and the like. Work-related stress can also occur if an employee is under qualified or overqualified for certain position. the trigger can be interpersonal re-

lationships at work, both with colleagues and superiors; isolated work, as well as harassment or violence. Some research (Mikkelsen & Einarsen according to: Čizmić & Vukelić, 2010, p.69) show that 76% of workplace harassment victims manifest moderate to severe symptoms of posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD). Hence, we will devote our attention to another current and intractable stress problem. Namely, it is the so-called "mobbing" which represents the term for workplace harassment. Many authors (Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2001; Saunders and al. 2007; Leymann, 1992; Einarsen, 2000; Jimenez and al. 2008, according to: Čizmić & Vukelić, 2010,p.64) state that paralleled with this term, other terms are used, such as bullying, psychological terror, harassment, workplace trauma, employee abuse, petty tyranny and even victimization.

One of the most important causes of work-related stress is an organizational culture, incompetent leadership, vague organizational structure as well as the aims of an organization. Furthermore, a very common stress cause, stated by the WHO, are conflict demands related to work and home, that is – a lack of support at work for personal problems, as well as the lack of support at home (Leka S. et al., 2004,p.7). Ljiljana Grujić (2011) adds that one of the causes of burnout symptoms is the lack of giving recognition to workers for successfully done job in the manner of appraisal, reward or certain benefits.

One in the row of phenomena which have appeared along with the changes in the business world is also the *presenteeism*, which Fineman (2003,p.143) explains as a fear of being unemployed that creates the feeling of necessity to work as many hours as possible despite stress. This author explains that employees around Europe have experienced uncertainty and instability of work, which is why the occurrence of this phenomenon is not a surprise, when employees live under constant fear of losing their jobs. However, this author speaks about a wider social context which contributed to development, sustainability and intensity of employees' stress condition. The way of dealing with this condition is completely individual. Every individual, in this case employee, possesses their own more or less successful mechanisms for coping with this situation and difficult circumstances of losing a job. However, the primary responsibility for this is not on employees, nor organizations to that extent, but on "managers, employers, unions and governments" (Ibidem).

Work-related stress is not always of the same intensity or duration, just as neither causes nor symptoms are the same for every individual. Many organizations negate their existence, or consider it a part of job and do not assign it too much importance. On the other hand, negating this problem, leaders of organizations unaware of the importance of prevent-

ing this problem, come into the situation to "treat" their employees or face fluctuations, so they have to take in additional workforce to recruit the newcomers, but also those who would train them. Therefore, many profit-oriented employers cannot see that applying preventive educational measures actually saves their money, which would otherwise be spent on additional selection, business trainings, additional trainings or potential errors of the new employees. In both cases, in order to prevent as well as to "treat" stress consequences,education is the best solution, the only difference lies in the intensity, duration, content and the fact that it happens in different circumstances.Welch (According to: Alibabić, 2008)considers that "a successful leader should ensure that employees "live and breathe" with a organization's, to improve their team by training it and building the confidence of the team members(Ibidem, p.253).

It is useful to have in mind that work-related stress phenomenon is of primarily developmental character, which means it goes from mild to more severe forms and phases of development. In cases when symptoms are constantly neglected, when these symptoms reach the stadium of a syndrome, we talk about the final point caused by stress – the burnout syndrome. Casserley & Megginson (2009) define burnout as a "condition of extreme exhaustion which occurs, regardless of the culture, in highly demanding work environment among the young, career-oriented employees who become overburdened by extended work pressure and lose the ability to come with it". However, we consider that this syndrome does not only affect young, ambitious and highly motivated employees, but to a great extent the elderly ones as well, who face the change of working methods and the necessity to adjust to new demands of their workplace, the competition they see in younger colleagues who already possess new techniques and skills needed for the work market.

We will not further deal with stress symptoms in this study, leaving them to be one of the ideas for future research, but we will mention some of them. These entail various psychological disorders, when employees become more and more anxious and irritated, incapable of relaxing and focusing, have difficulties with logical thinking and decision making, enjoy their work less and they are less devoted to it; they feel exhaustion, depression, declining morality, anxiety; they also have difficulties to sleep; often they have a physical, that is, a health problem such as: headache, heart diseases, digestive tract disorders, high blood pressure (Leka S. et al., 2004, p.8). Besides the abovementioned, immune system disorder or even tumors might appear. Also, serious work-related injuries can occur. The ultimate and most important moments which some workers face are

suicide or a Japanese widespread phenomenon called *"karoushy"*, sudden death because of the overworking (Fineman, 2003,p.142).

Some consequences can disturb professional and private life of employees, lead to serious physical and psychological diseases or losing a job, serious work-related injuries or death. We will not go into further detail about the individual stadiums of stress development, but we will try to present some of the measures taken in organizations in order to prevent or decrease employees' stress.

Potential educational measures for preventing work-related stress

Work-related stress has become inevitable. Given the fact that there are early warning signs, managers and employers could anticipate and decrease the negative effects if they were trained to recognize them in the appropriate manner. They create the conditions and ways of working, communication, interpersonal relations, advancement, satisfaction with work and the opportunities given to an employee. However, here we can pose a question such as why the leaders would be interested in workers' stress prevention. We think that when workers are under stress, this directly or indirectly affects the way of organizational running, the quality of products or services, and, finally, the profit of that organization. Caserley and Megginson (2009,p.192) think that burnout represents an important financial and reputational risk, and threatens the management continuity, which again proves the importance of prevention of work-related stress. Also, the image that the employees and the market have about the organization could be changed.

In the long run, we deem prevention a much more successful and healthier way of work-related stress healing. If stress already occurs at work, serious work-related injuries might happen, more mistakes are made, and misunderstandings are more common, task-solving is slower; there is a danger of potential diseases, losing a job, fluctuations and many other consequences. One of the ways to avoid this is the work-related stress risk estimation, which can be done by applying Risk management cycle (Leka S. et al., 2004) that comprises: the analysis of the current situation and its risk estimation, action plan design to reduce the risk, implementation of action plan and its evaluation, then studying and further actions based on the evaluation results. After this, risk estimation is done again, and the cycle could be repeated several times. We deem this cycle

an ideal way of monitoring the conditions in an organization, timely actions and removing all potential or already existing risks.

In order to reduce the work-related stress to a minimum, the WHO (Ibidem) states three types of prevention:

- *Primary prevention –which reduces stress through:* ergonomy, work environment design, organizational and management development
- *Secondary prevention* – which reduces stress through: education of self and other employees
- *Tertiary prevention* – which reduces stress through: development of more sensitive management system and by an improvedhealth care provision (Ibidem,p.15).

The role of adult education is especially emphasized here as a measure of work-related stress prevention. We think that a contemporary stress management should comprise all three preventions. In this case it is a success to manage work in a way to avoid joint risk factors and prevent as many problems as it is possible to predict.

The role of adult education in stress prevention we can see also through the specific measures which this Organization (Ibidem) suggests. We agree that a well-designed job should comprise of: a clear organizational structure and practice, adequate selection, staff training and development where all the skills and knowledge of an employee should match the job requirements. Also, the candidates for every job should be evaluated in relation to the job demands. Where it is necessary, an adequate training, monitoring and guidance should be provided. Furthermore, job descriptions should be clear to both the employees and superiors who have to be sure that the requirements are appropriate, because the more the employees understand their job, the more they will be able to put in a lot of effort to do it well. In that way, they won't find themselves in a situation in which they do a job which is not in their job description, and this would help to avoid the potential stress source for overburdening.

The best way for superiors to "hear" what it is that causes stress is to openly ask employees, talk to them. We are convinced that many employers certainly do so. However, the real question is whether the employers create such an atmosphere at work and build a trustworthy relationship among colleagues, making them feel free to answer this question honestly. In order for the superiors to have an understanding of how these factors function, they have to take on a certain level of control in order to monitor on the situation development and intervene when necessary. Here emerges a question – how to exercise control uncontrolled? Sengi (2003)

finds that workers learn the quickest when they have a genuine sense of responsibility; that helplessness and belief we cannot influence the circumstances, decreases learning initiative, "as well as the belief that someone else dictates us what to do" (Ibidem,p.286). On the other hand, if we know that "our destiny in in our hands", learning becomes very important.

Analyzing relevant literature, we have come across a manual of the International Labour Organization in Geneva (International Labour Office, 2012) under the name of "Stress prevention at work checkpoints: Practical improvements for stress prevention in the workplace". We consider it appropriate to represent some of the educational measures in this way in order to solve the matter of work-related stress. Its aim is to improve the working conditions and prevent stress at a workplace in many countries across the world. There are 50 points in the manual which can be implemented, which are based on the experts' experience. The list of 20 to 30 questions is also appropriate, in which every question contains the points relevant to a certain place or a situation. Within every point there are concrete suggested measures for workers stress prevention.

The areas covered by these questions that the workers need to answer and which are used for stress prevention in this manual, are the following:

- *Leadership and justiceat work*. The aim of dealing with this topic is "establishing the policy and strategy for decent working, establishing the procedures which will forbid discrimination, encouraging informal communication between superiors and subordinates, the privacy protection and quick problem solving at workplace".

- *Job demands.* The demands of work should be divided and balanced among workers. Exaggerated workplace demands must be avoided, and inappropriate time pressure due to short deadlines should be prevented. Practical measures which can be taken are: "adjustment of the total workload, prevention of exceeding demands per worker, planning realistic deadlines, clear definition of tasks and responsibilities";

- *Job control.* "When employees can control the amount of work they will do, they will enjoy working and be more productive". Work becomes more stressful when the employees do not have any influence on the pace and methods of working; therefore their involving in the decision-making process is of great importance in preventing stress. Giving employees bigger control over their work contributes to the increasing of their motivation, quality of work and, at the same time, stress declining. So, effective measures entail: "involving employees in making decisions about work organization, the increase of employees; involvement and control over

their work, organizing work in a way that new skills and knowledge constantly develop, encouraging participation in improving work, organizing meetings often in order to discuss problems at the workplace".

- *Social support,* whether formal or informal, is another key element in the prevention of stress. Employers', supervisors' and colleagues' support is of great importance for the workers, because it contributes to the easier coping with pressure at workplace. Especially useful are the types of support such as: "close relationship with the management, helping out among the colleagues, using external sources of help, organizing social events, giving direct help when necessary";

- *Physical environment* should be safe, healthy and comfortable. In order for a physical environment to be adequate for stress prevention, it is necessary to: "establish clear procedures for risk assessment and control, provide comfortable working environment, eliminate or decrease the dangers at their source, provide clean and refreshing facility for rest, determine emergency procedures and plans to cope with them";

- *Work-life balance and working time.* Common source of stress at work is the misbalance due to the inadequate working hours and, consequently, distorted relation of private and professional life. Especially problematic aspects of this problem are extended working hours, inadequate shifts, or when holidays and breaks are not adequately or at all provided. Practical measures for solving this misbalance are: "involving workers into planning of working hours, managing the needs of work and the workers, avoiding working overtime, alleviation in completing family errands, determining breaks and time for rest";

- *Recognition at work.* We have already stated that missing to give recognition, appraisal or other types of encouragement is conducive to stress. Practical measures which can be taken are: "appraisals for good work from colleagues, systematic informing of employees about the results of their work, the implementation of the system for employees to express their opinion, gender equality, giving opportunities for career advancement";

- *Protection from offensive behavior.* Violence, threats, mobbing and sexual harassment at workplace are very common in organizations with serious consequences for victims. Successful measures of sanctioning this kind of behavior are: "determination of organizational frame related to aggressive behavior, organization of train-

ings and raising awareness, determining procedures and models of working, giving faster intervention in order to help those who are involved, organizing workplace so that it gives protection to employees from aggressive behavior";

- *Job security.* An important factor which contributes to the occurrence, sustainability and increasing of stress at work is the job instability. In order to solve this problem, it is recommendable to take measures such as: "increasing opportunities for stable employment, clear data about the conditions of employment, regular salaries and benefits, securing maternity leave, protection of workers' rights and their representatives";

- *Information and communication.* One of the main stress causes is the lack of information and inadequate communication among the employees. Open communication can be secured in the following ways: " going to a workplace and talking with employees, informing them about important decisions, reporting to top management about the opinions of employees, giving employees any plans which lead to change".(Ibidem).

Besides everything stated above, we consider that a *healthy work environment* is a prerequisite for successful stress prevention. It is the environment in which health and its promotion represent an inherent part of the professional and working life. However, when we talk about a healthy working environment, we do not only talk about materialistic amenities, food and the like. First of all, by this we mean healthy interpersonal relationships, positive attitude towards work and colleagues and a manner of communication among the employees, as well as, between subordinates and superiors. The key question is – in which way the employers can provide a healthy workplace? We think the best way is to raise awareness, to inform, constantly inquire about workers' needs and based on the result, organize educational activities, whether about teamwork, conflict solving, assertive communication or any kind of specialization that will provide a healthy working environment for the employees. That can also be professional trainings which will help the employees to feel confident about their skills and capable of completing everyday work tasks, but also to manage in uncertain and surprising situations and problems.

Also, for keeping a healthy working environment, the lack of mobbing is very important. This is one of the burning world problems which is hard to prove, but the efforts have been made that this problem be solved in a legislative way – creating mechanisms to sanction this kind of behavior. Not so rarely is this kind of behavior encouraged, or silently sup-

ported by non-sanctioning or ignoring both by colleagues or superiors. This contributes to mobbing sustainability, whether for reasons of avoiding conflicts with superiors or for fear of consequences, so mechanisms of imitating the acts of "bullies" become common. On the other hand, the question why victims do not react and report this problem emerges. We suppose that there is a common belief that no changes would happen in case of reaction, other than bigger possibility of getting fired, so employees are forced to endure that kind of behavior for existential and financial reasons. If this kind of treatment is present in an organization, it means that the organizational culture does not deal with sanctioning this kind of violating human dignity, but the opposite – it encourages it.

One of the more reliable ways of preventing mobbing are the interventions which are related to the creation of organizational culture and the atmosphere which is in accordance with human and workers' rights, such as: "creating of realistic job descriptions and their optimal design, development of leadership and other interpersonal competencies through counseling and trainings in organizations" (Čizmić & Vučelić, 2010,p.72). Besides everything that has been mentioned, we would add the necessity of informing about mobbing, kinds if mobbing and ways of protection, ways of informing about laws and ways of sanctioning this kind of inhumane and unprofessional behaviour at workplace.

In order to prevent or solve these problems there is an ongoing process of adopting and implementing a law and duties that employers must obey. However, it seems that in many cases it is hard, perhaps even impossible to prove bullying, especially psychological one, which an employer can conduct on an employee or it can occur among the employees of the same rank. Fineman (2003,pp.137–138) gives an example in which a social worker sued his employer, Northumberland District Council, because they failed to prevent the stress which caused him a mental breakdown. In the year of 2000, he was paid with a sum of 200.000 $ as a compensation for the stresss caused by work. These examples raise awareness about the existence of this problem and influence positively on decreasing mobbing, encouraging caution in organizations, so that these examples would not repeat.

We have pointed out many preventive measures for work-related stress. One of them, among others, is the training. However, it is not enough to just organize a training. Many organizations arrange trainings because it is trendy to do so in that moment, or because their competition organizes it. It is good if managers are aware whether trainings are necessary or not, but.."...training which is directed wrong, or is not in accordance with the needs of an individual or an organization can be worse

that no training at all" (Arnold et al. According to: Pejatović & Pekeč, 2011,p.181). Realizing trainings without examining the needs can be wasting of precious time an dinvesting in specialixations with the employees do not really need or is not the priority, which is well described by the following sentence: „Actually, without an insight into needs for organizing trainings, into the realization process, workers advancement and especially the effects of training, we do not know what we do by such training, that is – what it is that we do and it is much less clear what we will do further" (Pejatović & Pekeč, 2011,p.185).Therefore, not every training is good and desirable. It is necessary that employers and superiors understand the importance, plans, organizes, realizes, evaluates the trainings and in that way estimate the necessity for further trainings or other ways of professional and personal development of employees which are of really crucial importance for every organization.

Final remarks

Our intention was to use this paper for showing that the stress problems are possible to research, apart from medical and psychological point of view, from an andtagogical point of view as well. Analysing relevant literature, we have found evidence for such claim, since the measures for work-related stress prevention to a great extent are educational.

We have presented some samples relevant for the stress occurence at workplace and came to the conclusion that the majority of causes can be eliminated by adequate educational interventions, whether the cause is interpersonal relations, work design, uncoordinated capabilities of an employee and workplace demands, mobbing or something else. Also, we have drawn attention that certain symptoms occur, which can develop over time and turn into the "burnout" syndrome. However, we didin't go into detail about the development and stadiums of symptoms which we leave as an idea for some future research.

Also, we have pointed out that there are solid reasons for exploring this phenomenon, because besides the fact that employees are affected by it, the organization is also threatened, because the employees are a part of it and (in)directly influence its development or stagnation. However, this theoretical research was done with the aim of exploring the problem of work-related stress prevention, but we emphasized that employees' condition depends mostly on organizational culture and the atmosphere their managers create. So, it is rather interesting to research the way that aspect influences the occurrence or prevention of stress. Also, given the fact that

leaders are those who bear the greatest responsibility, a suggestion for further research could also be the prevention of leaders' or managers' stress.

We have reached a conclusion that research of the needs is very important, so that prevention is adequate. We mentioned that training is one of the common ways of specializing employees. Also, we would like to point out that training and general ways of specialization we can observe in two ways: as a measure for prevention and as a measure for treating stress. Furthermore, analyzing risks for stress occurrence at workplace has turned out to be a successful measure.

The key intention of this study was the finding and representing educational measures used for preventing stress in employees. We have found numerous educational measure for stress prevention at workplace where, among other things, are measuring satisfaction of employees with their jobs, constant development of organizational culture, creating studying organization, realization of trainings for stress management, for teamwork, conflict-solving, communication and the like, in order to decrease the risk of negative interpersonal relationships; employing "right" people on "right positions"; detailed and transparent job description; clear definition of responsibilities so to avoid a situation in which employees perform tasks they are not in charge of or trained for; establishing clear rules of working; consistent law implementation; informing about workers' rights, about ways of claiming those rights; providing support; appraisals. Therefore, we have given some practical advice and steps which directly lead to stress prevention at a workplace and help the staff to discover the potential risks and, consequently, act preventively.

Our opinion is that solving the stress problem through educational interventions and measures has become an imperative of contemporary society and that it is the only way of raising awareness and information about the "traps" of seemingly harmless symptoms, as well as the establishment of positive and healthy corporative culture and atmosphere.

References

Alibabić, Š. (2008). Razvijanje liderskih kompetencija. *Andragoške studije*, No. 2. Beograd: Institut za pedagogiju i andragogiju Filozofskog fakulteta, 250–264.

Casserley, T., Megginsom, D. (2009). *Learning from burnout*: Developing sustainable leaders and avoiding career derailment. UK: Elsevier.

Čizmić, S., Vukelić, M. (2010). Maltretiranje na radnom mestu – pogled na novu perspektivu. In Despotović, M., Popović, K. (Eds.),*Andragoške studije*, No.1. Beograd: Institut za pedagogiju i andragogiju Filozofskog fakulteta, 61–76

Fineman, S. (2003). *Understanding Emotion at Work*. London: SAGE Publications

Grujić, Lj. (2011). Profesionalno sagorevanje nastavnika. *Pedagogija*, 66 (2). Beograd: Forum pedagoga Srbije i Crne Gore, 215–223

International Labour Office (2012). *Stress prevention at work chackpoints*: Practical improvements for stress prevention in the workplace. Geneva: International Labour Office

Leka S. et al. (2004). Work organisation and stress. *Protecting workers' health series*, No. 3. Geneva: World Health Organization

Pejatović, A., Pekeč, K. (2011). Evaluacija u sistemu kvaliteta stručnih obuka za odrasle. In Kačavenda-Radić, N., Pavlović-Breneselović, D., Antonijević, R. (Eds.). *Kvalitet u obrazovanju*. Beograd: Filozofski fakultet Univerziteta u Beogradu, Institut za pedagogiju i andragogiju, 173–187

Sengi, P. M. (2003). *Peta desciplina – umeće i praksa organizacije koja uči*, Adizes MC, Novi Sad

Aleksandar Bulajic[*]

Development of Verbal Short-Term Memory From a Perspective of Baddeley's and Hitch's Working Memory Model: Possible Implications for Learning and Education

Few of the concepts in cognitive science and psychology have inspired so many fruitful studies as was the case of the working memory model construct of Baddeley and Hitch (1974). However, previous research did not offer clear evidence and enough understanding of what are the origins of the increase in verbal short-term and working memory capacity during development. It seems that working memory changes its structure significantly during development. Besides review of some up-to-date relevant research, two hypothetical perspectives have been offered in order to shed more light on possible solutions to this issue. One perspective focuses on basic mechanism and simple memory strategies known to be part of working memory functioning of healthy adults. The second deals with more complex metamemory strategies in an

[*] University of Belgrade, Faculty of Philosophy, Belgrade, Serbia

effort to explain their influence in the increase of "operational capacity" of working memory during maturation.

Key terms: verbal short-term memory, working memory, memory capacity, development, learning.

Introduction

Since it was conceptualized by Baddely and Hitch (1974), the model of working memory (WM), also known as *the modal model*, became one of the most crucial and used constructs in cognitive psychology, and had numerous applications in related fields from medical science to education. As it develops early in childhood, understanding the nature and ways of such development is one of the central aspects in understanding how we learn.

Having Baddeley's and Hitch's model of working memory in mind, it can be argued that the development of STM is characterized by multi-level unevenness manifested in the uneven pace of the development of the different components of working memory; and in unevenness in the development of the levels of interaction between various domains of short-term memory, as well as their differentiation, during a chronological line of maturation. In this paper, the notion of short term memory is understood as a domain within working memory. More precisely, the notion corresponds to two sub-systems or components of working memory: the phonological loop and the visuo-spatial sketchpad.

The main intention of the reflections of both recent and classical studies of the matter encompassed by this paper is to contribute to the further understanding of the practical usefulness and application validity of the modal model on the one hand, while on the other try to shed more light on existing controversies and open issues emerging from said application efforts. These issues seem to be even more significant in light of the fact that this model is construed on the basis of research conducted upon adult participants. In other words, the model describes the structure and functioning of working memory in an ideal situation, as present in healthy adult individuals with a fully developed and efficient cognitive apparatus. At the same time, as most models do, it ignores individual differences which, it can be assumed, are subject to higher variability during the developmental phases in childhood and adolescence as compared to adulthood.

The structure and functions of working memory

The modal model is structured by several components, among which *the central executive* (CE) represents the basis of the system. This construct is responsible for a series of mental activities such as: attention focusing; redirecting attention during the execution of several relatively synchronized tasks; coordination of other model components; retention of the material in the model sub-components; storage and retention of material temporarily activated from long-term memory; attention-based regulation of mutually conflicted activities by an intervention of *the supervisory attentional system*, as described by Norman and Schallice (1986), as a concept that is complementary to the system of automated attention control based on habits, etc, (Gathercole et al., 2004; Baddeley, Eysenc & Anderson, 2009).

In the last two decades, a significant amount of evidence on the reliability of a basic multi-component model of working memory came from neuroimaging (fMRI) and neuropsychological studies. Lateralization of certain WM functions pointed to different regions localized in the frontal, prefrontal, and to some extent, parietal lobes.

In contrast to the central executive, which is a construct that refers to a large number of cognitive functions, two WM subsystems, *the phonological loop* (PL) and *the visuo-spatial sketchpad* (VSS), are characterized by highly specialized functions. Structural and functional composition of the phonological loop can be represented by *the phonological short-term storage* (ph-STS) that is responsible for the storage of phonological and phonologically recoded material, and by articulatory rehearsal mechanism (AR), which renews and maintains phonological traces stored in the ph-STS Figure 1).

The visuo-spatial sketchpad (VSS) is a construct analogous to the phonological loop. It can be described as a component with a function of maintaining visual and spatial qualities of an object for a short period of time. The structure of VSS is somewhat less clear in comparison to the phonological loop one. Previous research did not definitively determine whether VSS is a unique capacity that stores visual and spatial characteristics of objects or if its architecture is actually built of two different but closely linked storages – visual and spatial.

Figure 1 –Image representation of working memory based
on the Baddeley's and Hitch's model (1974)
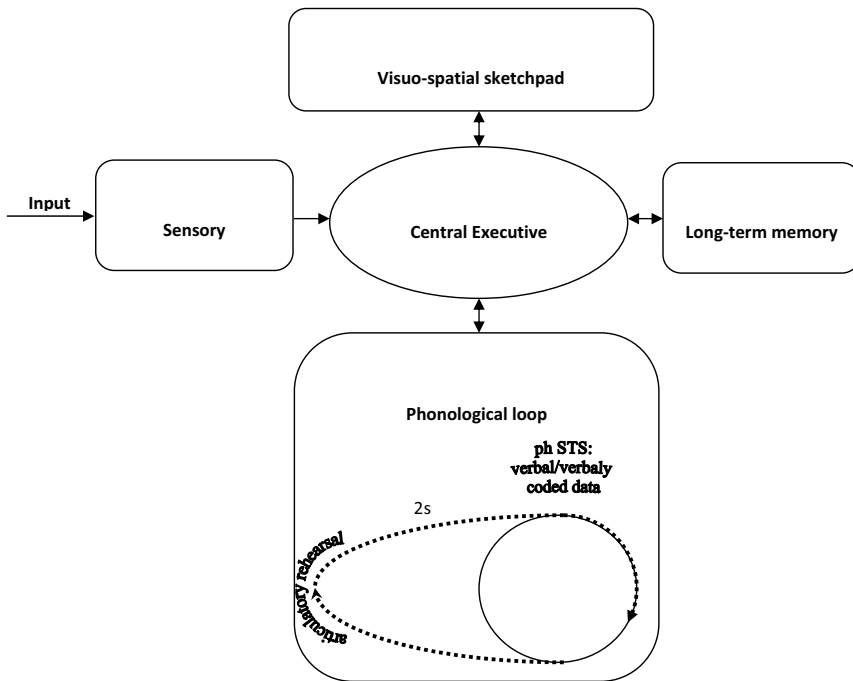
Development of verbal short-term memory

Verbal or phonological short-term memory (the phonological loop in the modal model) is usually measured with tasks of free and serial recall, in which participants are asked to recognize or reproduce sequences of verbal or verbally recodable items immediately after presentation or after a delay of several seconds, in free or in original serial order. Usually, the sequences of stimuli are progressively increased in number until they reach up to eight or ten in a row. Task performance determines a *memory span* often defined through a maximum number of items recalled without an error in one-half of the total attempts.

One of the highly influential studies that set a course for further research of verbal STM is the study of word length effect and the structure of working memory conducted by Baddeley, Thomson and Buchanon in 1975. Research findings confirmed the cognitive validity of the phonological loop structure; but more interestingly, they indicated that the capacity

of verbal STM cannot be determined through number of items or Miller's subjectively meaningful units or chunks (1956), but rather in units of time. The starting hypothesis of the study was that a memory span of long words is less than a span of short words, due to their higher phonological complexity (number of phonemes). However, further investigation that included the recall of words of the same number of phonemes but longer pronunciation time indicated that the length of pronunciation time is the responsible cause of word length effect. Supposedly, the effect takes place due to the mechanism of articulatory rehearsal needing time to refresh the trace of material (words) in ph-STS before it spontaneously decays due to the elapse of time. Short-term verbal memory or the phonological loop can only hold the number of items that is possible for the rehearsal mechanism to renew in a period of 2 seconds (Baddeley et al., 1975) or 1.8 seconds (Schweickert & Boruff, 1986). Items that fail to be renewed in this period of time decay from the ph-STS. This also means that the faster an individual pronounces/subvocalizes the lists of words, the better the performance on recall task.

From previously described studies, two significant conclusion might be drawn. The capacity of the phonological loop is influenced by the time period needed for the storage and renewal of words, as well as by the speed of rehearsal; that is, the speed of pronunciation (Hulme, Thomson, Muir & Lawrence, 1984). A number of studies (Gathercole, 2002) proved that there is constant growth of the verbal STM capacity during the maturation period. One of the most important questions that can be related to this phenomenon is what are the causal factors standing behind that growth? One of the explanations offered pointed out two possible factors: a. Verbal memory span increases during the maturation period due to an increase in the speed of pronunciation as a child masters the language, while the capacity of the storage or "length of the loop" (Hulme et al., 1984) remains constant; and b.

A study by Hulme, Thomson, Muir and Lawrence (1984) confirmed that there is a dependence of memory span on speed of pronunciation (speech rate). The study also showed that a memory span of words increases with years of age (a group of adult participants varied in age from 18 to 22, $M = 19.62$ years); that all age groups manifest significant word length effect (which indicates stable structure of the phonological loop); and that the speed of pronunciation (number of words per second) increases with age.

When it comes to determination of the developmental period in which the mechanism of rehearsal starts to emerge, researches have studied the behavior of children of different ages. Specifically, they looked for

externally manifested signs of rehearsal such are lip movement and whispering during the recall phases of memory span tasks. Using this strategy, Flavell managed to detect rehearsal mechanism by the age of 7. These findings were supported by studies of word length effect, which is also used as an indicator of the existence of the rehearsal mechanism. They also found that the rehearsal mechanism appears by age of 7 (according to Gathercole, 2002).

As word length effect studies brought forth the thesis that pronunciation speed correlates with the speed of articulatory rehearsal mechanism (which is an important factor of verbal STM capacity), it is important to note that these two processes are distinctive from one another in some important aspects. Pronuciation is an external activity, while rehearsal (mechanism) is an internal cognitive process and a component of WM. While it seems that they correspond to one another, how can it be that there is a significant correlation of the speed of pronunciation before age of 7; that is, at the age where no rehearsal mechanism has been found, excluding Hulme's findings from 1984.

If the hypothesis that the rehearsal mechanism does not exist before age of 7 is correct then two phenomena can be taken into consideration as possible causal factors responsible for the correlation between the increase in speech rate and increase of verbal short-term memory span. First, an increase of the speed of verbal coding in the phonological loop; that is, storing the information in ph-STS. Second, the increase of the storage capacity of ph-STS. The increase of the speed of information storage could be related to the speed of articulation, and therefore the problematic correlation could be explained.

In order to conclude the discussion, it can be speculated that the speed of speech in children younger than 7 years is the consequence of development in the increased efficiency of verbal short-term memory; while after this developmental period, a turnover takes place – an increased articulation ability starts to formatively affect verbal STM in the sense that it causes the rehearsal mechanism to emerge, which becomes the constitutive element of verbal STM affecting greater efficiency.

This hypothesis, however, does not answer the question of the increase in the capacity of ph-STS in terms of the amount of material that is possible for it to maintain. It has been stated that the phonological loop increases its efficiency in the sense of the protraction of trace maintainance time, but whether its basic capacity increases during maturation, in terms of the amount of traces it can hold regardless of trace elapse time, is not clear. Possible lines of explanation have come from research that relied not on a working memory paradigm but STM model offered by Atkinson and Shiffrin (1971).

If word length effect served as an indicator of the rehearsal mechanism, then Conrad's discovery of the *phonological similarity effect* was evidence of the existence of a unique domain with the function of storing phonological material (ph-STS). Accordingly, investigation of the phonological similarity effect showed that ph-STS can be verified already during 3rd year (Ford & Silber, 1994). The studies of the effect in earlier periods could not be taken as relevant due to the insufficient linguistic competence of children.

For the time being, there is no significant research dealing with the question of the development of the capacity of ph-STS. One simple methodological approach would be to measure the memory span in conditions of articulatory suppression, which has been proven to prevent activity of the rehearsal mechanism (a participant is asked to pronounce out loud an irrelevant sound at a constant rate while exposed to the presentation of visual but verbally recodable stimuli). This technique represents an example of complex task or working memory task. However, this approach also suffers from several important weaknesses. The first is related to the dynamic nature of WM; specifically to its ability to redistribute material in different resources/domains of the system in order to maximize efficiency in conditions of cognitive load. An alternative approach should vary the cognitive load of executive functions in relation to years of age by a constant linear increase in the processing demands of executive functions. Unfortunately, this approch is not a realistic option for now, as the varying of the cognitive load in relation to age would more or less be arbitrary; that is, the differences in the level of the load could not precisely follow the difference in the increase of the efficiency of executive functions according to age groups or developmental stages.

Mnemonic mechanisms with external origin as potential causal factors of short-term memory development

The findings of several studies (Belmont & Butterfield, 1971; Chi, 1976; Flavell, Beach & Chinsky, 1966), which relied on Atkinsons's and Shiffrin's paradigm, include more or less explicit arguments favouring a thesis that negates the possibility of growth of the "raw" capacity of ph-STS during development and suggesting that it is relatively constant during maturation. Taking the ph-STS ability to hold and maintain material as an indicator of capacity, Belmont & Butterfield (1971) compared the rate of item maintenance between several age groups from 8 to adulthood.

The number of stimuli in the tasks was set to be minus 1 of maximum memory span for each individual, while the time elapsed from the presentation of items (stimuli) phase till the response phase varied (4's, 8's, 12's). Results showed that the number of items recalled decreased with retention time for all age groups. However, it is significant to note that there was no correlation found between the age and the amount of material lost per units of time. So the capacity of ph-STS did not show to be dependent on age, if one accepts the assumption that decreasing memory span for one item cancels the ability of older children and adults to benefit from the advantage of having a more efficient rehearsal mechanism (the length of the phonological loop).

In Atkinson's and Schiffrin's model, rehearsal belongs to the domain of control processes, while it is a relatively autonomous mechanism within the phonological loop component of the modal model that can partially rely on control processes or the central executive. Chi (1976)states that the rehearsal mechanism is most likely under conscious control and analogous to implicit or inner speech (with the approximate speed of 250ms per verbal and 500ms per visual item) that can only take place during the intervals between presentation items.

Several mentioned claims can also be put into question. Although the claims of Chi and other authors argue for capacity invariability of verbal short-term store, that socialisation and learning are determinants of the overall increase and development of verbal STM, seems fairly reliable, their assumptions on conscious control of a rehearsal process (Hasher & Zacks, 1979) that cannot act simultaneously with other cognitive processes, such are perception, coding and storing material, can be problematic for several reasons.

According to interpretations that bring the external origins of the rehearsal mechanism in focus and explain the mechanism in a Vygotskian key, internalized social speech, by internalization, comes to play a crucial role in the emergence and formation of higher mental functions. It seems that the existence of the phonological loop is an example and evidence for such a claim. Rehearsal is an inner support of external origin that allows the increase of material retention in ph-STS to take place. However, it can be mentioned that the researchers may not be correct when claiming that the process is exclusively dependant on conscious attention (if one accepts Sternberg's distinction of conscious and unconscious attention, 2005). It can be speculated that inner speech in the form of rehearsal mechanism continues to develop further, and through learning/practicing goes through several stages of automatization until it reaches a high level of automatization in adulthood. A relatively high level of automatization of the

rehearsal mechanism, it can be assumed, is susceptible to significant individual differences, reflecting its influence in overall capacity of short-term and working memory. As individual WM represents a constant capacity enveloping variations of executive and material maintenance ratio, it is therefore logical to assume that the additional contribution from automatization is its release of additional capacity of executive functions (leaving more space for material maintenance), as well as allowing better efficiency when dealing with complex tasks.

In the light of these interpretations, a part of the growth of short-term and working memory span during development can be unveiled.

Aside from rehearsal mechanisms but closely related to it, the literature often mentions a *naming* strategy. This is the process of naming visual stimuli by which several codes are activated; that is, several components of WM: the visuo-spatial sketchpad, the phonological loop and semantic component of LTM, all of which enhances efficiency of recall. In this way, it is possible to rehearse the visual component of the material along with the subvocal rehearsal.

Grouping (cumulative rehearsing) as well as *recoding* is a process of grouping several stimuli; that is, their representations (items) in subgroups in order to facilitate the rehearsal process. Adults often connect three or four items in one subgroup, while children rarely use this strategy before the second grade of elementary education (Haris & Burke, according to Chi, 1976). Recoding is a strategy used when several items are grouped together in a specific manner. The content of ph-STS is searched by an individual to check whether two or more items linked in a subgroup either by pronounceability or meaningfulness can be represented by one meaningful unit (chunk) in LTM. In that way, several items in STM can be replaced by one representation retrieved from LTM, which consequently releases the additional capacity of ph-STS (Chi, 1976, p. 563). It is important to differentiate this process from *consolidation*, which implies the creation of a new meaningful unit in LTM on the basis of several different items from short-term memory. It can be hypothesized that an individual can achieve making the grouping process demand less conscious effort and move it more toward automatization in full consciousness – automatization continuum – while this cannot be achieved with recoding, due to its complexity and inclusion of reasoning.

From the descriptions presented, several arguments can be abstracted. As previously mentioned, inner speech, as a mechanism of external origin, comes into being through learning and the socialization constitutive element of STM and WM; i.e., articulatory rehearsal mechanism and

naming (according to Baddeley, naming is, in most healthy individuals, an automatic process: Baddeley et al., 1975). Only children from ages 5 to 7 start to have this mechanism at their disposal and depending on the level of its utilisation and/or its level of automatization, an increase in memory span capacity will follow. If accepted that language is a constitutive and formative determinant of the development of higher mental functions, then the following thesis can be made: At a certain point in development, some higher mental functions, such as planning, reasoning and attention control start forming and shaping rehearsal mechanism, which then gets upgraded and interconnected with some other mechanisms (strategies) less susceptible to automatization, such as grouping and recoding. In that way, this interaction has a character of a circular interdependency during development. What was once a metamemory strategy becomes afterwards an inner constitutive element/process of STM, meaning that learning is becoming to have a key role in development of verbal STM after 4 of 5 years of age. The research of Alloway and associates, conducted on a sample of 308 children, show that children with low scores in WM tasks and low school achievement are not familiar with and do not use an array of memory techniques and strategies that may affect STM (Alloway et al., 2009). Although scientifically controversial, for stating that the "capacity" of STM and WM might be increased, these hypotheses have to be interpreted in the light of "if ... then" condition; i.e. the conditionality of such an increase lays within the limits of the developmental period.

On the other hand, if the individual differences between children's high and low results in STM and WM tasks are often explained by differences in knowledge and application of different memory mechanisms and strategies, how come training and instructing low STM and WM children to learn and apply these strategies and techniques does not result in their increased STM and WM capacity? As a matter of fact, it has been found that these kinds of interventions do not lead to transfer and generalization from what is learned in a training situation to situations of learning and behaving in natural, everyday contexts (Alloway et al., 2009). However, some new studies of a type show promising results that may change dominant attitudes about the conserved nature of WM capacity (if capacity is primarily understood in terms of efficiency) in the case of children with diagnosed ***Attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD); and also in case of children with a determined low WM who do not suffer from biological or psychological disorders*** (Holmes, Gathercole, Place, Dunning, Hilton & Elliott, 2010; Elliott, Gathercole, Alloway, Holmes & Kirkwood, 2010).

Metamemory strategies: towards an educational intervention

It is widely accepted that there is enough evidence to support the thesis that there are significant differences between children of different ages regarding the usage of metamemory strategies that influence the effectiveness of STM. It has been found that older children utilise these strategies more often in a more systematic way, in comparison to younger ones. Also, only at a certain developmental stage does an ability to use certain strategies on different material and in different contexts emerge (Schneider & Pressley, 1989).

A study by Salatas Waters and Kunnman (2010) had some significant results with regards to this subject. Although researchers did not use the term "working memory," but rather "cognitive load paradigm," the task used in the experimental situation can be regarded as an WM task. Children attending the first and the third year of elementary education were required to classify a set of visual items in meaningful categories and to recall as many items as possible immediately after their categorization task. There was an easier and more difficult experimental condition/task, depending on the number of images of objects and plants used in the task. As the research found, in the easier experimental condition, children applied metamemory strategies, although it was relatively easy to recall the items without such an application. However, children were not so aware of the purpose and effectiveness of the strategy. In the more difficult experimental condition, it was found that in the behaviour of younger children, there was no significant application of the aforementioned strategies. In an experiment that followed, the same conditions were applied as in previous one, with the exception that researchers were, by preliminary classification of presented items, leading children to become aware of the strategy of organization and memorizing items when classifying the items' images into groups. This time, results indicated that both younger and older children manifested conscious and goal-directed use of the strategy in the easier, as well as in the more difficult, condition.

According to the authors, there can be two significant conclusions drawn from this study's findings. It seems that children tend to apply metamemory strategies only in conditions of low cognitive load (Salatas Waters & Kunnman, 2010). Second, when led to "discover" the strategy and became aware of it, children were able to generalize the strategy and transfer it in a relatively new situation, which again led to a better performance in the recall of items (the difference between results in the more difficult condition in the first and second experiment). The second conclusion can

be criticized as overgeneralization; for though transfer occurred, material in both conditions did not significantly differ. Nevertheless, it was shown that memory effectiveness in children can be achieved though instruction in situations of lower cognitive load and by the creation of expectations for a learned procedure to be applied in more demanding contexts.

The interpretation proposed is to be taken conditionally, for it remains to be determined whether it is valid in relation to other important factors such as: age, range of cognitive load, and type of material. On the other hand, these and similar studies (see Ornstein, Grammer & Coffman, 2010) show the importance of applying educational interventions in the field of strengthening cognitive development and confirm the principle of zone of proximal development (ZPD) that stands behind them.

According to Ornstein, Grammer and Coffman (2010), a number of studies have shown that as children acquire more insight and understanding of memory function, they are more able to monitor the effectiveness of the strategic efforts they use in order to enhance remembering. This kind of knowledge is acquired in the situation of schooling and conscious and intentional learning. Children can be trained to use memory strategies that lead to significant improvements in remembering. Metacognitive language has a crucial role in the development of deliberate and effective strategies of remembering. As Ornstein, et al., argued, it can be expected that teacher-child conversation will have an important role in developing mnemonic skills.

The longitudinal research of children's memory and academic achievement conducted by Ornstein, et al. (2010), showed that teachers' use of "memory-rich" language during lessons leads to a permanent increase in children's remembering and has a profound influence on memory development. As found in the study, memory-rich language occurred when teachers reminded children not to forget to use a certain strategy when solving given tasks, as well as explained the principles and significance of the strategies and encouraged pupils to use them. Pupils of the teachers that used memory-rich language ("high mnemonic teachers") showed significantly better results in object recall tasks in comparison to pupils of "low mnemonic teachers" (p. 23). Pupils were equated in terms of STM capacity beforehand. For example, when solving arithmetic tasks, children were reminded by one teacher how to remember to use a strategy of labelling the number, since it was a big number. The teacher additionally supported her request by mentioning that this strategy is useful and allows the person to deal with numbers no matter how big they are (Ornstein, et al., 2010). This example clearly shows how important the use of language is in developing the strategic use of memory. Understood in

Vygotskian terms, it can be argued that language-based interactions which emphasized the use of mnemonic techniques led to the internalization of such interactions in the form of self-imposed suggestions, which in effect led a to change in behaviour; or, in other words, learning.

On the basis of the study description, it can be argued that the frequent use of verbal instruction by the teacher led, and generally can lead, to a process whereby children internalize instructions that reflect the dialogical nature of inner speech.

It can be noted at the end of this discussion that there are numerous contributions to growth and efficiency of verbal STM during development and that there is a number of questions and more to be raised for which further research needs to provide answers. A whole array of possible causes, their interactions, but also the different character and role they have during development, have to be taken into consideration when trying to understand the development of STM's verbal domain.

Conclusion

In light of everything previously discussed, it may be concluded that there are two groups of factors, distinctive in their origins and processing qualities, which can be that which influences the growth and development of verbal STM. There is a need to make a clear operationalization of these differences. The first group refers to the relative automatization of more simple mechanisms and strategies directly related to STM in a wider system of information processing such as rehearsal, naming or grouping.

These simple mechanisms or strategies that originate from inner speech are available for some level of automatization due to the significance and broadness that it has in the processing of the cognitive apparatus. Being so evolutionarily relevant for cognitive functioning, inner speech, it might be speculated, spreads its influence up to the phylogenetic level. Of course, such a strong conclusion, being generated mainly by observation and rational speculation, still needs to be supported by strong experimental findings.

The other group of factors, in contrast to the previous one, represents conscious and goal directed application of more complex metamemory strategies. From this differentiation, it is possible to deduce three important implications. It can be speculated that while some mechanisms of the first category increase what is if often seen as the capacity of STM and WM (e.g., automatization of the rehearsal mechanism directly affects the capacity of the phonological loop but the capacity of the whole WM only

indirectly), metamemory strategies increase efficiency of WM or conditionally stated its "operational capacity." Second, while the first group of factors has its direct origin in inner speech, which again originates from *private speech*, the second group originates from the language indirectly, affecting the operational capacity of STM and WM through influences of higher mental functions. The third implication reflects the differences of the "nature" of memory mechanisms/strategies. It can be hypothesized that only those mechanisms which operate with meanings at a low level (low interaction of input/output from semantical LTM), and have qualities of a more formal and procedural character, are susceptible to automatization, while complex metamemory strategies that operate with meanings at a significant level cannot be significantly automatized; i.e., demand a low level of consciousness. The exception is associating phonological qualities of items in STM with their correspondent meanings in LTM, which is not a strategy but the fully automated process. Any other operation that deals with meanings requires conscious and deliberate activity and therefore excludes automatization *per se*.

Upon analyzing relevant literature that deals with issues which were the focus of this paper (see also Ornstein et al., 2010), one can notice that hitherto, research efforts remained quite silent when it comes to determining the causes and nature of the development of STM. Known studies conducted before 2000 were prevailingly ones of a cross-sectional design; that cannot explain developmental paths of children's advancement towards better memory ability. In the future, there will be more longitudinal studies needed to investigate the process and nature of gradual developmental changes that takes place during maturation.

The second problem related to the aforementioned research is their laboratory-setting focus that is deprived of those parts of reality that crucially affect children's development – their natural surroundings like home and classroom. Demands for higher ecological validity has to be combined with control methods that take place within a laboratory in order to achieve more balanced and precise findings on the nature of development of STM and WM.

On the basis of conducted research and literature interpretation, it can be confirmed that the unevenness of verbal STM development, but also of WM in general, reflect the unevenness of influences on STM and WM that take place in different stages of development (e.g., qualitative leaps in language ability development).

The phonological loop or verbal short-term domain in a WM model changes its structure during development. Since it seems clear that the rehearsal mechanism develops gradually during development, the devel-

opment of capacity ph-STS remains an open question. It is not known whether it also grows by itself during development or exclusively benefits from a development of other components and other processes in the cognitive system. It is still not clear enough how much language competency in terms of semantics and syntax contribute to this growth. Some research has found a significant correlation between improvement in text reading and comprehension, as well as efficiency and effectiveness of verbal WM (Gathercole et al., 2004). A correlation has also been found to exist between the start of literacy and the appearance of firsts sings of rehearsal mechanism applications (Palmer, 2000). The explanation of the background of this correlation might prove to have significant and far-reaching consequences on our understanding of STM and WM development. Furthermore, the question is raised whether and in what ways a change in character of the redistribution of cognitive load across different WM components takes place.

From the time it was conceptualized until now, the WM, as a cognitive construct, has experienced its own numerous "developmental turns" and understanding it has become more complex over time. Taking all of the aforementioned into account, it can be concluded in the most general of terms that the WM is a structure of high plasticity; and that further research demands a more precise focus be put on control and varying aspects of other memory components when dealing with WM research in order to avoid a reductionist interpretation that loses its validity in places outside the laboratory.

References

Alloway, T. P., Gathercole, S. E., Kirkwood, H., & Elliott, J. (2009). The cognitive and behavioral characteristics of children with low working memory. *Child Development*, *80*(2), 606–621.

Baddeley, A. D., & Hitch, G. (1974). Working memory. In G. H. Bower (Ed.), *The Psychology of learning and motivation* (Vol. 8, pp.47–89). New York: Academic Press.

Baddeley, A. D., Thomson, N., & Buchanan, M. (1975). Word length and the structure of short-term memory. *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior*, *14*, 575–589.

Chi, M. T. H. (1976). Short-term memory limitations in children: Capacity or processing deficits?, *Memory & Cognition*, *4*(5), 559–572.

Conrad, R. (1964). Acoustic confusions in immediate memory. *British Journal of Psychology*, *55*(1), 75–84. doi:10.1111/j.2044–8295.1964.tb00899.x

Elliott, JG, Gathercole SE, Alloway, TP, Holmes, J & Kirkwood, H. (2010). An evaluation of a classroom-based intervention to help overcome working memory difficulties and improve long-term academic achievement. **Journal of Cognitive Education and Psychology**, *9*(3),

Flavell, J. H., Beach, D. R., & Chinsky, J. M. (1966). Spontaneous verbal rehearsal in a memory task as a function of age. *Child Development*, 283–299.

Gathercole, S. E., & Baddeley, A. D. (1989). Evaluation of the role of phonological STM in the development of vocabulary in children: A longitudinal study. *Journal of Memory and Language*, *28*(2), 200–213. doi:10.1016/0749–596X(89)90044–2

Gathercole, S. E. (2002). Memory development during the childhood years. In A. D. Baddeley, M. D. Kopelman & B. A. Wilson (Eds.), *The handbook of memory disorders* (pp. 475–500). England: John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

Gathercole, S. E., Pickering, S. J., Ambridge, B., & Wearing, H. (2004). The structure of working memory from 4 to 15 years of age. *Developmental psychology*, *40*(2), 177–190.

Gathercole, S. E., Alloway, T. P., Willis, C., & Adams, A. M. (2006). Working memory in children with reading disabilities. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology*, *93*(3), 265–281.

Hartley, T., & Houghton, G. (1996). A linguistically constrained model of short-term memory for nonwords. *Journal of Memory and Language*, *35*, 1–31.

Holmes, J., Gathercole, S. E., Place, M., Dunning, D., Hilton, K., & Elliott, J. (2010). Working memory deficits can be overcome: Impacts of training and medication on working memory in children with ADHD. **Applied Cognitive Psychology**, **24**, 827–836

Miller, G. A. (1956). The magical number seven, plus or minus two: Some limits on our capacity for processing information. *Psychological Review*, *101*(2), 343–352.

Palmer, S. (2000). Development of phonological recoding and literacy acquisition: a four-year cross-sequentia study. *British Journal of Developmental Psychology*, 18. 533–555.

*Maja Maksimović, Tamara Nikolić Maksić**

Body Empathy and Counseling Relationship – Andragogical Perspectives

The aim of the paper is to explore and come to a deeper understanding of the notion of body empathy in the counseling proces. The embodiment and being in the body in a counseling relationship is explored through the emphasizing the importance of overcoming mind and body dualism and refering to the body as an object and as an instrument. Instead, the relational approach is suggested and the role of body mirroring and the phenomenom of linking is being introduced. Andragogical perspectives draw from the importance of incorporating counselinig in adult education settings and developing the sensitivity for using basic counseling and helping skills by adult educators taking a counseling role. Additionally, attention is drawn to developmental aspects of learning which include social context and acknowleding the body and the bodily in counseling in order for both sides to grow.

Key words: body empathy, embodied self, body mirroring, mind/body dualism, counseling.

Introduction

The aim of the paper is to explore questions and thoughts on body empathy in the counseling relationship by trying to overcome mind-body dualism and relating the idea to the philosophy of Martin Buber. We have begun our inquiry with the hypothesis that in human relations, and

* University of Belgrade, Faculty of Philosophy, Belgrade, Serbia

particularly in relationships whose primary aim is learning and growth, we are present with our bodies and we influence each other on organic, sometimes deeply unconscious level. For us as educators and counselors, it is vital to create space for carnal to become visible and to incorporate bodily reality in our practice. We argue that if we do not acknowledge that reality, we are destructing natural growth and learning, and reduce person to only few aspects of his/her being. Since working on bodily level is emotionally very sensitive, we suggest that in learning/counseling relationship we need to approach the other person as *Though* and be aware of possible blind corners of an instrumental relationship with learners.

In order to investigate proposed question we introduced the concept *embodied self* which was one of the ways of overcoming a Cartesian split of body and mind. It is a way of perceiving body as I – body instead of it – body which makes us less than we are by losing contact with our corporal reality. As Cole (2001) so eloquently said:"I may not be able to feel your pain, that most private of feelings, but I can share your suffering" (p. 66). As we see it, counseling encounter is a process of mutual engagement through allowing our bodies to meet. Our bodies can recognize each other only as "lived bodies" which is starting point in acquiring knowledge and involvement at the very centre of being (Merleau–Ponty, 1962). We are born with eyes expecting to see, with ears expecting to hear, with bodies expecting to feel and be touched (Liedloff, 1986). Only if one experiences body as a "lived body" there can be space for client to embrace his/her own.

In the past decade, interest in body in counseling has grown (Totton, 2005), but Shaw (2003) points out that focus is mainly on client's body. Although counselor's body is hugely involved in the process, it has been largely absent from the literature. "In reviewing the psychotherapeutic literature it is as though there is one body in the consulting room: that of the client" (p. 33).

Therefore, we will question concepts such as "embodied countertransference" (Soth, 2005) and body empathy. Shaw (2003) argues that we need a method of viewing this phenomenon which is free from therapeutic discourse such as countertransference. "The danger of using therapeutic discourse is that it actually takes us away from our bodily experience" (p. 46). We will try to overcome the interpretation by placing this phenomenon in the context of "linking" (Rowan, 1998), the concept that will be explained further on.

Mind and body dualism

In an attempt to show the importance of body empathy and the importance of body in general in counseling process, it would be inevitable

to overlook the mainstream views in the literature that place body and the bodily in minor position to brain, reason or cognition, in one word – the intellect. This tendency, long present and highly influential itself, is influenced by and deeply rooted in, so called, mind and body dualism.

While the **mind** is about mental processes, thought and consciousness, the **body** is about the physical aspects of the brain-neurons and how the brain is structured (McLeod, 2007). Opposed to monism, which recognizes either physical matter like the brain (*materialism*) or the mental objects like the mind (*phenomenalism*), dualism is the view that the mind and the body both exist. In fact, "...this position implies that mind and body not only differ in meaning but refer to different kinds of entities" (*Encyclopedia Britannica*).

This, primarily philosophical debate, can be traced to the ancient period, but the modern problem of the relationship of mind to body is credited to Rene Descartes, French philosopher and mathematician of the 17th century, according to which "...human beings consisted of two quite unlike substances which could not exist in unity" (Nehta, 2011: 203). His famous "I think, therefore I am" (or *Cogito, ergo sum* in Latin) reflects his position of mind as unextended and immaterial substance, subject to a rational thought, at one hand, and the body, as a purely material matter or extended and unthinking substance, that conforms to the laws of physics in mechanistic fashion. Acknowledging the existence of both, body and mind, dualism and the mind-body debate is therefore about whether these two are distinct and how they interact. Consequently, there are two types of dualism. While Descartes dualism states that mind and body function separately without any interchange (they are distinctive and exclude each other), the Cartesian dualism argues that there is two-way interaction between them (they are distinctive with the mutual influence). The both stem from Descartes.

Descartes' claim that the mind is immortal and survives the body and its dissolution (similarly to church doctrine as we know today in Western world), made the mind superior to body in broader terms and in different areas of human life and practice. Furthermore, the Cartesian dualism, raising the question of how the causal interaction between the two is possible, put mind "in charge" of the body. Descartes himself believed that the human body is causally affected by the human mind (or the body responses to our thoughts, for example, willing the arm to be raised causes it to be raised) and which in turn causally produces certain mental events (e.g. the mind receives signals from the body, like when being hit by a hammer on the finger causes the mind to feel pain) (*Encyclopedia Britannica).*

Since the mind is mental substance and the attribute of thought and the body is material and attribute of spatial extension, then the mind is private, unlike the body which is a subject to being public. Accordingly,

mind and body dualism laid the groundwork for the dualistic stance of human nature in various forms: biology and culture, behavior and consciousness, thinking and speaking, learning and development, individual and social, inner and outer world, cognition and emotion, rationality and emotionality, social and private, self and others, subjective and objective... As Peachter (2004) explains "Cartesian dualism has left a heavy legacy in terms of how we think about ourselves, so that we treat humans as minds within bodies rather than mind/body unities" (p. 309).

There is a long history in Western culture of considering the body second rate and inferior to cognition and rational thought. Our society today is encouraging us in most various ways to disconnect from our bodies by objectifying the body and teaching us to focus on the mind. We devalue body even in areas of life and situations where the primary focus is on the body, as we are trying to affect it trough the mind, ignoring its needs, or pushing it to the limits in different ways. We even call ourselves "homo sapiens", which implies how much we value and give importance to intellect as a uniquely human ability. As Holzman (2009) explains the fact that our ancestors evolved a brain structure and size making them capable of the cognitive feats worthy of the modern attribution "sapien", and by means of the glorification of this ability (and its product – knowledge), we came to a situation in which cognition plays an authoritarian role in the contemporary world. The author further argues, " ...'I think therefore I am' should not be taken as a universal truth (past, present and future), but as culturally and historically situated belief" (p. 34), which has outlived its applicability and usefulness. Instead, she proposes activity or performance as a new ontology (as a process and a product of human development) stating that "people are primarily performers, not thinkers or knowers" (Holzman, 2009: 34). In other words, what we need today is a new transformation or a shift which would allow us to move from our heads into our bodies, "...since it is bodies that move and act" (Aaron, 2010: 20). Moreover, our bodies hold all of our memories and emotions and we can say they are our living journals, as "within the cells, tissues, organs, muscles and bones of the body is a life story" (Aaron, 2010: 20).

Simultaneously, our understanding of human beings is changing considerably today, and there are more and more views that challenge dualistic nature of human life. This is especially reflected in the notion of the Merleau–Ponty's (1962) "lived-body", which maintains that the body is not an object (Mehta, 2011), but "a nucleous of one's consciousness/intentionality" (p. 204). Furthermore, human living systems have come to be seen as systems of which mind and body is a unit. Moreover, they are

seen to be as integral parts of larger systems, "in permanent interaction with their environment and capable of constructing their own subjective realities" (p. 205). This stand implies deconstructing the presuppositions "...of the grand narrative of "a knowing mind" confronting, discovering, or even constructing the world" (Holzman, 1997: 6–7) and thus, overcoming mind and body dualism. Our bodies would be grateful, we think, and they would reward us rightfully. If Aaron (2010) is right, disconnecting from our bodies means losing access to ourselves in a very fundamental way, and "when we reconnect to our bodies we regain access to our essential and unique selves" (p. 20). Let's start with acknowledging it, as the body could be the path to "fully and effectively access the body's store of memories and emotions" (Aaron, 2010: 20) and consequently, this path would be enabling for us to heal, grow and develop.

The embodied self

In order to be consistent to our idea of what body is, we cannot explore the phenomenon of the body from the perspective of an outsider. We can use theories to explain the concept of embodied self but only through immersing in bodily experiences we can truly explore it. In addition, there is a problem in language because there is no single word that refer to I – body (Kepner, 1987), which supports the notion that our body is an object. We want to alienate from that notion and speculate about body from inside by verbalizing what we actually sense through it. Body is an object but also the subject of the exploration. It is a body which knows and it is close to the concept of "felt sense" (Gendlin, 1979).

> My body was born.[1]
>
> My body exists through space and time, but it tends to enter space without time.
>
> My body exists continually without interruptions, but it changes constantly. It is continuum of constant shifts.
>
> My body needs its personal space which changes in relation to others.
>
> My body has needs. It is in state of need and gratification.

1   Part of the poem is included in the paper Maksimović, M., Nikolić Maksić, T., Milošević, Z. (2011). The Crisis in Family – Family in Crisis: Opportunity for Transformation, in: M. Alhadeff-Jones & A. Kokkos (Eds.), *Transformative Learning in Time of Crisis: Individual and Collective Challenges, Proceedings of the 9th International Transformative Learning Conference*, Athens, 28-29 May 2011, pp. 509-514, New York & Athens, Greece: Teachers College, Columbia University & The Hellenic Open University. Originally it was written by Maksimovic, M.

My body sometimes does not feel needs. It just is.
My body is my mind. My body knows.
My body see, hear, smell, touch and taste.
My body is in balance with gravity and it can feel that balance.
My body knows where its parts are.
*My body wants to see, hear, to touch and to be touched, it wants
to taste and smell.*
My body looks, make noise, smell, has it structure and taste.
My body is perfect in its imperfection.
My body carries my memories.
My body feels that memories.
My body is my past, my present and my future...
My body is a speaking body.
My body is a listening body.
My body wants to move and to express.
My body carries scars, but it has the ways to heal those scars.
My body is a body of an animal and it is a sacred body.
My body likes to be with other bodies and to sense them.
My body is sexual.
My body is innocent.
My body stands strong in its vulnerability.
My body will carry another body.
My body is an embodiment of life.
My body is an aging body.
My body will disappear...

Body as an instrument

> *The human body is an exemplar sensible, a structure in which is
> captured and exhibited the general structure of the world*
> *(Wynn, 1997: 256)*

Before any further exploration we want to reconsider the comprehension of body as an instrument (Mathew, 1998). Mathew (1998) refers to body as a "sensitive instrument" with an ability to tune in to the psyche. "Our bodies can be the instruments which receive and transmit communication ranging from the clearly conscious to the deeply unconscious" (p.

17), thus, she stays in the frame of the body/mind dualism. We strongly refuse to say that we are using body in relation to others. The verb using implies that no matter how we acknowledge the importance of body in counseling encounter we still think that we actually bring conscious decision about will we going to use it or not. Shaw (2003) points that there is no choice about this process, there is something passive in it. Control diminishes intelligence of body and its wisdom and suggests that there is no enough trust in the process that emerges between two bodies. There is still an understanding of mind as a controller of the process. For us, it is about trusting our bodies and allowing them to be and to experience by removing the fear from what might emerge; by removing fear of vulnerability and intimacy. "Millions of years of ancestral experience are stored up in the instinctive reactions of organic matter, and in the functions of the body there is incorporated a living knowledge, almost universal in scope, but not accompanied by any consciousness" (Neumann, cited in Levin, 2002). Therefore, we comprehend body as a source, not as an instrument. It is mutual embodied relation in which *I affect* and *I am affected* (Buber, 1958). Holifield (1998) says that knowledge that arises from body awareness is "like a balm for the soul: clear, direct and immediate" (p. 63).

In order to explain sensations in their body some psychotherapists, particularly from psychodynamic orientation, introduced concept "somatic countertransference" (Stone, 2006; Soth, 2005; Forester, 2007; Dosamantes-Beaudry, 2007). Forester (2007) defines somatic countertransference as the effect on the therapist's body of the patients' material. She suggests that therapists' bodily experiences are something that belongs to the patient or it is therapist's material evoked by patient. It is almost incredible and confusing that she understands the sensations in the therapist to be the clients "material". This way relationship between therapist and client is seen as a one way process: from the client to the therapist. Therapist body is therefore understood only as an affected body and not as a body that affects. How we can prescribe our sensations to the client "material"? This way therapist's body is removed from encounter or it is consider as an object that reacts but does not act. Jordan (1997) argues that in mutuality one is both affecting other and being affected by the other. Shaw (2003) points out that via countertransference embodied experience of therapist is located back into the body of the client. It can be even dangerous to consider that what counselor feels is actually client's feeling. By doing this we have to ask questions: how it is related to the veil of power that we carry to the counseling room? Counselor's sensations can be reactions on client's feelings, but it is still the way he/she experience it.

Stone (2006) gives wider definition of the phenomenon and he named it "embodied resonance in the countertrasnference where the analyst has a somatic reaction to what is happening in the session and it occurs when analyst vibrate with patient psychic material through the unconscious" (p. 59). Focus is still on the client "unconscious material" and therapist's body as affected body. Furthermore, he explains that through bodily sensations therapist's unconscious reacts on patient's unconscious which at the beginning may be unclear and confusing. We disagree that sensations are connected only to unconscious. Although it is true that body has memories that we might not be aware of, sensations are part of the whole experience and not only of the "unconscious material". Also, what is happening in the therapeutic encounter is "neither client's nor the therapist's" (Shaw, 2003: 139). It is an experience between them.

Dosamantes–Beudry (2007) overcomes intrapsychic determinisms by placing somatic countertransference in the theory of inetersubjectivity. Therapeutic relationship is seen as intersubjective dialogue in which each participant influence and is influenced by the other. This is an important point of view for our further consideration of phenomenon.

Whatsoever, assuming that counselors' bodily reactions can be explained through the concept of somatic countertrtansference is restricted way of perceiving this phenomenon. It takes us away from actual lived experience and eludes the relationship of I-it and not I-Though (Buber, 1958).

Body empathy

Empathy is a bodily phenomenon (Shaws, 2003). It is cognitive, somatic (Rothschild, 2006) and emotional experience that enable us to directly recognize others, not as a body with minds, but as persons like us (Gallese, 2003). Dosamantes-Alperson (1981) points out that knowledge about client can only be obtained from actual contact with an experience of one's body-self.

Greenberg and Rushanski Rosenberg (2002) in their research "Therapist experience of empathy" through therapists' narratives came to conclusion that the most characteristic of empathy is that "whatever empathic expression occurs it is based on a therapist bodily felt experience of what is being understood rather than a purely conceptual understanding" (p. 205). Experiential process of having a bodily felt experience of some type was central to empathy.

If we understand empathy as a bodily phenomenon, if we can feel to-gether with the client, therefore we need to ask what is actually happening with "as if" quality. Rogers (1957) emphasized the importance of "as if": "to sense the client's private world as if it was your own but without losing as if quality... To sense the client's anger, fear, or confusion as if were your own, yet without your own anger, fear or confusion getting bound up in it" (p. 99). We believe that dominant body/mind dualism still push us to create "cognitive distance", and disconnect from shared bodily experience. "The other's emotion is constituted, experienced and therefore directly understood by means of embodied simulation producing a shared body state" (Gallese, 2007). At the moment of experiencing we are together in the feelings of fear, anger, sadness...

Hendricks and Weinhold (1982) suggest that we recycle feelings be-cause we do not allow ourselves to experience it completely. "Instead my mind tries to talk me out of them" (p. 184). Clearing the space is of the high importance. Clearing the space is acknowledgement of present feel-ings.

Let's go back to the understanding of empathy. Cooper (2007) wrote that in embodied empathy "psychotherapist allows their body to resonate with their clients' experiences as they attempt to enter their clients' worlds" (p. 13). This empathy "breathes in the totality of client" (p. 13). It is inter-esting that even Rogers who emphasized the importance of "as if" qual-ity in his interview with Baldwin (1987) went beyond his own words and said that empathy is a process that means "entering the private perceptual world of the other and being thoroughly at home in it... It means tempo-rarily living the others life" (p. 142). This means loosening of boundaries and melting together in interpersonal space. Shaw (2003) made conclu-sion that the more emotionally involved counselors are with their client, the more significant bodily phenomena appeared. It means that through the deep contact counselors can resonate with their clients on bodily level through joining them. Nevertheless, Hart (1999) warns that confusion re-garding "what is mine and what is theirs" (p. 116) might exist. Therefore, it is important to always check out with clients. Furthermore, counselors' self-awareness is indispensable for surrendering the mutual process of "deep empathy" (Hart, 1999). Rothschild (2006) in her book "Help for the helper" calls attention to the significance of body awareness and even sug-gests exercises that counselors may use in order to enhance their body awareness.

Undoubtedly, body empathy goes beyond the as if quality. It enables counselors to join the client's journey and track their experience moment – by – moment (Greenberg and Elliot, 1997).

Role of Mirroring and mirror neurons in experiencing body empathy

*Our grasp of the meaning of the world does not exclusively rely on
its passive visual record, but is strongly
influenced by action-related sensimotor processes
(Gallese, 2003)*

Further on, we want to briefly explain the great discovery of neuroscience and its link with body empathy. Mirror neurons have been discovered by group of Italian neuroscience such as Umilita, Gallese, Keysers, Rizzolati, etc. They found out that "the same neural circuits involved in action control and the first person experience of emotions and sensations are also active when witnessing the same action, emotion and sensations of others, respectively" (Gallese, 2003). That mirror neuron systems intervene between the personal experiential knowledge we hold in our lived body, and "implicit certainties" that we hold about others and there is a whole range of "mirror matching mechanism" (Gallese, 2003: 171) in our brain. Displayed emotions can be empathized and therefore implicitly understood through this mechanism.

Rothschild (2006) has recognized importance of mimicry in the therapeutic encounter. She considers mimicry as "social glue" (p. 74) that produces empathic understanding. Through adopting particular facial expression or body posture we communicate emotional information to the brain. She stresses importance of imitation as a means of empathic understanding. Through copying clients we can actually "activate" their sensations in our body. Although she made connection between copying client's body, empathic understanding and mirror neurons, she stays on the level where imitation provides deep understanding. We think that imitation needs to occur in a context of the deep relationship as an additional tool to the core helping condition of acceptance, trust and love that should primarily be what the relationship is founded up on. In research on nonverbal behavior in counseling, Nagaoka, Yoshikawa, and Komori (2005) use the concept "embodied synchrony" to explain "a phenomenon in which the interactants' nonverbal behavior synchronizes and become similar" (p. 1862). They found out that embodied synchrony is an indicator for quality of counseling relationship, such as sense of trust.

Gallese (2003) introduced concept of "shared manifold of itersubjectivity" (p. 171) through which it is possible to recognize other human beings as similar to us. He points out that mirror neurons can be activated only in relationship. "Control experiments showed that neither the sight

of the agent alone nor of the object alone can be effective in evoking the neuron's response" (p. 173). Shared manifold enable intersubjective communication and social imitation. Mirror neurons allow us to generate "supramodal emotional and sensitive shared spaces" (p. 177). That space provide us experiential understanding of the emotions and sensations others experience (Gallese, 2007). We argue that this space is similar what Buber (1958) named "between" or what Rowan (1998) calls linking. Gestalt therapy recognized this phenomenon and explains it through field theory (Yontef, 1993). In the reality where we are connected through variety of fields we experience each other from the space in "between".

In sum, it appears that science is now proving what has been intuitively explained by philosophical and psychotherapy traditions.

Conclusion

"Learning occurs in social contexts and bodies, not just in minds" (Freiler, 2008: 45). We have come to believe that learning about one self (being that in educational setting, therapy work or counseling process, where ever it may occur), is not much different, qualitatively speaking, from learning in general. For learning to be developmental, takes being fully present in our wholeness as a human being in a relationship with another human being. As Holzman (2013) explains, therapy works because of establishing a relationship in which individual and private becomes social, or in her own words: "Therapy works because it exposes and creates with our relational interconnectivity". This interconnectivity encompasses more than cognition and exchange of thoughts. It includes being fully present through physicality, emotionality and sensing in the continuing process of the activity of living, as "we need our full bodies for deeper understanding of what it means to be human in this world" (Lawrence, 2012: 71).

Therefore, embodiment or being in our bodies should not be a foreign concept. On the contrary, as Freiler (2008) argues, "the evolving understanding of embodiment is beginning to remove the body from a place of otherness into practicing space where both body and mind are being more holistically approached and valued (p. 45).

Body is highly present in the phenomenon of linking. "Linking is that way of relating that refuses to take separation seriously, and assumes instead that the space between counselor and client can be fully occupied and used by both, to the advantage of the therapeutic work. This can be done in a state of subtle consciousness where the fear of relating at such

a depth can be overcome or set aside or just not experienced" (Rowan, 1998:8). Working with the body insinuates allowing oneself to open up the wounds and experiencing them together with another person in order to heal. It means being aware of the wounds and healing power and it also means to learn how to use them in order to be in touch with client (Mathew, 1998). "That means touching other, touching the places in each other that are close and tender where the sensitivity is, where the wounds are, and where the turmoil is. That's intimacy. When you get this close, there is love. And when love comes, healing comes" (Kreiheder, cited in Miller and Baldwin, 1980: 148).

References

Aaron, S. (2011). Psychodramatic Bodywork Explored. *The British Journal of Psychodrama and Sociodrama*, 25(1), 19–53.

Buber, M. (1958). *I and thou (RG Smith, Trans.)*. New York: Scribner's.

Cole, J. (2001). Empathy needs a face. *Journal of Consciousness Studies*, 8(5–7), 5–7.

Cooper, M. (2007). Humanizing psychotherapy. *Journal of Contemporary Psychotherapy*, *37*(1), 11–16.

Dosamantes-Alperson, E. (1981). Experiencing in movement psychotherapy. *American Journal of Dance Therapy*, *4*(2), 33–44.

Dosamantes-Beaudry, I. (2007). Somatic transference and countertransference in psychoanalytic intersubjective dance/movement therapy. *American Journal of Dance Therapy*, *29*(2), 73–89.

Forester, C. (2007). Your own body of wisdom: Recognizing and working with somatic countertransference with dissociative and traumatized patients. *Body, Movement and Dance in Psychotherapy*, *2*(2), 123–133.

Freiler, T. J. (2008). Learning through the body. In R. L. Lawrence (Ed.) *Bodies of Knowledge: Embodied Learning in Adult Education: New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education, 134* (119), 37–47.

Gallese, V., Eagle, M. N. & Migone, P. (2007). Intentional attunement: Mirror neurons and the neural underpinnings of interpersonal relations. *Journal of the American Psychoanalytic Association*, *55*(1), 131–175.

Gallese, V. (2003). The roots of empathy: the shared manifold hypothesis and the neural basis of intersubjectivity. *Psychopathology*, *36*(4), 171–180.

Gendlin, E. T. (1979). How I teach focusing. *Unpublished paper*.

Greenberg, L. S. & Rushanski-Rosenberg, R. (2002). Therapist's experience of empathy. In J. C. Watson, R. N. Goldman & M. S. Warner (Eds.), *Client-Centered and Experiential Psychotherapy in the 21st Century: Advances in theory, research and practice* (pp.168–181). pccS Books.

Greenberg, L. S. & Elliott, R. (1997). Varieties of empathic responding. In A. Bohart and L. Greenberg (Eds.), *Empathy Reconsidered: New Directions in Theory, Research & Practice.* Washington: D.C. APA Press.

Hart, T. (1999). The refinement of empathy. *Journal of Humanistic Psychology*, *39*(4), 111–125.

Holifield, B. (1998). Against the wall/her beating heart: Working with the somatic aspects of transference, countertransference, and dissociation. In D. H. Johnson & I. J. Grand (Eds.), *The body in psychotherapy: Inquiries in somatic psychology* (pp. 66–68). Berkeley: North Atlantic Books.

Holzman, L. (1997). *Schools for growth: Radical alternatives to current educational models*. New York, NY: Psychology Press.

Holzman, L. (2008). *Vygotsky at work and play*. New York, NY: Taylor & Francis US.

Holzman, L. (2013). The Surprising Secret of Why Therapy Works**:** Why does talking together make us feel better? Published on November 21, 2013 in: *A Conceptual Revolution (Psychology Today).* Retrieved on 26/10/2013 from: http://www.psychologytoday.com/blog/conceptual-revolution/201311/the-surprising-secret-why-therapy-works.

Jordan, J. V. (2001). A relational-cultural model: Healing through mutual empathy. *Bulletin of the Menninger Clinic*, *65*(1: Special issue), 92–103.

Kepner, J. I. (1987). *Body process: A gestalt approach to working with the body in psychotherapy*. San Francisco: Gardner Press.

Lawrence, R. L. (2012). Coming Full Circle: Reclaiming the Body. In R. L. Lawrence (Ed.) *Bodies of Knowledge: Embodied Learning in Adult Education: New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education, 134* (125), 71–78.

Levin, D. M. (Ed.). (1993). *Modernity and the Hegemony of Vision*. Univ of California Press.

Levin, D. M. (1998). Postmodernism in dance: dance, discourse, democracy. *Postmodernism. 4. Legal studies, psychoanalytic studies, visual arts and architecture*, *4*, 273.

Levin, D. M. (2001). The embodiment of the categorical imperative Kafka, Foucault, Benjamin, Adorno and Levinas. *Philosophy & social criticism*, *27*(4), 1–20.

Levin, D. M. (2002). *The body's recollection of being: Phenomenological psychology and the deconstruction of nihilism*. London: Routledge.

Liedloff, J. (1986). *The Continuum Concept: In Search Of Happiness Lost.* Cambridge: Perseus Books.

Mathew, M. (1998). The body as instrument. *Journal of the British Association of Psychotherapists*, *35*, 17–36.

McLeod, S. A. (2007). **Mind Body Debate – Simply Psychology.** Retrieved on 26/10/2013 from http://www.simplypsychology.org/mindbodydebate.html

Mehta, N. (2011). Mind-body dualism: A critique from a health perspective. *Mens sana monographs*, *9*(1), 202–209.

Merley-Ponty, M. (1962). *The Phenomenology of Perception.* London: Routledge and Keagan.

Mind and body dualism. *Encyclopedia Britannica.* Retreived on 11.11.2012. from http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/383566/mind-body-dualism

Nagaoka, C., Yoshikawa, S. & Komori, M. (1862, July). Embodied synchrony of nonverbal behaviour in counselling: A case study of role playing school counselling. In *Proc. 28th Ann. Conf. of the Cog. Sci. Soc* (pp. 1862–1867).

Paechter, C. (2004). "Mens Sana in Corpore Sano": Cartesian dualism and the marginalisation of sex education. *Discourse: studies in the cultural politics of education*, *25*(3), 309–320.

Rogers, C. R. (1957). The necessary and sufficient conditions of therapeutic personality change. *Journal of consulting psychology*, *21*(2), 95.

Rothschild, B. (2006). *Help for the helper: The psychophysiology of compassion fatigue and vicarious trauma*. WW Norton & Co.

Rowan, J. (1998). Linking: Its place in therapy. *International Journal of Psychotherapy*, *3*(3), 245–254.

Satir, V. & Baldwin, M. (1987). *The Use of Self in Therapy*. Haworth Press.

Soth, M. (2005). Embodied countertransference. In N. Totton (Ed.) *New dimensions in body psychotherapy* (pp. 40–55). Berkshire: McGraw-Hill International.

Stone, M. (2006). The analyst's body as tuning fork: embodied resonance in countertransference. *Journal of Analytical Psychology*, *51*(1), 109–124.

Shaw, R. (2003). *The embodied psychotherapist: The therapist's body story*. London: Routledge.

Totton, N. (Ed.). (2005). *New dimensions in body psychotherapy*. Berkshire: McGraw-Hill International.

Weinhold, B. K. & Hendricks, G. (1982). *Counseling and psychotherapy: A transpersonal approach*. Denver: Love Publishing Company.

Whitehouse, M. S., & Pallaro, P. (Eds.). (2007). *Authentic Movement: Moving the Body, Moving the Self, Being Moved: a Collection of Essays, Volume Two*(Vol. 2). Jessica Kingsley Publishers.

Yontef, G. M. (1993). *Awareness, dialogue and process: Essays on gestalt therapy*. The Gestalt Journal Press.

Mihajlović Dubravka[*]

Training in the Purpose of Career Guidance Quality Improvement[1]

This paper studies the relation between certain characteristics of changeable careers and the process of career managing on the one hand, and certain quialities of trainings on the other. With „changeable" careers, we can notice differences in the process of career management.Career management has become a life-long process which consists of a complexity of activities undertaken by an individual or which are used to help an individual to successfully cope with the challenges of professional development. These activities have become numerous and more complex, while education, especially the education od adults, is the foundation for some of them. However, what is more important than educational role as a foundation is the fact thet education is the condition for realization and development of many of these activities. Considering the fact that education in this area realizes through trainings, it is precisely the trainings and their qualities in this field which are the essence of this paper. There are numerous efforts to improve career guidance quality, and many of them relate it to the practicioners in this field and their training. In this sense, the paper will observe the place of training in the context of the quialities of career guidance process, but in most part will be studied its importance regarding the practicioners in this field, as an important quality of this process.

Key words: career, career guidance, career guidance quality, competencies of career guidance staff, training

---

[*]   University of Belgrade, Faculty of Philosophy, Belgrade, Serbia

Introduction

The matter of career guidance qualities is gaining more and more importance. The reasons lie in the fact that the mere phenomenon of career has changed and left behind a completely clear difference between traditional and "contemporary" careers. In other words, careers used to be related to the work life and career advancement, and they represented something reserved for a certain number of people. As this traditional interpretation of career was abandoned, the new one has occupied its place, the interpretation which observes career as a set of different life and working roles that an individual takes during his/her life. These careers are dynamic and require from an individual to get equipped with resources which will enable them to lead such a career, that is, to guide it. Thus, numerous requests related to career guidance process occur, and this becomes exactly that – a process which lasts the entire life. This way, a help to an individual to make an initial career choice and enabling them to operate within this choice is now only one of these career guidance activities, which is, considering the changed nature of careers, less and less feasible in that form.

Today we can define career guidance as a set of activities oriented to different target groups which differ in many characteristics. Also, in this model of career guidance there is an increasing need to look at the role of education, especially adult education, which occurs as a condition of realization and development of these activities. Training takes a special place among prerequisites for realization and development of these activities. Training in this field can be oriented to end users of some career guidance activities, but also to those who plan, organize and implement these activities – practitioners in the field of career guidance. In that sense, we find that it is very important to bring up the issue of a relation between trainings quality in the field of career guidance on the one hand, and the career guidance quality on the other hand.

Towards some questions of quality of career guidance and the role of training

Before we broach the question of managing career guidance, and it's relation with training, we consider that it is essential to look back on the determination of "changeable" careers and determining career guidance. Those determinations are important above all because of the clarity of the frame from which we delve into this matter. On the other hand, we

can acknowledge that out of the very determinations it can be "read" why there is an increasing need for the examination of the quality of career guidance. The term "changeable" careers, is determined differently, but it seems that there are certain elements which are common to different determinations. Those same elements are what often separate traditionally accepted career and the "modern" one. With the full appreciation of the fact that out of many determinations which are related to a career there is a vast number of those who do that in the a totally fair manner, definitely encompassing all its essential elements, we decided to go along the determination of career as a "series of positions, roles, activities and experiences related to employment which a person may encounter" (Arnold, 2005: 520). Especially significant are the experiences related to employment, so this author considers that "experiences related to employment include that the activities such as training, education, volunteering, but also unemployment can be regarded as elements of someone's career" (Ibidem: 520). Educational activities which this author emphasizes are very significant. Specifically, training and education are an important part of someone's career according to this determination. Career guidance represents the second most important term with which we are operating in this paper. One determination of the career guidance says that "Career counseling encompasses services and activities whose aim is to assist people of any age to in any moment of their lives to make decisions regarding their education, advancement, and professional lives and to successfully manage their own careers" (OECD, 2004) Although this definition talks about career counseling, in our opinion, through operationalization of activities which make it, career guidance and career counseling can be considered to be synonymous. Based on this determination about what career guidance qualities can we discuss?

Above all, it consists of various activities and services; what characterizes it is the openness in the sense of age; openness in the view of different life situations of users; directedness towards their decisions related to education, advancement and professional life; finally, it helps people (and doesn't do it for them) to successfully guide their own career.

To the question "what is career guidance?" we can answer through the display of activities which is consists of. In the Strategy of Career Counseling in the Republic of Serbia career guidance is defined by following activities: Career informing; Education for career; Career guidance; Counseling for employment; Referring to employment; Career guidance and counseling for employees (Strategy of Career Guidance and Counseling in the Republic of Serbia, 2010).

Although among these activities there are those which don't have the sufficient level of complexity to achieve the quality of the independent ac-

tivity in career guidance, these activities certainly illustrate the fact that the very process of career guidance is being made more and more complex, and new mechanism are being sought so that the increasing need for career guidance could be better dealt with, and its quality better taken care of. The emphasis of the importance of the quality of the career guidance is visible from the roles that are being given to this process. In that sense, „career guidance and counseling are one of the very basic instruments of human resources development, by which both educational goals (improving the efficiency of the educational system), and economic development goals and goals of social equality and inclusion are achieved" (Ibidem). So the questions that become significant are: how to provide a quality career guidance, how to ensure it, how to obtain everything that which comprises the quality of this process? Apart from that, the situation is furthermore made complex by the fact that there is a great variety in view of demands that are that are being sought after in this process, and which can be illustrated in such a way "we need to keep in mind that there are many different – and partially contradictory – expectations about what guidance services should be doing in what way, and what makes them effective" (NICE, 2012)   .

In order for the question of quality and the ensuring of quality not to remain unattainable, we believe that it's necessary to constantly make attempts to operationalize it. Still, that attempt is as necessary as it is challenging. Although it appears to us that the attempts of determining what exactly is the quality of career guidance can be made in many ways, having in mind the aims of this paper, we decide that the quality of career guidance can be discussed through the determination of the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development where quality can be discussed through:

- Quality of occupational and educational information
- Qualifications/competencies of guidance staff
- Delivery of guidance (OECD, 2001b).

If we would analyze this operationalization further, the criterion taken for the concretization of the quality of career guidance would be very debatable. Also, it is very hard to make a clear distinction between the domain of the quality of information, qualifications and staff competences and the delivery of "counseling". Still, initiating this discussion would shift the focus of our work to a great extent. Still, this view of quality opens the horizon for the discussion about the role of training, especially through the two previously mentioned points: qualifications/competences of guidance staff and delivery of guidance. On the one hand, training the staff is something great attention is paid to when the ensuring of quality of

career guiding is in question. That can be seen through one determination which best illustrates the current opinions of this relation: „the training and competence of career guidance staff make essential contribution to the development of high quality career guidance services, essential in meeting the needs of national populations and furthering EU strategic aims" (CEDEFOP, 2009: 9). On the other hand, the delivery of many career guidance activities is also happening in the very act of training. What certainly characterizes the area of career guidance is the variety of target groups to which this process is directed to, and which again, delivers numerous requests when training staff in the field of career guidance is in question. That variety is shown in the results of the research in which relevant European documents about the career guidance are analyzed and which gave interesting findings in view of the target groups of career guidance. According to the research results, this process is intended for the "the young people who are in the formal educational system and who are without qualifications (so called dropout); then it is intended for the adults, for the employed much less than the unemployed and for senior citizens (Mihajlović, Popović, 2012: 38). This question demonstrates the importance of recognizing different target groups, and when the issue is the realization of the activities of career guidance for different target groups. This is also important when planning and programming of practitioner training who work with different target groups. Finally, this is one more way of observing the relation between the quality of training and the quality of career guidance.

Training and competencies of guidance staff

In order to understand the position of training in the field of career guidance better, it is necessary to briefly explain what we mean by training in accordance to the needs of this paper. Although the mere term "training" is characterized by great terminological dilemmas, we shall put them aside for now, still not avoiding their placement in terminological frames which appear in education, especially in professional adult education. Regarding this, we will not observe the training as a type of professional education or a strategy – the way of acquiring professional education. The definition we observe as an important instrument in our work is the definition which considers training to be a specifically designed process of tutoring knowledge, skills, viewpoints and competencies, and which is organized with the aim of skills and competencies development, which is why practical work dominates this program, as well as exercising, multiple

repetition of task procedures which need to be acquired, along with other phases, while in the domain of the outcome, the special accent is put on the successfulness of performing the acquired skills and/or competencies" (Pejatović, Pekeč, 2011: 177–178). Thus, staff competencies in the field of career guidance become a directive to our further examination of trainings in this field.

In the environment where more and more importance is given to career guidance both on individual as well as on a global social scale, the special place takes an issue of staff who work in this field. It is obvious that a number and complexity of different roles they take in this field is growing. With this, what is also growing is the need to define these roles and coordinate them. However, the complexity of work that these practitioners do in this field, leaves some space for exploring the initial preparations and specializations of this staff. There seems to be a discrepancy between an very complex work of a practitioner in this field and the matter of their preparation for it. The list of competencies of a practitioner in this field is becoming longer and more complex. Furthermore, the question of staff specialization in this field is of crucial importance, considering the fact that the changes occur constantly in this field. This, above all, refers to practitioners in this field, considering the fact that it would be rather risky to talk in terms of profession and professionals in this field. Those who are called practitioners take different roles. In most cases, these are professional guides (there are different types of professional guides), peer educators and administrative workers (UNESCO, 2002: 13–14). Still, the role of career guides is considered to be the most complex one and the most affected by the changes in this field, so we will further analyse some of the prescribed and desirable competencies of career guides, which can be significant in terms of the trainings outcome.

Canadian national association of career guidance offers some guidelines for activities in which career guides participate. These comprise the following:

- The implementation of formal and informal evaluation processes in collaboration with clients, as well as the result assessment in order to clarify and explain to the clients their relevant characteristics (such as values, interests and competencies).
- Encouraging research activities based on experience (such as job shadowing, practice and informative interviews).
- The of career planning system and the system for informing about professions with a view to help the individuals to understand better the business world.

- Giving opportunities to improve decision making skills
- Help in the individual career planning development
- Teaching strategies of job searching, interview skills and helping in writing CVs/resumes/biografies
- Help in solving potential personal conflicts at work, through the exercice of developing relevant interpersonal skills (ex. assertiveness training)
- Help in unerstanding integration of work in other roles in life
- Giving support to people who experience stress at work, job loss and/or career change (Amundson et al., 2010: 8).

The expansion of career guides' areas of responsibility has also been noticed. However, analysing these activities can be significant when it comes to programming trainings, that is – then it comes to contents which need to be provided. This is very important taking into account the fact that trainings for employees in this field are often characterized by a gap between what is needed and what trainings offer. Our attempt to summarize these activities will go in the direction of identifying the knowledge and some of the skills and viewpoints which are necessary for the practitioners in this field, or, to be more precise, which are the guidelines for their training. Some of the guidelines can be: knowledge of the business market, of professions, theories of professional choice, changeable careers; job searching strategies; skills of necessity examination, of career planning, especially the individual ones, tutoring skills, soft skills... Some of the new dimensions of career guidance, which have been represented in previous sections of this paper, can be good indicators of some of the new challenges that the employees in this field face. These challenges can be categorized in a few statements:

Careers are no longer a synonim for success. This statement could still mean that the majority of people today have a career. Such careers need guidance and for career guides this could mean that they will more and more often meet the people of different work experience. Consequently, this will require delicate ability to recognize different professional needs of people who seek their help. Thus, this set of knowledge and skills can be significant in terms of their training.

Careers do not last a period – it is a life-long process. If we had spoken ib the previous paragraph about the people with different professional needs and experiences, that focus could now ne transferred to the plurality of age groups. Thus, „many people use the services of career guides long after adolescent period or early youth. Moreover, career guides, together with their clients, adjust these interventions to suit the problems and spe-

cific conditions of their clients" (Ibidem: 3). Situations which require elderly people to get involved with their own career guidance are becoming more and more common. These are often the people who are trying to confront and cope with the dynamics of changes, very often without having the adequate knowledge and skills of career guidance.

Career guidance is strived to be an independent process. Considering the fact that everything is done so that people cease to be dependent on the services of career guidance, but to be trained to be in charge and (often) the only leaders of their own career paths, another challenge is now put before the practitioners in this field. It is very difficult, and certainly requires abundant experience, to level and „dose" the information flow. That is, to dose it in the amount which will enable those who lead their own careers to expand their research capacity. In a nutshell, staff should make effort to acitvate their users, not to tender their passive role.

Career is not isolated from other roles every individual takes. A similar acknowledgment we can find in Amundson who finds that „helping clients to take care of their career problems from a hollistic point of view requires a very high level of guiding professionality" (Ibidem: 6). This would still mean that practitioners in this field should be competent to observe the global life context of the people who seek their help.

These challenges are importanr because they can become the foundation for programming trainings in this field. We find this the right time to analyse some of the competencies necessary for practitioners in this field. Canadian national association of career guidance defined the essential competencies necessary for career guiding. They comprise eleven content fields which this association defined briefly:

- **The theory of career development:** theoretical base and knowledge which are considered to be essential for professionals in this field.
- **Individual and group guiding skills:** the competencies of individual/group guiding.
- **Individual/group evaluation:** the skills of individual/group evaluation
- **Information/resources:** Information/ resource basis and knowledge
- **The development, management and implementation of the program**: The skills necessary for developing, planning and implementing various programs of career development in a variety of environments and their management.

- **Support, consulting and improving realization:** Knowledge and skills which are considered to be the basic for enabling an individual and organizations to affect the process of career guidance and development efficiently.
- **Different populations:** knowledge and skills which are considered essential for offering the process of career guidance and leading in different populations.
- **Supervision:** knowledge and skills which are considered essential for critical evaluation of a guide's work, maintenance and improvement of professional skills and seeking other people's help (if necessary) in career guidance.
- **Ethical / legal matters:** Information basis and knowledge essential for ethical and legal realization of career guidance.
- **Research / evaluation:** knowledge and skills which are coinsidered essential for the understanding and doing research and evaluation in career guidance and development.
- **Technology:** knowledge and skills considered essential for the use of technologies in helping individuals with career planning (Ibidem: 9).

Even though we have to take into account the cultural limits of the importance of these competencies, we consider them significant. Why are these competencies significant? As it was emphsized, they „offer guidelines for minimal competencies necessary for efficient dealing with certain profession or a job within certain field" (Ibidem: 10). Furthermore, „provisions of competences for career guidance can serve as a guide to training programs for career guides or as a checklist for people who want to gain or improve their skills of career guidance" (Ibidem). From the abovementioned fields we can see that practiotioners in this field need whole sets (often of not so related) of knowledge and skills. Taking these sets into account, we can conclude that in conditions when these practitioners deal with certain fields and when the paths of their professional preparation and development are still not beaten, various educational activities and trainings get an important role. A psychologist who deals with career guidance will often lack in parts of knowledge or skills in the area of pedagogical and andragogical counceling. Furthermore, they will certainly need additional knowledge and skills in the area of information technologies. This might be solved by hiring more staff among which everybody will be in charge of one part of work. However, it seems that in practice this would hardly function. Firstly, there are economical reasons. Secondly, it seems that the mere users of these career guidance services

would be left short of effective career guidance. We would like to use this opportunity to emphasize how important it is to consider a set of didactic skills needed to those who work in career guidance, and which are related to education in this field.

As we can conclude on the basis of this section, there are great opportunities and necessity for career guidance trainings. Their importance is exquisite when it comes to the quality of this process. First of all, it is important in terms of the fact that the matter of initial preparation of practitioners in this field is still unsolved. Even in areas where this matter is solved, the training in the sense of additional specialization of workers, and in accordance with the demands related to career management, also finds its place. On the other hand, the quality of career guidance services also depends on the practitioners' training. What is important is that the trainings have to be in accordance with the new career concepts and the contemporary understanding of career guidance.

Some problems and recommendations

Although on the one hand the complexity of practitioners' job descriptions is growing in the field of career guidance, and great efforts to train a great number of practitioners and equip them with necessary competencies, there are still problems which represent great obstacles when it comes to the controbution these trainings make to the career guidance quality. Some of the problems related to trainings for employees in the field of career guidance are mutual to many countries and can be summarized in the following way:

- Governments have been very inactive in defining the content and process of initial training for career guidance practitioners, and in relating these to the goals for public education, training and employment policies. As a result trainers and practitioner associations have developed training programmes quite divorced from public policy objectives.
- National reviews of training for career guidance practitioners take place very infrequently or not at all.
- Significant differences occur in the quality and types of career guidance services that users experience both within and between countries due to significant variations in the training of career guidance practitioners.
- Too often, qualifications in related fields (for example, psychology or pedagogy) are regarded as sufficient for career guidance practi-

tioners, even though such qualifications pay little or no attention to career guidance competencies.

- There are not enough well trained career guidance practitioners to meet demand.
- There is little national data to enable proper human resource planning for career guidance practitioners and investment in training to take place.
- In most countries there are no graded and integrated learning pathways that enable guidance workers to progress from non-expert to expert status. Support staff in career guidance services such as information officers and community liaison staff are provided with no training.
- Too much of the current training is sector-specific, and existing qualification structures do not permit job mobility for career guidance practitioners between employment and education sectors, or even between different sectors of education in some cases.
- There are many gaps in the content of training programmes. These include: skills in ICT use; training for support staff; skills for delivering career education through the curriculum; knowledge of labour market changes; the international dimension of guidance; and how to organise and manage services (OECD,2001, 2004).

Some of these problems could be approached by the following set of recommendations. Some of these recommendations for practitioners training enhancement in the field of career guidance, in the OECD countries are:

- Training should not be grounded in theorethical and philosophical perspectives but should be tied to public policy goals;
- Develop skills/competencies profiles for guidance workers, which could lead to a more flexible qualifications structure with opportunity to progress from first-lene guidance provider to expert status;
- Develop alternance (alternating between work and study) training;
- Provide targeted training for linked professionals and non-professionals, teachers, youth, workers, community organization staff, social workers (ILO, 2006).

What can be spotted at first glance is that these recommendations are aimed towards overcoming the majority of these difficulties. In our opinion, and based on the previously listed problems, a few more recommendations or standpoints could be added to this list, in order to improve the training quality and also the quality of the whole career guidance process.

On the one hand, there is a problem that the trainings were not designed in the way to embrace all the roles career guidance can take: personal, individual role, economic and social role. In this sense, we can say that an important factor in the improvement of career guidance quality is the revision of the training program intended for practitioners. The revision of this program is also important, considering the abovemtntioned fact that there are gaps in the existing ones. Also, there is no constant monitoring of practitioners training in this field. This requires additional mechanisms (and, unfortunately, often finding initial mechanisms) for evaluating efficiency and effectiveness of trainings. A significant difference with respect to practitioners training in this field leaves a great mark on the quality of this process conducting. In this sense, this is one of the steps to discussing standards in this field. What is certainly an important question is also the number of career guides, but also the number of users of this career guidance process. Although this question cannot be solved only through educational measures, what is definitely concerning is the fact that there are not enough people specially trained for the position of a career guide.

Final remarks

This paper has only brought up some of the issues of training in the field of career guidance. Observing trainings in this field has enabled us to locate some of the ways of observing training in this cintext. On the one hand, training can be observed as an element of someone's career, that is – as its inherent part. On the other hand, training could be observed as a way of realizing the process of career guidance, or to be more precise – some of its activities. Concerning this, many skills and great knowledge necessary for the career guidance process are offered to users through the very act of training. Therefore, we can consider the quality of some of the career guidance activities equal to the training quality. Finally, a training could be defined as a prerequisite for development and advancement of the quality guidance process. Hence the trainings directed to practitioners in this field are of special importance. Considering this last manner, we have noticed various trends and problems.

New career concepts have brought new demands with respect to knowledge and skills which are necessary to possess. These skills and knowledge are different also for the expanded target groups that this career guidance is related to. The target groups are pupils, students, unemployed, employed and retired people. As career guidance is a life-long process, different age groups seek their place. As a result, today we have a

strong demand imposed on everyone who wants to (and the majority has to) guide their own career. Another result has been expressed as a need for practitioners to be trained to work with different target groups. This is just one of the requests, but also an illustration of a more complex practitioners' job description in the field of career guidance. Therefore, it is not surprising that the most important connection with the quality guidance quality are actually the workers in this field and their training. We have observed the trainings intended for practitioners in this field. Although it was very hard to include all important matters od training in this field, without at the same time taking into account the plurality of initial preparation of the staff which deals with career guidance, we think it is possible to draw a few conclusions.

Trainings are important when it comes to two questions of carer guidance quality: the relation between staff quality and training is a direct one. We can also talk about indirect one, when we are talking about guidance delivery (because it also depends on the capability of the staff that delivers the guidance). Even though they are important in the matter of quality guidance process, their contribution is „blurred". First of all, the trainings still do not match the emerged needs of practitioners in this field. Of course, this kind of claim cannon be asserted unconditionally. In this moment, we assert it on the basis of the problem analysis, given in the references. However, deliberation of this claim is welcome and requires establishing serious research mechanisms. On the other hand, there is still some vagueness as far as different roles of practitioners are concerned. This requires a clear-cut job descriptions which would meet the demands when it comes to training programs. Finally, studying efficiency and effectiveness of trainings for practitioners must become a part of career guidance quality process care. The lack of this information prevents every serious connection of trainings and career guidance process.

References:

Arnold, J. (2005), *Work psychology: Understanding Human Behavior in the Workplace.* New York: Prentice hall, Financial Times.

Amundson, N., Haris-Boulzbi, Dž., (2010) Najls, S. *Osnovni elementi karijernog savetovanja*. Beograd: Beogradska otvorena škola.

CEDEFOP, (2009), *Professionalising Carrer Guidance – Practitioner Competences and Qualification Routes in Europe.* Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities. Taken on 29.1. 2013. From: http://www.cedefop.europa.eu/en/Files/5193_EN.PDF

ILO, (2006). *Carrer Guidance – A Resource Handbook for Low and Middle Income Countries.* Geneva: International Labour Office. Taken from: 27.1.2012. http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_emp/---ifp_skills/documents/publication/wcms_118211.pdf

Mihajlović, D., Popović, A. (2012). *Karijerno vođenje i savetovanje u evropskim dokumentima.* Obrazovanje odraslih, 2, 27–46.

Ministrarstvo omladine i sporta Republike Srbije (2010). *Strategija karijernog vođenja i savetovanja u Republici Srbiji.* Preuzeto 7.1.2011. sa http://www.mos.gov.rs/upload/dl/OMLADINA/Strategije/strategijakarijernog.pdf

NICE, (2012). *Handbook for the Academic Training of Career Guidance and Counselling Professionals.* Preuzeto 9. 10. 2013. sa: http://www.nicenetwork.eu/fileadmin/erasmus/inhalte/bilder/meine_Dateien/NICE_Handbook/NICE_Handbook_full_version_online.pdf

OECD, (2001). *The Skills, Training and Qualifications of Guidance Workers.* Taken from 11. 10. 2013. sa http://www.oecd.org/education/innovation-education/2698214.pdf

OECD (2001b). *Quality in Career Guidance.* Taken from: 11. 10. 2013. http://www.oecd.org/education/innovation-education/2698228.pdf

OECD, (2004*). Career guidance – A Handbooke for Policy Makers*. Taken from: 7.1.2011. sa http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/53/53/34060761.pdf

Pejatović, A., Pekeč, K. (2011). *Evaluacija u sitemu kvaliteta stručnih obuka za odrasle;* u Kačavenda Radić, N., Pavlović Breneselović, D., Antonijević, R. (ur.): Kvalitet u Obrazovanju, (173– 186). Beograd: Institut za pedagogiju i andragogiju Filozofskog fakulteta.

UNESCO, (2002). *A Handbook on carrer counselling.* Paris: UNESCO. Taken 2.5.2012. from: http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0012/001257/125740e.pdf.

*Kristina Pekeč**

Transfer in Adult Education and Training[1]

This paper focuses on transfer from the perspective of adult education and training. The starting point is the analysis of the different definitions of transfer, followed by types of transfer. Furthermore, the paper discusses the role of transfer in linking adult education and training to a workplace. Special attention is given to the transfer research which contains various factors relevant to transfer– characteristics of participants, impact of the environment or context (primarily the work environment), the significance of curriculum design, as well as the conditions necessary to ensure the transfer. The analysis results show that the transfer research methodology should be improved, It is better to question employees than students (pupils), and pay more attention to the theoretical framework of the research. The main recommendation is to take into account the conditions that will ensure positive transfer, when designing the curriculum.

Key words: transfer of learning, transfer of training, adult education, work environment.

Introduction

For a long time has been debated what knowledge should be taught, which science is the most important, which subjects should be included in school curriculum and, and what is it that will bring us the most use-

ful knowledge and skills for work and life. These issues have been discussed throughout history, perceptions and current paradigms have been changed and the have often led to changes in the organization of educational institutions. Not only has the number of the basic subjects changed, but also their content, scope, and approach to teaching and learning. One thing common to all these situations is the belief that transfer will occur and that, all that we learn in life in different types of classes will be of use to us later in life and work: „Transfer is a key concept in adult learning theories because most education and training aspires to transfer. The end goals of training and education are not achieved unless transfer occurs" (Subedi, 2004, p. 592). However, the exact answer to the question to what extent can the knowledge acquired by attending classes according to a pre-defined curriculum be transferred to a working environment, can't be given. This paper aims to clarify the concept of transfer of learning and training from different point of views, with a special focus on the area of adult education and studies that examine the factors affecting the transfer from education to work environment.

Transfer in adult education and training

Can the knowledge acquired through formal or non-formal education be transferred into practice or to what extent is it usable in a specific workplace? There are various studies trying to answer this question. The term „transfer" derives from Latin – „transferre" and in its original form means „to transfer":„The whole system of education and training of any kind is based on the assumption that the acquired knowledge and skills can be applied in the acquisition of new knowledge, skills and in life situations" (Trebješanin, 2004, p. 509).

Definitions of transfer. Table 1 provides an overview of the different definitions of learning transfer in domestic and foreign literature. First of all, it is necessary to clear up a dilemma that inevitably arises here: whether this paper is about 'transfer of learning' or 'transfer of training'. Authors who study transfer from educational and training environment to work environment (or broadly – to different context) use both terms, with somewhat the same meaning, which the review of the data in Table 1 indicates. Although we understand the need to resolve the terminological confusion, we are not convinced that such a solution can be achieved in educational sciences, especially having in mind the number of different languages, different authors, diversity in practice of education and philosophical ideas that are behind these differences (Pekec & Radujko, 2011, p.

65 – 73). Merriam and Leahy use terms transfer of learning and training interchangeably in their review, taking into account in their study „learning transfer from both training and adult education" (2005, p. 2), the solution that we also decided to chose. Not everyone will agree with that solution, but, as Subedi says „the focus of the debate should be on issues and problems of transfer rather than on the terms" (2004, p. 594) and we couldn't agree more.

Table 1: Review of selected definitions of transfer of learning from the field of adult education, psychology and management

Author/ Year of publication	Definitions of transfer of learning and transfer of training
Ripple and Drinkwater, 1947.	„Transfer of learning is a fundamental assumption of educators. We trust that whatever is learned will be retained or remembered over some interval of time and used in appropriate situations"
Pecjak, 1965.	"Transferring effects from one overcome and mastered activitie to learning and practicing other activities"
Andrilovic, 1988.	"The impact of prior knowledge and experience to the success of further learning, in the same or related fields"
Baldwin and Ford, 1988.	„Transfer of training can be defined as the application of knowledge, skills and attitudes learned from training on the job and subsequent maintenance of them over a certain period of time"
Broad and Newstrom, 1992.	„The effective and continuing application by trainees to their jobs, of knowledge and skills gained in training – both on and off the job"
Fogarty et al., 1992.	„Real transfer happens when people carry over something they learned in one context to a 'significantly different' context"
Gagne et al., 1993.	„Transfer is the application of knowledge learned in one setting or for one purpose to another setting and/or purpose"
Caffarella, 1994.	"Assisting people to make changes is what transfer of learning is all about –changes in themselves, other people, practices, organizations, and/or society"

Belcourt and Wright, 1995.	"Transfer refers to the implementation in the work environment of the skills acquired during the training program, and the maintenance of those acquired skills over time"
Perkins and Salomon, 1996.	„In a sense any learning requires a modicum of transfer. To say that learning has occurred means that the person can display that learning later"
Broad, 1997.	„The effective and continuing application by learners – to their performance of jobs or their individual, organizational, or community responsibilities – of knowledge and skills gained in learning activities"
Subedi, 2004.	„Transfer of training is defined as the extent of retention and application of the knowledge, skills and attitudes from the training environment to the workplace anvironment. In other words, transfer of training is the degree to which trainees effectively apply the learning from a training context to the job"
Trebjesanin, 2004.	"Transfer of the effects of prior learning on further learning"
Merriam and Leahy, 2005.	„Transfer can be defined broadly as 'the effective and continuing application by learners – to their performance of jobs or their individual, organizational, or community responsibilities – of knowledge and skills gained in learning activities'"
Leberman, McDonald and Doyle, 2006.	"Seen in the specific context of transfer, following an identified period of learning related to an individual's place of work, transfer is the process of applying skills, knowledge and attitudes acquired during a training programme to the work place"
Taylor, 2007.	"Transfer of training occurs when previous knowledge and/or abilities influence the way in which new knowledge and skills are learned and performed"

The analysis of the definitions (Table 1) from adult education, psychology, management shows that, depending on the authors' field of study, different aspects of the transfer may be more or less emphasized. By this we mean that, in psychological definitions, transfer is more often defined as the effect of previous learning on further learning. In other fields, this is quite a general definition. On the other hand, the definitions in the area of adult education emphasize the possibility of application of learning in future situations; more specifically, the transfer occurs when the acquired knowledge and skills can successfully be used in different contexts. Especially often quoted is the definition once given by Baldwin

and Ford (as cited in Cheng and Ho, 2001, Daffron and North, 2011, Merriam and Leahy, 2005), which emphasizes the time flow during which the participants continuously apply knowledge acquired during education and training. *International Encyclopedia of Adult Education and Training* (Tuijnman, 1996) gives a fairly broad definition of learning transfer, close to those provided by psychologists, and which states that, in fact, every learning contains (or should contain) transfer. This could be proven and by switching thesis: does the learning happen if what we have learned before can't be used later.

Have we really learned anything if the transfer never happened? From the economic point of view, having in mind all the the financial resources that are invested in the education and training of personnel employed, employees in the field of management.should search for the answer to this question. As an example, Daffron and North (2011) provide an information according to which, in the early '80s, was spent 100 billion dollars on training and development, and less than 10% resulted in a transfer to workplace. Perhaps because of this, the definitions of the authors in this field suggest that the transfer is, in fact, transfer of knowledge and skills from education to working environment. And more often, the performance of employees is emphasized. Also, they use the term 'transfer of training' instead of 'transfer of learning' more frequently, although the terminology dilemma discussed earlier in this paper, still exists.

Types of transfer. The question of the importance and scope of theoretical and/or practical share in education and training is linked to the question of what kind of transfer is preferred. In literature it is often found the transfer divisions to positive and negative transfer, general and specific transfer (lateral and vertical), close and distance transfer (Andrilovic, 1988, Graham, 2001, Leberman, McDonald, Doyle, 2006, Merriam, Leahy, 2005). The difference between the positive transfer – when prior learning makes mastering new learning easier, and the negative transfer – when what was learned earlier impedes new learning, could be seen as the difference in the effects of the transfer.

The second given transfer division is of particular interest for us. Andrilović talks about the phenomenon of transfer of learning as "the impact of previous knowledge and experience to the effectiveness of new learning in the same or related fields" (1988, p. 44). In that sense he differs specific or vertical transfer, or transfer of knowledge and experience within the same field or subject (eg, mathematics, foreign languages) "where the specific knowledge and skills are the essential conditions in learning the following, higher knowledge and skills" (p. 44). The second type is general or lateral transfer which indicates the transfer of knowledge from

one area to another, but also serves to indicate the transfer of knowledge and skills from theory to various practical situations. Merriam i Leahy explain this division to specific and 'nonspecific' transfer as: „Specific transfer is the literal transfer of what is learned, in other words, those practices and skills exhibited in training are later exhibited in much the same way within the workplace environment. Nonspecific transfer involves more general skills or principles" (2005, p. 3–4).

Linking education and training to work environment. Bearing in mind the previous discussion, the question of range and connectivity of the education and training and the work environment arises. From the perspective of the labor market, specifically – employment or employability, when developing the curriculum it is necessary to provide an individual to perform work roles and tasks within their occupation or profession, but also allow him to, depending on labor market needs, perform tasks in similar or related occupations (Despotović, 2010, p. 99). Dilemmas in the content, or the ultimate goals and purposes of education and training, are the most transparent in discussions regarding the development of the curriculum. Zuga offered one of the classification of different approaches to curriculum development with respect to the issue discussed here. Zuga (as cited in Despotovic, 2010) lists five different approaches: 1) academic and rational, which emphasizes the knowledge grouped into disciplines, ie broad areas of knowledge, and the goal is preserving cultural heritage; 2) technical-utilitarian, behavioral approach focused on the development of professional skills, ie preparation for work through job analysis or task analysis; 3) intellectual procedural, where the emphasis is on the development of critical thinking, increasing the efficiency of learning and transfer of problem solving skills to other areas of life and work; 4) Social, which emphasizes the adaptation to existing society or encourages its changes, and focuses on the application of knowledge in real work and life situations; 5) personal approach that emphasizes the active role of students who participate in curriculum design, while the teacher helps the students identify their needs and find the proper resources (p. 66–69).

Different philosophical orientation, related to problems of transfer of learning, lie in the basis of different approaches. It is important to remember that the knowledge acquired in the process of education is almost never used in the same context in which it was acquired (with the exception of training in terms of acquiring specific skills to perform a single work task), which further complicates its transfer. Furthermore, occupations or professions are different from the roles and functions they contain. These roles and functions, though defined, are not specified in terms of the criteria that must be met for their successful performance. So, for many occupation it is only necessary to meet the requirement related to the proper level of education, plus work experience in the broad field

of work, and sometimes an additional training is required (Despotović, 2010). For example, in management occupations there are no prescribed criteria for success in completing tasks – directing and controlling the activities of labor organizations. So, people of different professions can apply for management positions. On the other hand, there is,for example, highly specified meteorology profession (in short-and long-term weather forecast) and as such provides employment opportunities only for professionals with that particular occupation.

For further improvement of employability, in the basic program, consisting of specific learning outcomes, for preparation of experts "outcomes that have great transferable value are also introduced – the outcomes from related/close occupations and general, ie generic outcomes" (Despotović, 2010, p. 100). This provides a higher transfer from one occupation to another; from the field in which we are initially trained, to another area of work for which there is a greater demand on the labor market. With this in mind, the transfer of knowledge from education to work can be observed at the level of job performance within our profession, but also at the level of performance of tasks within the professions that we are not initially qualified for.

An important research on the topic of compliance of initial education and employment, within employed graduates, was conducted in 2007 by Carmel and colleagues within the National Centre for Vocational Education Research in Australia (Karmel et al., 2008). They classified all the occupations in eight groups: managers, professionals, technicians and trades workers, community and personal service workers, clerical and administrative workers, sales workers, machinery operators and drivers and laborers. The results indicate that the average coherence between completed education (level and type of education and study) and work in major occupational groups is 47,8%, and in subgroups 36,6% (acc. Despotović, 2010, p. 101). Only 18.8% of trained managers are employed in their occupational group. On the other hand, 66% of employees from the group of technicians and trades workers perform some of the tasks they are trained for. The minimum coherence of education and work was found for professionals in the field of art and media (7,5%), and the maximum for workers in the field of electrotechnology and telecommunications (85.7%). Authors consider that the primary cause of such variability is the domination of transferable outcomes in some professions, ie greater specification of outcomes in other professions (p. 103).

It is known that, for one's success in the labor market, planning and development of key competencies (not only professional competence) is necessary in education and training. Csajka and Walterin, in their study on the need to encourage the development of key competencies with young adults who are trained to be educators in the field of adult educa-

tion, say: „The permanent struggle of finding and keeping a job could be successful if we make up for these insufficiencies of educational system related to key competencies" (2009, p. 46). Unfortunately, in this paper we do not have space enough to go in more details and dedicate ourselves to the problem of key competencies, so for now we must be satisfied only by emphasizing their importance in the study of the problem of transfer from classroom to the workplace environment.

Studies on transfer in adult education and training

Studies on transfer vary widely in terms of methods and techniques of research. Differences arise from a different perception of transfer (theoretical framework) and because of that there are different approaches to the study of transfer. We will present some of the researches that focus on adult participant, his learning experience and opinion on the knowledge transfer . After that, we will review some of the previous transfer researches and discuss variables and methods and research techniques (what and how to question regarding the knowledge transfer).

An interesting study is the one conducted by Sara Leberman (Leberman et al., 2006, p. 61–71), participants were 47 adult subjects who completed the program of education and training for insurance company managers, implemented at the University of Wellington. Data were collected using semi-structured and unstructured interviews (interviews were conducted "face to face" and by telephone) and realization of focus groups. The data were collected one year after the completion of training, three times with a gap of six months (during the last test the number of examinees dropped to 38). The purpose of this study was to identify the factors affecting the transfer of knowledge from education to work environment. Additionally, the research also aimed to find a training model that would optimize the knowledge transfer.

The results obtained by Leberman showed that the key factor that enhances the transfer from education to work environment is the development of education and training programs based on experiential/active learning, which includes programs for both professional and personal development of the individual, as well as the practical work in the field (2005, p. 63). Basing on this interviews, the author concludes that learning should be focused on students and it should enable them to learn from their personal and professional experiences. She emphasized the need for personal development of the individual (self-awareness, confidence in own ability, sensitivity to others, etc.), particularly in the area of working

with people. The results show that, in addition to education at the university and practical training in the working environment, personal growth and development of students is really important for successful transfer from the world of education to world of work.

In his case study, McDonald (acc. Leberman et al., 2006, p. 73–88) drew attention to the importance of socio-cultural context of the knowledge transfer from the educational to work environment. The study monitored the project for professional development of teachers done on a group of Polynesian islands in the period 1995–2001. The project's goal was to enable teachers to work with all students (also to train teachers to work with people with special needs). The aim of this study was to investigate the influence of the environment, the context, more precisely – the cultural context and its significance for the knowledge transfer from training to workplace. The research team observed the process of education and teacher training, and examined participants and trainers in the preparatory phase (before training), the phase of implementation of the program of professional training (during training) and evaluation phase of the program (after completion of the training of teachers).

The results showed that, through all the stages, the key factor in transferring knowledge acquired during training on the labor situation was the factor of social support. McDonald points out that the support of social environment is of great importance for the transfer of knowledge, skills and attitudes acquired during process of education. In this particular case, the social environment consists of colleagues, director, but also the family and the Ministry of Education. When talking about the transferability of skills in the field of higher education, it should be pointed out that "it is necessary to wonder what differs one social context from another to such an extent that it can be a challenge for the transfer of skills" (Leberman et al., 2006, p73).

So, if we expect transfer to happen, on the one hand, we have to consider the context in which knowledge is acquired and, on the other hand, the context in which we expect this knowledge to be applied. With this in mind we can not but wonder whether the problem of the transfer from education to working environment is in the world of education, or perhaps in the world of work?

Another study that puts emphasis on the importance of students' motivation to transfer is the one conducted by Stephanie Doyle (acc. Leberman et al., 2006) during 2000 and 2001 in New Zealand. The sample consisted of 245 adult students (over half of the respondents were over 35 years) who completed a questionnaire regarding their experience of learning and transfer. 30 of them participated in in-depth interviews. Most of

them were employed indefinitely. Another thing that distinguishes this study from others is the fact that the subjects studied online, at the Open Polytechnic University, business direction. Particularly interesting is the author's interest to investigate the transfer of specialized professional knowledge and skills, but also the skills that include the ability to adapt, creative thinking, critical thinking, flexibility, problem solving.

The findings indicate that distance learning contributes to transfer because it enables the integration of "learning and living." This method of study helps teachers and students find examples from everyday life and work situations and solve them together, and adult learners (employees) had the opportunity to apply and try out different solutions in the workplace (on the job). Active participation of students in shaping the curriculum is also important, which in particular contributes to their motivation for learning, and thus the transfer of knowledge. The author emphasizes the need to identify transfer learning as one of the outcomes, or rather – essential outcome in programs of education and training. And as such, should be explicitly defined in the development, implementation and evaluation of educational programs and courses. In this study, the emphasis is on the opinions and attitudes of the participants.

We have seen that different studies emphasize different factors relevant for transfer – characteristics of participants (abilities, personality features, motivation, aspiration), the effect of the environment or context (especially the working environment where it is expected the knowledge and skills to be used, support of the environment), the importance of designing the curriculum of education and training (content, methods, design of the program). Baldwin and Ford (acc. Cheng Ho, 2001) add a research that focuses on the conditions of transfer (generalization, opportunities for exercise).

Reviewing the studies on the transfer realized in the period 1989 – –1998., Cheng and Ho (2001, p. 106) singled out four groups of variables that appeared: The first group consists of variables related to the individual, which include control locus and self-efficacy. The second group of variables is called the motivational variables and includes: attitudes towards work and career, commitment to the organization, decisions about training and response to training and intervention after the training (according to authors, learning that occurred after the completion of training). The third group consists of environment variables: support within the organization (working environment), a culture of continuous learning and improvement, as well as the requirements and limitations arising from work tasks that employees perform. Finally, as the dependent variables in this studies, Cheng and Ho identified the process of learning (education), performance of students in terms of knowledge and skills, and the outcome

of the transfer (whether and to what extent the transfer occurred from training to field of work).

Also other authors, reviewing papers and research on transfer, singled out similar key factors that are important in the research of transferring knowledge and skills (Merriam, Leahy, 2005). Thus Mbavu states (Leberman et al., 2006), the five aspects or factors that are associated with the transfer: characteristics of students/participants, organisational climate, training design, learning styles and teaching styles. With these generalizations, we must not overlook the fact that, within these groups there are significant variations depending on the criteria that different authors take during classification.

Conclusion

> *What you get by achieving your goals*
> *is not as importantas what you become*
> *by achieving your goals.*
>
> Henry D. Thoreau

The diversity of approaches to the transfer study showed in this paper on the one hand contributes to further development of research and studies of transfer, but on the other hand a flaw is that it limits the understanding of the process of transferring knowledge. According to Baldwin and Ford (as cited in Cheng Ho, 2001, p. 104), the main limitations and problems of research of transfer from education and training to work environment are:

1) The criteria problem of how researchers define the concept of transfer, how it is operationalised and measured;

2) The low complexity of the instruments used to measure the transfer from education and training to workplace (measuring the transfer of knowledge, skills and attitudes from trainings to a later performance);

3) The lack of model or conceptual framework that would show what are the characteristics relevant to transfer;

4) The lack of attempts to conceptualise and operationalise the factors related to working environment, which may affect the transfer.

In order to overcome the existing problems, the methodology of transfer research should be improved. Subedi emphasizes this aspect and

says: "Transfer does not just happen. It is a process that requires implementation of carefully planned strategies to facilitate positive transfer. It is equally important to minimise the effects of factors that are recognised as barriers or as causes of barriers to transfer" (2004, p. 593). Cheng and Ho (2001) suggest that the employees should be interrogated, not students, because it can give real data on whether and to what extent transfer is achieved. A request to dedicate more attention to theoretical framework of studies is a base for improvement of the transfer research methodology, and a draft for every new study derives from there. When analyzing different definitions of transfers in this paper, we have touched upon one part of the problem of terminology and conceptual overview of transfers, not enough to solve this problem, but enough to mark it and understand.

We will conclude this paper by giving some recommendations for enhancing transfer from adult education and training, based on the analysis of 40 empirical studies realized since 1990, given by Merriam and Leahy (2005). These recommendations clearly state that: firstly – "participants should be included in planning of educational program", second – "strategies for transfer should be built into the program design", and that there is a need for insurance "a supportive transfer climate" in work environment (p. 14–16). From the andragogical viewpoint, the need to involve transfer strategies in curriculum design is emphasized, given that this is an aspect that was largely neglected, but essential to our studies and theories. It is time to put the knowledge, acquired by studying the problem of transfer, into the service of enhancing the practice of adult education, and the best way to do that is to take into account what provides a positive transfer when designing curriculum.

List of References

Andrilović, V., & Čudina, M. (1988). *Psihologija učenja i nastave*. Zagreb: Školska knjiga.

Cheng, E.W.L., & Ho, D.C.K. (2001). A rewiew of transfer of training studies in the past decade. *Personnel Review, Vol. 30. No. 1*, 102–118.

Csajka, E.S., & Walter S.I. (2009). Potential for improvement of key competences in a special field of higher education. *Andragoške studije, I*, 47–66.

Daffron S.R., & North M.W. (2011). *Successful Transfer of Learning (Professional Practices in Adult Education and Lifelong Learning)*. Melbourne: Krieger Publishing Company.

Der Radivojević, A. (2010). Stvaranje klime za prenos znanja i veština u radnoj organizaciji. *Andragoške studije, 1*, 77–90.

Despotović, M. (2010). *Razvoj kurikuluma u stručnom obrazovanju: pristup usmeren na kompetencije*. Beograd: Filozofski fakultet.

Graham, G. (2001). *Transfer of learning: from classroom to workplace*. Calgary: Faculty of Continuing Education, University of Calgary.

Karmel, T., Mlotovski, P., & Awodeyi, T. (2008) *Is VET vocational? The relevance of training to the occupations of vocational education and training graduates*. Adelaida: National Centre for Vocational Education Research (NCVER).

Leberman, S., McDonald, L., & Doyle, S. (2006). *The transfer of learning: Participants' perspectives of adult education and training*. Hampshire: Gower Publishing Limited.

Merriam, S.B., & Leahy, B. (2005). Learning Transfer: A Review of the Research in Adult Education and Training. *PAACE Journal of Lifelong Learning, Vol. 14*, 1–24. Retrieved from: http://www.iup.edu/assets/0/347/349/4951/4977/10267/F66B135A-DB09–4BA0–8D20-90D751AF39B6.pdf

Pečjak, V. (1965). *Transfer u učenju*. Beograd: RAD.

Pekeč, K., & Radujko, B. (2011). Teorijski pluralizam i/ili monizam u naukama o vaspitanju: kojim putem treba poći. *Inovacije u nastavi*, 3, 65-73.

Subedi, B.S. (2004). Emerging Trends of Research on Transfer of Learning. *International Education Journal, Vol 5, No 4*. Retrieved from: http://ehlt.flinders.edu.au/education/iej/articles/v5n4/subedi/paper.pdf

Trebješanin, Ž. (2004). *Rečnik psihologije*. Beograd: Stubovi kulture.

Tuijnman A.C. (ed.) (1996). *International Encyclopedia of Adult Education and Training*. Oxford: Elsevier Science.

III
EDUCATION REFORM
AND EDUCATION POLICY

*Vera Spasenović**

Emina Hebib

Education Policy Between Global Tendencies in Education and Local Needs

This paper deals with the issue of opportunities and challenges facing education policy of a country in its attempts to harmonise specific needs of its own education system with global education tendencies. Key changes in the operation modes of the European education systems which are the results of declared tendencies and directions of education development in the international context are highlighted and explained: quality assurance and development of education system, strengthening equity in education, competency-based curriculum development and development of management system in education. The paper also gives an overview of characteristics of social and cultural context which are seen as determinants of successful education system development The authors argue that education system reforms should be guided by global trends in education, as well as by local needs, closely connected to specific context in which the national system of education operates. Social, cultural, economic and educational context represents a background determining realistic scope of education system development. It is concluded that changes in the field of education need to be created and implemented in line with the contextual determinants, that is, with conditions within which educational work takes place, by specific educational needs and real possibilities for their implementation.

Key words: education systems, education policy, global tendencies in education, specific local needs.

*   University of Belgrade, Faculty of Philosophy, Belgrade, Serbia

Introduction

Lately it has been intensively discussed in professional circles what determines effects of operation of education systems and success in implementing developmental and reform processes in the field of education. In considering characteristics and prerequisites for success in implementing the educational reforms the importance of keeping track of international trends in the field of education is often emphasised on one hand, while preserving its own education tradition is highlighted on the other hand. Hence a very important issue is raised of whether and under which conditions it is possible to establish and assure a satisfactory level of balance between keeping track of international trends in education development and appreciating specific characteristics of the context in which an individual education system operates. The importance of the issue mentioned comes from the fact that it often happens that, in an effort to assure and develop quality of education in one's own environment, practical solutions are uncritically taken over from the foreign education systems. Thus, in the process of development and implementation of the policy and strategy of education development and the education system of one's own country, it happens that practical solutions from other areas are applied without modification and alignining with specific social and cultural conditions. It is not surprising therefore that from the beginning of the XX century a growing number of authors indicate the importance of specific social and cultural conditions in which a system operates, and accordingly, the dangers of ''borrowing'' someone else's education policy and practice and their transfer into a completely different context.

In the text that follows notes and explanations are given on key changes in the ways European education systems operate, which are the result of declared tendencies and directions of education development in the international context. In addition, an overview is given on the characteristics of social and cultural context which are seen as determinants of successful operation and development of the education system. Both issues mentioned are analysed as a starting point in development and implementation of education policy. Namely, this paper attempts to answer the question of issues and challenges a country's education policy is faced with in its efforts to harmonise global tendencies in education and specific needs of operation of own education system.

Education policy – meaning and significance

Regulation of the education system, developed education policy and education development strategy can be seen as key assumptions for suc-

cessful functioning of the education system. It is often stated that one of the reasons for unsatisfactory operation quality level of education systems is underdeveloped and ineffective education policy and education development strategy. Thus, it can be asked what is actually understood by education policy, what are indicators of developed education policy and against what its effectiveness is determined. The last issue stated is particularly important if we bear in mind that very important goals of social development are achieved by education – in addition to economic development and democratisation of the society, integration of one's own country into the international community, but with preservation and development of the national culture and authenticity – appear as one of the key goals of social development in most European countries in the last decades.

The phrase education policy, although increasingly used in professional circles, still causes numerous doubts due to the difficulties in defining its meaning and content. Education policy is a segment of public policy or public action policy, which is most often defined as a set of meaningful and purposeful actions aimed at achieving goals that try to respond to specific needs, that is, as an elaborated approach or action strategy based on decisions made implemented by the government body having legal, political and financial powers to do so (Jang and Kvin, 2002; Espinoza, 2010). The issue that can be raised is how public policy in certain areas of social action is developed. Since changes in the field of education are not changes of technical nature, but have their political, economic and social dimension (Haddad, 1995), a political action in this domain refers, first of all, to strategic and developmental action. Education policy is a field of public action of authorities in the field of education with the aim to use the available resources most efficiently and most productively in solving issues in operation of the education system and in the practice of educational work (Radó, 2010). In addition to identification of issues whose solving is to be effectively directed, development and implementation of education policy involves defining goals of education development and the education system, that is ..."the purpose of once developed and created education policy (is) changing the education practice..." (Espinoza, 2010, p. 99). Development and functionality of education policy is manifested in practice through engaging authorities and using resources in the change process, i.e, through activities which affect the behaviour of indirect actors of the education process in order to direct it to solving issues in operation of educational institutions (Radó, 2010). From the above stated it follows that "creating" education policy is an extremely complex and responsible task accompanied by numerous challenges.

One of the key challenges faced by those responsible for the course and results of the process of development and implementation of education policy is "weighing" meaningfulness, purposefulness and functiona-

lity of changes introduced into the practice of educational work in order to improve quality of education system operating. More specifically, it is a challenge to conceptualise changes in the practice of education system operation, which will, in line with the effects, make it competitive in the international context, and recognisible and specific to the organisation and the operation mode, since it will be based on knowledge, comprehension and appreciation of factors (political, economic, social, cultural) shaping the national education system.

Main tendencies in education development in the European countries as a starting point in education policy development

The need to keep track of modern tendencies in education development has resulted in clarifying certain tendencies in education system development in the European countries. The reform processes in the field of education, initiated and implemented in the European countries in the period of the 80s of the XX century to the present, are characterised by a focus on assurance and development of education quality (Hebib, 2013). Assurance and development of education quality, as the main tendency in education development in the European countries, is closely related to and partly identified with the orientation to provide conditions for the achievement of equality and equity in education and with the focus on improvement of effectiveness and efficiency of the education system operation. The focus on improvement of effectiveness and efficiency of the education system operation nevertheless results in basing the school programmes on defined competences which are to be developed with students and participants, as well as in changes in the management system in the field of education. Some brief notes on the selected tendencies are given below.

Assurance and development of education quality. Although making efforts to assure and improve school education quality are manifested in various ways in the European education systems, it is possible to highlight several key mechanisms by which this process is carried out: development and application of various forms of control over the work of educational institutions and employees in education; continuous and systematic monitoring of results of educational work (assessment of educational effectiveness); development, application and strengthening new management models in the field of education based on the idea on autonomy of educational institutions and professional autonomy of employees in education; development of professional support system and support to employees in education in order to improve the practice of their own work and take

responsibility for the results of educational work; strengthening of material and human resources in the field of education... Regardless of which of the mechanisms mentioned is applied (separately or combined), assurance and development of education quality implies development and application of the complex system of evaluation in the field of education. Development of the evaluation system in the field of education occurs in parallel with implementation of various forms of decentralisation in the operation practice in the European education systems, that is, in parallel with the process of distribution of authority and responsibility in the field of education (Hebib, 2013). Standardisation of different segments of educational work in the European education systems occurs as an assumption, the accompanying element, but also as a result of development of the evaluation system in education and application of different types of evaluation of educational work.

Achievement of equality and equity in education. Based on the idea on the need for democratisation of society and respecting the right to education and the right to participation, achievement of equality (equal opportunities) in education occurs as a starting principle on which education system should be founded and the practice of educational work in all EU countries. It is notable that majority of the European countries intensively undertakes various measures (financial, administrative and pedagogical) to provide equal opportunities for education for all. The practical achievement of the idea on equality in education refers, among other things, to the generally accepted and applied inclusive approach in education. Namely, in the European context there is the tendency to, whenever possible, include children and young people with special education needs in regular institutions, but with the provision of prerequisites for a specific treatment in the education process. Advocating for achieving equality in education refers also to the possibility of returning to the education system to those who prematurely left it ("second chance"), by creating opportunities for education and work, as well as by taking turns in the periods of schooling and work.

Education programmes based on defined competences which are to be developed with students and participants. Perceiving education as a process of development of human resources and investments into human capital in order to provide not only individual, but also a social progress, results in focusing on the quality of education outcomes expressed in the category of accomplished academic achievements and on assessment of results of educational work (Zajda, 2010). Focusing on education outcomes expressed in the category of accomplished academic achievements necessarily "produces" changes of the conception of educational programmes and their foundation on previously defined key competences to be developed with students and participants. Key competences (which are to be

developed by the end of compulsory education and which make the basis for lifelong learning) are defined as a transferrable, multifunctional set of knowledge, skills and habits needed to all for personal fulfillment and development, inclusion in social life and for employment. The European Commission defined the following eight domains of key competences (with the description of knowledge, skills and attitudes corresponding to each domain): communication in the mother tongue; communication in foreign languages; mathematical competence and basic competences in science and technology; digital (IT) competence; learning to learn; social and civic competences; sense of initiative and entrepreneurship; cultural awareness and expression (*Key competences for lifelong learning*, 2007). The defined domains of the key competences represent a framework for guiding national education policies and actions of all those responsible for creating conditions for learning, with the possibility of adapting them to specific social, cultural and linguistic circumstances.

Although the way of adopting educational programmes is not the same in all European countries, and though programme documents on the basis of which educational work takes place do not have the same structure and content in different education systems, all European countries work intensively on the reform of education programmes. Work on the reform of education programmes, which is often accompanied by establishment of special bodies or agencies responsible for programmes and evaluation in education, results in the following changes: increasing the degree of autonomy of local authorities and institutions in the ways of programme implementation (in the countries which traditionally had programmes designed in great details), especially when it comes to time organisation of the education process (prescriptiveness is decreased, while local flexibility is increased); increasing the degree of control of programme implementation, especially in terms of achievements accomplished (in the countries with a great degree of local and school autonomy); understanding education as a process of learning and development (Le Matais, 2003; Kärkkäinen, 2012; Sahlberg, 2007).

Reconceptualisation and development of management system in the field of education. Among theoreticians, as well as among practitioners, a generally accepted attitude is that management in the field of education is one of the important assumptions of success in education systems operation. Along with the development of theoretical knowledge on importance and function of management in the field of education, there are new types and forms in education which are developed and applied in practice.

In the European countries in which a certain form of decentralisation in the field od education was used, important results were achieved in application of management on the level of educational institutions (*school-based management*) which is directly related to providing space for autonomy of

institutions and professional autonomy of employees in education. In the operation practice of the European education systems strategic (or development) planning of work of educational institutions is increasingly being applied, which is seen as one of the ways to better educational work quality. The changes being conducted in majority European countries in the area of management in the field of education, relate, in addition to the above mentioned, to the review of distribution of authorities and responsibilities, that is, redefining the role of authority on different levels of management in education. In parallel, efforts are being made towards capacity building for management in the field of education relating to: development and application of the functional system of professional education and professional development of employees in education; establishment and development of the system of efficient communication between different levels of management and leadership in the field of education in order to assure coordinated actions; establishment and development of partnership between different actors of the education system; development of implementation plans aligned with the contextual features... (Datnow et al., 2006).

Changes in the area of management in the field of education in the European context are also connected with the development and implementation of the new system of financing education which actualises the need for numerous and different sources of financing and empowerment of material and technical resources for educational work.

In summary, it could be said that in the European education systems it is aspired to the development of a stable leadership of the education system which implies a shift from the so-called bureaucratic, directive model of system management to strengthening responsibility of all actors of the education system for education quality. This does not diminish, but emphasises the role of bodies responsible for education, since their actions should be directed towards the following: designing of necessary innovations in the field of education and development of the most functional ways of implementing changes in educational practice (concept and strategy of education development); monitoring and analysis of results achieved in implementing planned and defined changes (with a necessary modification of the defined solutions based on the results from practice and the needs of the practice); development and implementation of quality control systems of educational work (with specifying and affirming examples of good practice).

Specific needs in operation of education systems as a starting point in education policy development

Development of education systems is determined by numerous, inter-related and mutually conditioned factors. Characteristics of a socio-polit-

ical system and a socio-government organisation, the degree of economic and cultural development of the country, education tradition represent factors of development of education systems which are most often in the literature referred to as key factors. Namely, operation of education systems, as well as their development, occurs in a particular context and in line with the characteristics of the context. Characteristics of socio-cultural, economic and educational context represent not only guidelines, but sometimes limits of the development of the education system. Although the goals of the education system development are always compatible with the defined objectives of general social development, contextual characteristics largely determine the direction and scope of development changes in the field of education, in the same way as available resources and education tradition determine their ranges (Cummings, 2010). From the above stated it follows that it is necessary to create and implement changes in the field of education in line with the characteristics of the context, that is, in line with the conditions in which educational work takes place, with the concrete educational needs and real opportunities for their implementation.

The importance of knowing, understanding and respecting the characteristics of the context in which the education system operates is particularly evident in the school reform process. Even under the conditions when the reform process is initiated with the intent to follow trends and tendencies of education development in international contexts (among others due to the integration into the common education area), it is not rare that it ends up in reaffirmation of the inherited education practice and practical solutions in the educational work which belong to the education tradition of the specific environment. Namely, the practice of educational work does not change in an easy and simple way. The knowledge itself about the education systems in which good quality (meaning – effective) school work is implemented, and an insight into the operation practice of schools in those systems, are not a sufficient guarantee that in one's own environment the same results will be achieved even when the same practical solutions are applied. Successful school reforms are undoubtedly the result of good ideas, but also of the conditions under which those ideas were developed and the conditions in which the solutions based on those ideas are implemented. Instead of taking over ready-made ideas and practical solutions from other education systems, it would be more effective to create similar or same conditions for reform implementation as were in the education systems which had been successfully reformed. Good school practice is, among other things, the result of knowing and understanding the context in which it is implemented. One of the possible answers to the question of why school reforms fail is neglecting the previously stated attitudes.

The previous experience in development and reform of education systems have shown that throughout the history there were a lot of examples of uncritical taking over and transfering somebody else's ideas, and that the effects of those efforts were mainly unsatisfactory, since the local conditions and needs were not taken into account (Spasenović, 2013). For example, after World War II the reforms of the education systems in the East European countries were implemented by largely taking over, i.e "copying" the Soviet model (from legal solutions and leading education policy to the content of certain textbooks), while the Japanese system was reformed in line with the Western (primarily American) education model. "Transposing" solutions from other areas is particularly evident in the countries under the colonial rule, where the colonial powers developed the education systems on the principles and in the way education operated in the countries the colonizers came from (Grant, 2000). Negative effects of this practice are also evident when it comes to the consultancy help of various experts from international organisations who were engaged during the last years or decades in reforming education in many developing countries (Steiner-Khamsi, 2004).

Relying on experiences of others in order to improve one's own system is present today, too, which means that the melioristic function of comparison in the field of education, as some authors emphasise, have not lost its importance (Hörner, 2000; Hörner & Döbert, 2007), but it is now implemented in a different way. It is expected that ways and effects of operation of the education systems of foreign countries attract attention of scientists, researchers, representatives of educational authorities and practitioners. Pragmatic reasons are often found in the basis of these interests: to consider experiences of others and to take over those solutions which are considered to be more advanced. On one hand, decision-makers in education seek for (and sometimes they are offered) examples of good practice ('best practice') they could apply in their own system. On the other hand, even when education authorities do not show explicit efforts to change anything in the field of education in their environment, it is hard to remain isolated from global trends and tendencies in education which inevitably influence education policy of each country, especially under the conditions of integration processes and economic competitiveness. International exchange of ideas and practices has become very strong today, in the globalisation age, and external influences on the national education policy have been more complex than before.

From the previously stated it follows that in the process of creating and implementing education policy it is particularly important not only to determine the goals of education development, but to develop the most functional solutions for their accomplishment. In other words, it is nec-

essary to recognise and choose those measures and activities which are realistic and achievable in one's own environment, although the goals achieved by them can be synonymous to those in other countries.

How should education policy be developed: by keeping track of global processes or local needs?

The globalisation process, whether considered from the social, economic, political or cultural effect, is reflected strongly on all aspects of the operation of society. Considered from the social perspective, globalisation implies intensification of social relationships worldwide, by which distant locations are linked in such a way that local events are shaped by the events taking place miles away, and vice versa (Giddens, according to Simons, 2012). Accordingly, it is clear that globalisation has an impact on education policy in a certain country, and thus, to a lesser or greater extent to the practice of educational work. The question is asked of whether it is possible to talk about global (or European) education policy? Who participates and in what way in defining the desired directions of education development on the global level?

There are several mechanisms by which ideas and views on education are transferred and spread from one place to the other. Some authors talk about creating the "global academic area" which occurs in different ways (Beech, 2009). One of the mechanisms which opens a possibility for exchanging ideas and for mutual learning is establishing cooperation between scientists, researchers and practitioners within international research projects, international conferences, scientific journals, as well as academic mobility. Although joint efforts and cooperation of the members of the academic and professional community from different parts of the world and different cultures contribute to developing the "global academic culture", not all of the countries have equal power in that process – the most dominant influence comes from Western Europe and North America.

International organisations, such as the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO), World Bank and Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), also have an important role in establishing and spreading the "global academic discourse" and its transfer to the plan of practical education policy (Beech, 2009). Although among the organisations mentioned there are differences, in the sense that the World Bank, and to a considerable extent OECD, are primarily economic-oriented organisations, while UNESCO represents the humanistic perspective, many of their goals are common (poverty reduction, social cohesion, sustainable development, intercul-

tural understanding, etc). Activities of these organisations in the field of education are primarily focused on accomplishing practical goals (availability of education to all, improvement of education quality in the Member States, etc.), but all of them provide strong theoretical incentives and contributions, especially through publishing thematic and analytical studies (Bray, 2007).

However, the role of international organisations, as they themselves point out, is promotion and expansion of the promoted goals, values and ideas in the field of education worldwide. Thus, for example, OECD aims to help education policy creators to focus on important questions and issues in education, as well as on finding the ways for solving them. Reports by international organisations on the situation in education in a certain country and proposals for overcoming the issues, although not binding, still have an impact on leading education policy, given that they are sometimes related to allocation and use of funds. It is particularly noticeable in the case of the World Bank, which provides countries (especially the developing countries) with the funds (loans) for reform implementation, but often for those reforms which stemmed from or are in line with the concepts of the financiers (Beech, 2009).

EU Member States are also influenced by the education policy developed on the EU level. A possibility of direct interventions by the Union into education systems is limited, since subsidiarity principle is applied in this area (Mitter, 2004). The field of education is the responsibility of individual Member States, but there are different mechanisms by which actions of Member States are directed towards accomplishing common goals and initiatives. One of the most important instruments in implementing EU policies, though non-binding, is the open method of coordination (OMK). It implies exchange of experiences in implementing policies and measures among Member States and monitoring of the results achieved. National educational authorities are expected to learn from each other through examples of good practice, which, according to some comparativists reminds of the rhetoric of comparativists in the XIX century (Hörner, 2002; Nóvoa, according to Beech, 2009). Guidelines for leading education policy can be found in the set of indicators on the basis of which the situation in education in the Member States is monitored, as well as in the goals adopted and expressed by benchmarks (*benchmarks*). Finally, the intention to build the European higher education area through the implementation of the Bologna process, according to Nóvoa, represents yet another example of how it influences the national education policy (Nóvoa, according to Beech, 2009).

However, education policy and practice in different education systems are quite different (Green, 2003). For example, globally developed and

promoted concepts (such as, for example, lifelong learning, key competences, etc.) are becoming important everywhere and they are embedded in strategic documents on education in the given environment, but their understanding and implementation are actually achieved in different ways in different places. Also, the concept (model) of education promoted on a larger scale (by a larger number of international bodies and organisations, educational authorities of some countries, non-governmental organisations, etc), which implies implementation of decentralisation, school autonomy, professionalisation of teching profession, competence-based curriculum and centrally-established evaluation system (Beech, 2009), is not, and cannot and should not be accomplished everywhere in the same way.

Whether, to what extent and in what way educational authorities will accept and implement global tendencies in the field of education depends on several factors. On one hand, political structures governing education (i.e. their value attitudes, ideological beliefs, expert views and attitudes, etc.) have an important impact on this. On the other hand, the structure, organisation and the operation mode of education systems are sometimes very different, so those needs, as well as the ways of achieving quality in education in certain countries, can be diverse. In addition, due to the specific characteristics of the social, cultural and economic context, as well as due to one's own education tradition, as we have explained in the text above, priorities, as well as possible ways of improving education, are quite different. In any case, it cannot be expected to have only one generally accepted education model, that is, universally valid solutions which would give good results in all education systems.

Conclusion

Knowledge of the experience of other countries in reforming and improving education systems can have a large informative and practical value for policy makers. Namely, by reviewing the characteristics and directions of education system development of developed contries an insight can be obtained into alternative solutions to those we have in our own system, both in terms of leading education policy and in the operation practice of the school work. However, it is important that the experience of others, as examples of good practice, are not taken over uncritically, since there is a high probability that the same solutions could lead to different results in some other places and under other circumstances. Successful solutions in operation of education systems and school work practice occur as a result of many diverse impacts and factors that, when in synergy, provide a cer-

tain effect. Also, knowledge of other, alternative practices does not necessarily mean that one's own practice should be changed, since what exists "at home" might be the very model which suits most one's own needs and circumstances. In any case, instead of appropriating or copying foreign experiences one should turn to a careful analysis of the circumstances in which certain foreign solutions give desirable results, and then take into consideration whether and in what way such a practice can be used in line with the circumstances in one's own country.

For most countries, especially developing countries and/or those less influential on the world political stage, there is still a dilemma on how to provide development of the education system which would be in line with the tendencies and directions of education development on the global level, with simultaneous respect for one's own education tradition and specific local needs. The success of the planned and initiated reform processes in the field of education largely depends on the way in which this issue is solved.

References:

Bray, M. (2007). Actors and Purposes in Comparative Education. In M. Bray, B. Adamson and M. Mason (eds.), *Comparative Education Research: Approaches and Methods* (pp. 15–38). Hong Kong: Comparative Education Research Centre; Springer.

Beech, J. (2009). Who is Strolling through the Global Garden? International Agencies and Educational Transfer. In: R. Cowen and A. M. Kazamias (eds.), *International Handbook of Comparative Education* (pp. 341–357). Dordrecht: Springer.

Bray, M. (2007). Actors and Purposes in Comparative Education. In M. Bray, B. Adamson and M. Mason (eds.), *Comparative Education Research: Approaches and Methods* (pp. 15–38). Hong Kong: Comparative Education Research Centre; Springer.

Cummings, W. K. (2010). How Educational Systems Form and Reform. In: Zajda, J. & Geo-Jaja, M.A. (ed.): *The Politics of Education Reforms* (19–41), London and New York: Springer.

Datnow, A. et al. (2006). *Integrating Educational Systems for Successful Reform in Diverse Contexst*. Cambridge: University Press.

Espinoza, O. (2010). Alternative Approaches on Society, State, Educational Reform and Educational Policy. In: Zajda, J. & M.A. Geo-Jaja (ed.): *The Politics of Education Reforms* (87– 108), London and New York: Springer.

Grant, N. (2000). Tasks for Comparative Education in the New Millennium. *Comparative Education*, Vol. 36, No. 3, 309– 317.

Green, A. (2003). Education, Globalisation and the Role of Comparative Research. *London Review of Education,* Vol, 1, No. 2, 83–97.

Haddad, W. D. (1995). *Education Policy – Planning Process: An Applied Framework.* Paris: UNESCO.

Hebib, E. (2013). *Kako razvijati školu – razvojni i reformski procesi u oblasti školskog obrazovanja*. Beograd: Institut za pedagogiju i andragogiju Filozofskog fakulteta Univerziteta u Beogradu.

Hörner, W. & Döbert, H. (2007). Introduction. In W. Hörner, H. Döbert, B. von Kopp and W. Mitter (eds.), *The Education Systems of Europe* (1–11). Dordrecht: Springer.

Hörner, W. (2000). "Europe" as a Challenge for Comparative Education: Reflections on the Political Function of a Pedagogical Discipline. *European Education,* Vol. 32, No. 2, 22–36.

Jang, O. i Kvin, L. (2002). *Pisanje delotvornih predloga za javnu praktičnu politiku – Vodič za savetnike za praktičnu politiku u zemljama Srednje i Istočne Evrope*. Beograd: Beogradska otvorena škola.

Kärkkäinen, K. (2012). Bringing About Curriculum Innovations: Implicit Approaches in the OECD Area. *OECD Education Working Papers*, No. 82, OECD Publishing.

Key competences for lifelong learning: European reference Framework (2007). Retrived Febryary 26, 2012 from World Wide Web http://ec.europa.eu/dgs/education_culture/publ/pdf/ll-learning/keycomp_en.pdf

Le Metais, J. (2003). *International Trends in Primary Education*. London: National Foundation for Educational Research; Qualifications and Curriculum Authority.

Mitter, W. (2004). Rise and Decline of Education Systems: A Contribution to the History of the Modern State. *Compare,* Vol. 34, No. 4*,* 351–369.

Radó, P. (2010). *Governing Decentralized Education Systems: Systemic Change in South Eastern Europe.* Budapest: Open Society Foundations.

Sahlberg, P. (2007). *Secondary Education in OECD countries: Common Challeges, Differing Solutions*. Brasilia: European Training Foundation.

Simons, M., Olssen, M. & Peters, M. (Eds.) (2009). *Re-Reading Education Policies*. Rotterdam: Sense Publis

Spasenović, V. (2013). *Školski sistemi iz komparativne perspektive*. Beograd: Institut za pedagogiju i andragogiju Filozofskog fakulteta Univerziteta u Beogradu.

Steiner-Khamsi, G. (ed.) (2004). *The global politics of educational borrowing and lending*. New York: Columbia University.

Zajda, J. (2010). Globalisation and The Politics of Education Reform. In: Zajda, J. & M.A. Geo-Jaja, (ed.): *The Politics of Education Reforms* (XIII-XX), London and New York: Springer.

*Irfan Erdogan**

Discussing the Changes in Education

It is tried to improve education by underlying reform endeavors in the whole world. But in these endeavors, a problem of becoming meaningless is experienced. Because it attracts attentions that most endeavors performed for education as usage of technology, standardization, accreditation were discussed, learned, implemented in different significations previously. In this article, implementations become a current issue under the title of reforming education will be discussed. Dialectic discussions revealed in this article can be useful to mirror to the steps especially mentioned under the title of reform in education recently. In this context, wrongs will be tried to be found out within corrects and corrects within wrongs by discussing educational models and thoughts at the dialectic point of view. Thoughts having characteristics of thesis and antithesis presented in this article can make contribution to approaching projects perceived as exaggerated projects for education from a critical view point.

Key words: education reform, changes of education, dialectic discussion.

Introduction

In this article, significant process as remedying of sources related to education, mc. schooling phenomena as chain schools, usage of technology, standardization, accreditation will be examined. In this article no method including quantitative analysis will be applied. Instead of that dialectic thinking method will be used. Dialectic thinking is a thinking methods expressing that wrong can be in correct and correct can be in wrong

---

*   Istanbul University, Hasan Ali Yücel Faculty of Education, Department of Educational Sciences Istanbul, Turkey

(Gutek, 2001). It is thought that meaningful arguments related to other side of projects or implementations assumed as correct for education can be produced.

Because, each of subjects to be examined in this article can create framework producing problems as well as they are remedial for education. So, it is thought that dealing with education with a nonlinear approach will be useful (Landa, 2006).

So indeed, considering any of choices related to dilemma situations as centralist-decentralist education, public schools – private schools, teacher centered instruction – student centered education as correct in any case can be misleading. As in these examples, one of many education situations formulized as dilemma cannot be opposite of other. So, correctness and functionality of education implementation and models must not be grounded according to other modal and implementations assumed as opposite. Especially, so-called reform steps made untouchable by assuming that their correctness is certain in education must be questioned philosophically by discussing them bravely. In this context, it is important to approach with suspicion to a model tried to be verified as other pole of any model or application. Because as specified by John Dewey, while rejecting purposes and methods by a new movement that it tries to displace them, forming new own principles on negativeness not on positiveness and constructiveness is a dangerous approach. Because, in a such case, a new movement will not base on its own philosophy constructively but the movement that it rejects.

So, when evolution of scientific knowledge is considered, it is needed to consider historical and cyclical effects against social science growing increasingly, in fact, this thought provide us to question our belief as today is more improved than old (Rabinow and Sullvan, 1990).

It is thought that a quantitative approach dominates at signification on education. In this context, it would be stated that current endeavors to remedy education remain quantitative focused. Accordingly, results are obtained not for basis but view of education.

So, it is thought that there is a need to use a qualitative focused view in all implementations and significations performed for education. Otherwise, it is thought that evaluating projects done for education correctly will be difficult. So, education models dealt in this article are signified by a qualitative focused view.

In this article, hereafter, problems as side effect products as source demand, mc. schooling, standardization and accreditation appeared in parallel to works started to reform education recently.

Source-money demand for education as a problem

From past to present, education is seen an area needed to appoint much more sources continuously in parallel to considering as an important area. Many countries tried to make appointment of most sources to education within their budgets a preferred target. As expected, source based interest shown to education started to give results and many country started to appoint proportionally most sources to education (Psacharopoulos, G. and Woodhall, 1986). Especially in 1960s, with the effect of Theory of Human Capital, it was started to see education as basic affect for development (Shultz, 1963). In this context, underdeveloped countries encouraged to make more investments to education by expressing low level of education as reason for their underdevelopment. Especially in report of foremost international institutions as United Nations and World Bank, making more investments was underlined frequently (Psacharopoulos, G. and Woodhall, 1986).

But it is needed to reevaluate the thought of increase of investments made for education. Because, today documents of many international institutions as World Bank, UNDP shows that expressing the deficiency of resources appointed for education is not true. So, continuing to underline the sources appointed for education cannot create a result as old times. Thus, it can be seen as a discrepancy needed to insist on that impressive negativeness related to quality of education coincide with times in which sources appointed to education are increased. So, it must be studied that how much education areas that huge sources are appointed for them recovered or bastardized. In this context, it waits to be dealt that demand to appoint source for education caused by needs of ones related to education or ones wanting to be rich and seen education as a tool to reach this purpose.

In this context, subject of "source-money" assumed as a problem for education formerly can be considered as a new "problem" in a new meaning. So, subject of source for education can be accepted as a problematic area for today. If we are to go further, it must not ignored that all demands mentioned for change and remedy of education can cause from a fiction prepared to get more profit and developed by ones rather than need related to remedy of education if it necessitates to appoint any source. In this case, any demand becoming a current issue to increase the sources appointed for education cannot be considered as a customary solution for education.

Chain schools phenomenon

According to George Ritzer (Rithzer, 1998) society become as McDonald. In other words, as expressed by Frederick Taylor centuries ago, compertmentalisation, work sharing, job definitions are structuralized within a stream and mechanized in one sense. The main diameter of this process is based on expansion. This culture that time will show if it is humanitarian or not, expands on many areas. This understanding identified with restaurant services diffused within education area fast.

The process to be called as chain schools phenomenon is one of most impressive developments observed for education. Especially, private schools spread as branches under the certain title fast. It is not difficult to observe damage caused by process of Mc. Schooling. Problems as loss of uniqueness and over inspection appeared due to continuance of education widely under state monopoly occur over chain schools starting to spread. Because organizational process of chain schools formed by many shools has characteristic to cause these problems.

Chain school movement seen as spreading step from one view must be signified for basic criteria as originality, freedom and autonomy. Furthermore, while public education is criticized severely since it pressurizes uniqueness and causes mono typing, it is interesting not paying attention equally to the similar problems caused by private schooling process expressed as antithesis. Meanwhile, it must not escape from attention that chain school phenomena called as mc schooling caused by structures and institutions gathered to form a unity around certain criteria. It must be known that to analogy to be considered as other side of originality can be arrived at the end of enchaining way started to spread an original system.

So, chain schooling phenomenon created directly or indirectly by studies of education reform is a situation that must be paid attention.

Another side of usage of technology in education

Another reality that we faced today is technology. In all aspects of education, usage of technology front us as an indispensable necessity. Usage of technology in education has many profits as easiness to reach information, variety, creativity, individual teaching, productivity and acceleration of learning.

But usage of technology can be a situation that must be paid attention and even seen as a "threat". Because, technology becomes the purpose

of teaching and is used since it exists, not for it is a tool. On the other hand, when it is not used, an understanding and fear of getting out of date are created. So intense and widely usage of technology and advise to use it cause technicalness and mechanization in education. Technology can be a tool applied to get profit rather than having functionality (Erdoğan, 2012). Likewise, it can be a controlling tool of social, political and economic dominant powers. Furthermore, technology can perform a function of being a tool applied to provide control and inspection to enforce centralization causing standardization that localization and variety are considered as valuable today. Usage of technology must be evaluated for problems that can cause under current conditions, not in former periods needing technology intensively. Because technology in education is spread by chance, problems of classic period as subject of critics as centralization, over control in education system can appear again, out of its benefits.

Standardization pressure

While education systems are founded, it is tried to be standardized as well as a new order needed. So, a harmony and process are tried to be formed in education. Process of education area starts to be processed according to certain standards. It was correct at the beginning but today became to damage education at the point we arrived. Freedom and originality in education are damaged by this way. Extravagant standardization models makes education shallow and technicized (İnal, 1996). Even results as centralization and mono typing in education appear as well as standardization models. Education become more controlled by dominant powers by standardization. While current school system was founded, since it looks like industry focused structure with its characteristics as work sharing, mass production, hierarchy, job definition according to structure developed by Frederic Taylor, it is criticized radically. But after many years from these criticizes, current standardization process also finds out criticized features of school again. So, standardization struggles that continue with accelerating speed can be one of main problems realized in context of freedom and originality of school and education. Standardization in education mostly appears as dialectic of usage of technology in education. Because standardization can also be a phenomenon appeared in effect area of spreading of usage of technology beyond approach considered being correct and chosen singly. Standardization can be put forward as a meaningful reason to enforce spread of technology.

Accreditation clamp

Accreditation is defined as an evaluation performed according certain standards. Accreditation having many benefits as passing from chaos to cosmos causes some problems as centralization, affinity, monotyping in one sense. Both standardization and accreditation studies damage mostly profession of teaching. Probably teachers experience problem of othering, enstrangement and technicization (Gergen ve Wortham, 2001) mostly due to standardization and accreditation models.

However, education, school and teacher are criticized at the beginnings of this century since they based on control, imposition and monotype curriculum and it was expressed that new school must be more liberal and original. Europe school reform emphasizing student, teacher and experience made being based on this thought (Aytaç, 1983). Especially, "new school" trend appeared in Europe in 1920s was born in this process. In this context, it is suggested that nationalism as typical characteristics of education systems founded during nation formation must be annulled to meet individual and social needs based on multiculturalism as today's popular value. With all of these significations, it is expressed that education must be performed not based on nation and state as former periods but based on individual and society.

But, while even being at the beginning of reaching demanded characteristics for these educational understandings, it is observed that it is worn out via new trend administrative models as accreditation and standardization becoming current issues. Because centralist and monotype education systems appear again while they must be left many years ago by accreditation models.

In this context, accreditation models and implementations expressing evaluations performed according to certain standards can be seen as a suspicious developments for education due to causing some problems especially monotyping.

Result

Education reform lives its difficult times. Mainstream education institutions run to be key institution producing employees certificated, educated technically to meet demands of market and commercialized public areas in parallel with studies performed under the title of reform (Mayo, 2008; 2008, Henry A. Giroux).

Current implementations and models prioritized in education by reforms have characteristics to create results as centralization, monotyping, over inspection seen as problem in former periods. It is possible to see implementations as standardization, accreditation that we hear frequently today as implementations to create old problems again. In same context, increasing sources appointed for education and studies to be performed to spread education are not also more functional steps for nowadays. So, it is needed not to decide what problems we face in education currently by considering old way of thinking related to education. Favorite implementations and models in today's education are met with doubt. Otherwise, even education model and implementations demanded to be left in previous periods can be reborn by effect of today's new trend implementation and models accepted. This can create a meaningless discrepancy and left more shocking effect for intellectual basis of education. From this point of view, education must be considered not as an implementation area dealt with technical perceptions but an area having theoretic side. In this context, each implementation performed in education must be dealt with context of bindings founded between today and moments in which education thoughts and institutions appeared firstly. For this, education must be signified and guided and implemented by societies having its own terminology, culture on plane of conflicts between paradigms. Maximum attention must be paid to so-called reform studies interlocked with discrepancies and problems mentioned above. In this context, reform attempts based objectives as increasing in number of school, teacher, student, intensifying technology, increasing education budget must be taken more carefully.

Patrik Frange (2008) as one of critical educators express education history as history of struggle continuing between ones considering education performed for others and ones considering it performed for themselves.

From this definition, this critical question can be asked for struggles in areas as spreading of education, increasing source appointed for education, usage of technology in education, standardization and accreditation in education. What can be the perception on education in background of implementations in these areas?

It can be suggested that perception at background of implementations dealt with this article can be formed based on considering education as works performed for others. Works as appointing source for education, increasing schooling rate, realizing education with standardized and accredited processes can be signified as works thought, designed and developed for others.

It can be an important basis to produce contradictory problems for studies performed with consideration of remedying education. Because, thought and models developed by humans for others can be more insufficient, meaningless and functionless than models to be developed and works to be performed for them. Because education as expressed by Cırtlı as great Turkish educator (Cırtlı, 1985) in this book titled "Sunny School" is a performance process realized not for others but himself.

It can be useful to ground endeavors to reform education with the question to be produced by classification developed as "taming education" and "liberating education" by Brazilian educator Paule Fereire being related to education. What must be the final objective of education reform? A tamed education system? Or a liberating education system? If we must continue on same question plane; is education liberated enough in modern time that liberalization and democracy are mentioned so much? Or is it tamed? questions must be thought.

It can be useful to think about discrepancy to appear by answers given to question expressed above and ambiguity in historic progress in education. Frame of scientific evolution suggested by Thomas Kuhn (1980) can mirror historical flow and performance of many scientific areas. But, phases of prescience, science and scientific revolution are not reflected linearly to education purporting to be a scientific area as expressed by Kuhn. Because, it is seen difficult to signify recent development endeavors in education within triple phases as purported by Kuhn for scientific development. There is not any effect of an epistemic society for appearing of any thought and model become a current issue in education. So, change in education will not be in linear form but in complex and skidding forms until education reaches a more scientific identity. So, to see development will also be difficult.

In fact, it can be said that the most basic problem area experienced by education is need for philosophical grounding and binding. Today, education is perceived and signified as a technical area. But, education is signified and defined by great authorities and philosophers for centuries. It is developed and systematized by great authorities as Socrates, Platon, Locke, Commenius, Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Frobel, Makarenko, Dewey and Piaget (Osmon and Craver, 2008). Education theories as progressivism, reconstructionism, essentialism were developed by these authorities and their environment and societies.

However, technical and practical significations are more dominant than theoretical researches and bindings in current education significations and implementations. It is observed that philosophy considered as basis of all science branches becomes an area ignored for education

largely. Because we live a period that names and thoughts of authorities mentioned above and other authorities are mentioned minimum in areas and platforms in which education became current issue even is discussed. Likewise, it is observed that studies performed related to education as considering they will remedy are grounded being devoid of philosophical questions very much.

In this progress, they move away valid paradigms related to education and formation of a new paradigm is prevented. Likewise, appearance of societies as important requirement to develop paradigms becomes difficult.

Attention is attracted to negative side of steps specified positively as schooling, increasing sources appointed for education, spreading the usage of technology in education, standardization and accreditation in education, mentioned in this article. If it is needed to express in concepts mentioned in article, it is thought that implementations becoming a current issue frequently under above titles for education do not liberate but tame and produce an education model prioritizing not qualitative side but quantitative side.

References:

Aytaç, K. (1983). *Contemporary Education Streams.* Ankara: University DDCF publications.

Bakioğlu, A. (2012). *Accreditation in Education.* Ankara: Nobel Publications.

Cırıtlı, H. H. (1982). *Sunny School.* Ankara: Kartepe yayıncılık.

Dewey, J. (2007). *Experience and Education.* Ankara: ODTU publications.

Erdoğan, I. (2012). *About National Education.* Ankara: Nobel Publications.

Erkut, E. (2012). *Opportunities in Education in Digital Age and Our responsibilities.* Ankara: Turkish Private Schools Unity Publications.

Hern, M. (ed.) (2008). *Alternative Education – Basis of Education*, Ankara: Patric Farange. Kalkedon publications.

Freire, P. (1985). *The Politics of Education, Culture, Power, and Liberation.* Hadley, Mass.: Bergin & Garvey   Publishers.

Gergen, K. J. & ve Wortham, S. (2001). Social contruction and pedagogical practicein K. J. Gergen (ed). *Social construction in context* içinde, s. 115–117. Londra: Sage.

Gutek, G. L. (2001). *Philosophical and ideological approaches in education.* Ankara: Utopia Publications.

Illich, I. (1985). *Society without School.* Ankara: Individual Society Publications.

İnal, K. (1996). *Ideological Dimension in Education.* Ankara: Doruk Publications.

Kuhn, T. S. (2008). *Structure of scientific revolutions*. Istanbul: Red Publications.

Landa, De M. (2006). *Nonlinear history: Story of millennium*. Istanbul: Metis.

Mayo P. (2008). *Liberating Praksis*. Istanbul: Dipnot Publications.

Ozmon, H. A., ve Craver & S. Width M. (2008). *Philosophical foundations of education*. New York: Pearson.

Psacharopoulos, G. & Woodhall, M. (1986). *Education for Development: An Analysis of Investment choices*. Oxford: Oxford University Press for the World bank.

Rabinow, P. & ve Sullivan, W. (1990). *Interpreter approach to social sciences*. Istanbul: Hurriyet Foundation Publications.

Schultz, T. W. (1963). *The Economic Value of Education*. New York: Columbia University Press.

*Lidija Vujičić**

Researching and Changing Kindergarten Culture and the Quality of Educational Practice

Researching and changing the culture of an educational institution is a process of evolution in which the implementation of innovations that strive to achieve quality changes in early and preschool care represents a mutual, long-term research process – one that is focused on a mutual innovation and exploration of educational practice and is grounded in the free exploration, and the non-manipulative discussion of all participants. Departing from these points, the author defines the culture of an educational institution in accordance with co-constructivist views that highlight the need for research, achieving a deeper understanding of educational practice and the cooperative learning of all participants. First she gives an overview of the attempts made by various authors at defining the culture of educational institutions, while determining it, for the needs of this work, as the achievements of one organised community that typify the activity of the educational institution amd are recognisable in the fundamental views and beliefs shared by the educators, principals, professional associates, administrative and other staff and parents. She develops her thesis as follows: researching and changing the culture of an education institution does not imply only a change in the organisational, i.e. structural dimensions of the institution but, even more so, demands changes in the way of thinking of educators – that is, demands the improvement of their understanding of the educational process.

Key words: practitioner research, kindergarten culture, educational practice, professional development.

*   University of Rijeka, Faculty of Teacher Education, Rijeka, Croatia

Introduction

Scholars from all around the world have pointed out that the 20th century brought a conceptual revolution of a scope that has heretofore been seldom witnessed, one that had a profound influence on countries and individuals worldwide by altering their conception of change. Old models, closed systems, stability and security, ″natural″ hierarchies and laws and a linear way of thinking all began to vanish, and were replaced by postmodern concepts such as organic systems, unpredictability, inter-dependence and compound perspectives (Scott 2003, according to Collinson et al., 2009). As Capra (1998) stresses, our best option for altering the way that education institutions prepare their pupils for the 21st century is to view schools and the context they are immersed in as an ecosystem. In other words, contemporary scholars (Bruner, 2000; Fullan, 1993, 1999; Henting, 1997; Mortimore, 1999; Prosser, 1999; Stoll i Fink, 2000; Datnow et al., 2002; Kinsler and Gamble, 2001; Hopkins, 2001; Trowler, 2008; Jurasaite-Harbison and Rex, L. 2009) stressed that positive changes in education can be achieved by altering the structure and environment of an educational instution, which is a process they refer to as changing the school culture. Sociocultural theory and a co-constructivist appraoch to researching educational practice provide a theoretical background to their reexaminations of contemporary achievements in researching school culture, thus emphasis is placed on revelations that affirm the importance of culture as a complex multidimensional phenomenon that is inextricably linked to the quality of life within an educational institution.

Peterson (2002) concludes that shaping culture is of much greater importance than curricula, educational standards, evaluations and even the responsibility towards change, as without a culure that supports the values of such structural changes, reforms are doomed to failure (ibid, 6). Changing the culture of an educational institution means tapping into the source of authentic changes – changes that do not encompass solely school subjects, approaches to education and new technology, but also individuals, their value systems and aspirations, their understandings and their beliefs. ″What [the school] teaches, what modes of thought and what 'speech registers' it actually cultivates in its pupils cannot be isolated from how the school is situated in the live and culture of its students. For a school's curriculum is not only *about* subjects. The chief subject matter of the school, viewed culturally, is the school itself.″ (Bruner (2000, 41). In other words, it is the environment of a school that most affects both pupils and teachers, their motivation for learning and their achievements. Thus Bruner particularly stresses not only the importance of ″the transformation of a

school as a learning culture, but also the transformation of the role of the teacher in that learning culture." (ibid, 95). To summarise, in addition to discussions on the necessary changes to be made in educational institutions and learning and teaching methods, the role of the teacher is also reevaluated (Grossman et al. 2009).

Within the reforms many states have conducted during the past few centuries, the need for the professional development of teachers particularly distinguishes itself as a key component in changing, altering and improving the educational process (Bruner, 2000; Fullan, 1993, 1999, 2007; Gardner, 2005; Henting, 1997; Mortimore, 1999; Prosser,1999; Stoll, Fink, 2000; Datnow et al., 2000; Kinsler, Gamble, 2001; Hopkins, 2007; MacGilchrist, B., et al., 2004; Wei et al., 2009). From this perspective, Hopkins (2001, 95) stresses that the entirety of educational practice reflects the implicit theories of teachers, thus "changes in teaching practice only occur when there is clarity and coherence in the minds of teachers". Thus the reevaluation of the professional training of educators is one of the main points of this work, as this issue is inextricably linked with the quality of educational practice.

The Culture of an Educational Institution

In an attempt to define the culture of an educational institution, my first point is that this term presupposes a reciprocal, causally determined relationship which can be succinctly described as follows: how much we invest in people, learning and professional training processes is how much we invest in the culture of our educational institution. Deal and Peterson (1999) stress that there is no definition that we could call "best", but that many of them include elements that are important the definition of the culture of an educational institution: mutual beliefs and values that intimately connect the memebers of the community and hold them together (Deal&Kennedy, 1982, 1983); a lens through which members see themselves and the world that surrounds them (Hargreaves, 1999); unwritten rules, traditions, norms and expectations that encompass everything: people's behaviour, their manner of dress, their conversation topics, whether they seek help from their colleagues and how teachers feel about their work and their pupils (Deal&Peterson, 1999); something that depends on the interconnected inflluences of three factors: the views and beliefs of individuals both within the institution and its external environment, the cultural norms of the institution and the relationships between the individuals within the institution (Boyol, 1992; Vrcelj, 2003); a "living organism" that is foremostly defined by the relationships between the teachers

and pupils, the relationships between the teachers themselves and the relationships between the teachers and pupils and their community (Fullan, 1999); something that encompasses the general norms, beliefs about authority, desirable and undesirable forms of behaviour and basic knowledge on how things function (Datnow et al. 2002); an unfathomable construct that cannot be directly and tangibly observed (Schoen et al. 2008). We can liken the culture of an educational institution to the air that we breathe (Hinde, 2005). For Rinaldi (2001), an educational instituton is a ″cultural laboratory″ – a place where personal and collective culture is developed under the influence of politics, society and the values of the context, while its culture is also reflected back to the context in a reciprocal relationship. She particularly stresses that education is closely correlated to the concept of value as an ideal towards which an individual strives during his/her lifetime, which implies the cultivation of intrinsic values in every individual and culture.

Kindergarten Culture in the Context of Holistic Approaches

A growing nubmer of authors (Senge, 2002; Fullan, 2008; Hopkins, 2007; Bruner, 2000 et al.) advocate the view that it is necessary to distance ourselves from the industrial model of the 19th Century and move towards a more organic teaching and learning model that reflects our knowledge of living systems, while also corresponding better to the needs of young people and the challenges of growing up in the 21st Century. According to the mechanistic view, the world is an assemblage of objects while, according to the holistic view of the world, objects are part of a web of relationships, which are then themselves parts of larger web; this view of the living world as a network of relationships leads to networked thinking. Thus ″the network concept has been the key to the recent advances in the scientific understanding – not only of ecosystems, but of the very nature of life″ (Capra, 1998, 45). In contrast to the industrial model that advocates conformism, control and the fragmentation of the curriculum, living systems evolve and result in a harmonic network of relationships, within which subjects are interrelated and focused on learning. Multiple authors (Senge, Capra, Popper et al.) have detected changes in our perception of the world since the age of Descartes and Newton, and increasingly warn that it is necessary for us to work on our faculties for understanding interconectedness (Vujičić, 2011). In other words, viewing things in a holistic fashion means taking notice of connections, relationships and context, and thus radically differs from the analytical approach. In accordance with this, the holistic approach does not view organisations as structures anymore, but as – processes (Senge, 2002, 75). For example, Wheat-

ley (according to MacGilchrist, B., et al., 2004) deems that self-organising systems are the prototype for governing unstable, dynamic environments, while defining self-organisation as an organisation's ability to self-renew. In other words, every organisation is the product of its own thinking and of the interaction of its own members. Thus also the most powerful impetus for initiating any sort of endeavour related to organised learning does not lie in policies, budgets or organisational diagrams, but in – ourselves. To change the way we interact does not imply only the transfomation of the formal structures of an organisation, but also of less evident interaction patterns between individuals and processes (Senge, 2002, 36). This implies that discussing the implementation of innovations means discussing new value systems and lifestyles that cannot be enacted with any kind of administrative decree, and neither can they be politically adopted. In addition, a decreasing number of people believe that the ″best practices″ from the past can also help us in the future (Ehrenfeld, 2009, 35). A striving for new values – sustainability, quality, cooperation and partnership – characterises the new ecological image of the world, and these values can only be transmitted through communication between people within a culture of dialogue and dynamic processes of co-evolution (Capra, 1998).

In the context of a holistic view, i.e. ″ the understanding of a phenomenon within the context of a larger whole″ (Capra, 1998, 29), the culture of an educational institution is defined as a living organism that continuously changes and learns, as a complex and dynamic system of interconnected variables (Datnow et al., 2002) and as a system grounded in a biological way of thinking and an ecological view of the world (Senge et al, 2001, 2002, 2003; Capra, 1998).

The Culture of Researching Educational Practice

In a culture focused on the research of educational practice, the dominant strategy for the professional development of educators is viewed as the mutual exploration, interpretation and understanding of existing practice and the construction of a more quality educational practice within a democratic environment (Vujičić, 2011a). Or, as they view things in Reggio: ″Our opinion is that relationships are the fundamental organisational strategy of our education system.″ (Loris Malaguzzi, 1993,10, according to Edwards, 2002, 35). The focus of attention is viewing ″education as a relationship″ and viewing the community as a relationship – a mode of living together and sharing common experience. Akin to Malaguzzi's views of education as a relationship is the thought of David Kennedy (1994a, 1994b, 1995 according to Edwards, 2002) and his discussions on the com-

munity of inquiry. The community of inquiry is conceived as a cooperative, transactional and transforming community grounded in interaction, dialogue and the participation of those who create meaning. In other words, discussions cannot exist without the context of an institution, i.e. a common room that hosts them, as they are part of the life of the community – the culture of the institution. What Kennedy finds of fundamental importance in the Reggio Emilia approach is its vision of cooperation, i.e. the participation of adults who, through their joint forces, within a certain time frame (an educator spends three years with the same children and parents) co-construct an approach to teaching and learning, while understanding that no construction that they work can ever be viewed as final.

Furthermore, such a cooperative, participation-based form of professional development has been theoretically defined in literature on "communities of practice" (Wenger, 1998), "professional learning communities" (Dufour & Eaker,1998, 2002; Grossman, Wineburg, and Woolworth, 2001; McLaughlin & Talbert, 2001), "teacher learning communities", (Horn, 2005), and "teacher research" (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999). Cochran-Smith and Lytle (1999, 289) view such communities as places that support teachers in generating existent knowledge, discussing and examining their own practice and interpreting and examining the research of others (according to Given et al., 2010, 37). Claiming that communities of practice are a key site for learning does not mean that the process of development of these communities is simple. The issue of creating teams and stimulating cooperation in the workplace also provokes certain tensions that often emanate from the need to satisfy the either the needs of the individual or the needs of the group (Achinstein, 2002; Hackman, 2002;Smith & Berg, 1987; Wilson, Burnham, & Clark, 2008). These "communities of pupils" can be defined as "communities of knowledge" (Bereiter, 2002; Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1993; Craig, 1995; Olson & Craig, 2001), "professional learning communities" (Jenlink, Kinnucan-Welsch & Odell, 1996; Little, 2002) or "teacher learning communities" (Putnam & Borko, 2000)(according to Erickson et al.,2005).

My fundamental thesis is that kindergartens, schools and other educational institutions ought to be allowed to be what is naturally expected of them: humane communities, not machines (Bruner, 2000; Henting, 1997; Miljak, 2009; Senge, 2000). Senge (2009) even proposes that it is better to speak of learning communities, not organisations because there could be a learning community within an organization, learning communities between organizations or learning communities at all kinds of levels within a geographic regional community, like a city or a metropolitan, municipal region or within a nation or around the world. Therefore *learning com-*

munity becomes a much more powerful image than *learning organization″* (ibid., 4). I advocate the creation and stimulation of learning communities that gather individuals with a profound sense of devotion (to learning, improvement and development), and whose devotion then supports them in their efforts to create a kindergarten culture that is in harmony with children's (human) nature.

On the basis of the aforementioned, we can define kindergarten culture as those achievements of an organised community that can be recognised in the typical and commonly-held views and beliefs of the educators, principals, professional associates, administrative and other staff and parents involved with an educational institution. It can be observed in the relationships between people, the work they do together, their management of the institution, the structural and physical environment and the level of dedication to continued learning and the research of educational practice in order to achieve improvement (Vujičić, 2011).

Researching the Personal Practice of Educators – The Impetus for Self-Organising Processes of Changing the Kindergarten Culture

By defining kindergarten culture (a living system) as self-organising, I wish to particularly stress that its organisation and behaviour is not imposed from without, but established from within by the kindergarten culture itself (the system itself). Every school is both one part of the whole and a whole in itself, a place from which a profound understanding of the education system at large can be achieved (Senge et al., 2007, 16). In other words, living systems are autonomous – there are no two kindergartens that are the same, or two same cultures. This does not imply isolation, but interaction with the environment. This interaction does not completely determine organisation, as I hold that kindergartens are self-organising. The environment stimulates, while the direction of development and action becomes self-realising and self-regulating. In other words, investment in learning, continued professional development and the research of personal practice becomes the greatest impetus for self-organising processes as focused on the continued development of kindergarten culture and its harmonisation with the nature of children.

I wish to stress that changes cannot be made from afar, but have to come from within the institution itself and involve individuals that will consistently implement them in practice at both the level of their own institution and between institutions themselves. Similar ideas are advocated by multiple authors: for example Hopkins (2001), Datnow et al. (2002),

Bruner (2000) et al. etc. Fullan (2005) describes such an approach as the development of an institution as a system that continuously learns and changes – while stressing that it is important for this development to occur ″in practice″, not just on paper. This implies changing the entire context in which people (and children) live and work, and he stresses that altering the context (which, within his approach, also implies changing the culture) is not simple at all – it is arduous, but feasible. In order to change a culture or a context, he explains, it is necessary to change the quantity and quality of the interaction between all individuals, i.e. all participants.

As part of the construction of the capacity for change, contextual learning is promoted – not through workshops or lectures, but through mutual learning and the exploration of concrete problems within the context, i.e. practice from which they arose. I concur with Feiman-Nemser (2001 according to Given et al., 2010) and his conclusion that, if schools wish to improve the quality of educational practice for their pupils, then a quality environment that surpasses episodic, superficial levels of experience must be ensured for the learning and professional development of teachers. Within this process, one crucial issue is how to motivate educators to see their own practice and the practice of their colleagues for what it really is. Are they able to recognise children's satisfaction or dissatisfaction regarding the way they are treated, their freedom of movement and the level of trust bestowed upon them? Are they able to recognise an impoverished environment and the boredom and aggression of children that emanates as a necessary consequence of the environment they live in for up to even ten hours a day? (Miljak, 2009; Maleš, 2011).

Furthermore, how to achieve honest cooperation and democratic discussion on what has been observed between the members of a group? How to harmonise differing opinions and alter one's own view or personal ″theory″ as a result of democratically led discussions? It is of utmost importance to observe exactly how these ″theories″ change as a result of discussion, learning and a deeper understanding of the subject matter. Understanding means developing a clearer and better interpretation (theory) of that which we are researching – which, naturally, depends on the knowledge, maturity and readiness for change of those involved in the research. It is expected that, by discussing the activities observed, intepreting them and encountering differing interpretations (″theories″), the participants will modify their views and create shared knowledge that will be then further developed and deepened. In this manner, a context of cooperative learning through research is created. The culture of participation in research, in which ideas, work experiences and understandings are shared, develop a reflective and self-reflective approach to practice. In

this, interpretations and reflections are of fundamental importance for the documentation of children's activities, the relationship between the educator and the children, the topics of discussion etc. (Mac Naughton, 2012). This is why it is important to document both the children's activities and the relationship between the educator and the children so that the latter may also be a topic of discussion, as we must always bear in mind that children also observe us at every moment. In this manner, educators are trained for independent, reflective research, organising communities of reflective practitioners (Cook-Sather, 2008) and expanding cooperation networks both within one institution and between different institutions. The final goal is to transform the group memebers into leaders of changes, researchers of educational practice or ″theoretical practitioners″ (Fullan, 2005; Rinaldi, 2006). We wish to stress that learning through reflection is a multidimensional process within which educators, professional associates and principles strive to acheive a better understanding and awareness of theory in action by continuously deliberating upon and analysing their own practice and gaining an understanding of the culture of the institution. In short, the aim is to answer the question – what do we do in our educational practice with children, and why do we do it the way we do it (Miljak, 2009, Slunjski, 2006, Šagud, 2006, Petrović-Sočo, 2009, Vujičić, 2011)?

The attention we gave heretofore given to mutual, cooperative learning, developing a culture of open dialogue and researching the educational process in order to shift the culture of educational institutions from a traditional approach towards an approach that is more in touch with the nature of children points toward the necessity of changing the professional traning of teachers, of which has there already been word in our previous publications (Miljak, Vujičić, 2000, 2002). We strive towards a form of professional development that will be initiated and led by the educators themselves and by other immediate participants in this process (from technical personnel to professional teams and principals), and held within their own institutions and the institutions they wish to cooperate with. In this, they should not only lead the organisation process (self-organisation), but also continuously initiate changes in order to adapt to the specific needs of a child, group or kindergarten as well as possible (self-initiating and self-perfecting changes). Fullan (2005) describes such an approach as the development of the institution as a system that continuously learns and changes – through practice, not just on paper. This implies changing the entire context in which its members (including children) live and work and, as he stresses, changing its context means also changing its – which is an arduous, though not impossible process. In order to change a culture

or context, he explains, it is necessary to change the quality and quantity of communication between all individuals, i.e. members. He considers ″lateral capacity building″ a powerful tool for achieving this process, as he bestows utmost importance upon cooperation and communcation between both colleagues within the same institution and between colleagues from different institutions. He advocated the creation of institution networks, i.e. learning communities. Every institution should focus on the development of its own capacity for continuing change in order to be able to initiate changes by itself, without having to wait for others or for commands from above to initiate changes.

Practitioner Research: The Development of Professional Knowledge and Changes in Kindergarten Culture

Practitioner research is today a field of increasing importance within pedagogical research, as has been stressed by many authors: Elliott, 1998; Liberman, Miller, 2002; Valli, Hawley, 2002; Elmore, 2002.; Hopkins, 2001; Rinaldi, 2001, Slunjski, 2006, Šagud, 2006; Miljak, 2007, 2009; Vujičić, 2008 et al. One of the causes of this has been the shift from an empirical and analytical (positivist) paradigm towards an intepretative and critical paradigm, with practitioner research emanating from the latter. The fudamental terms within the interpretative paradigm are meaning, action and interpretation, as opposed to positivist terms such as explanation, prediction and control. Its basic tenet is that social reality (the object of social sciences) significantly differs from physical reality (the object of natural sciences), and that thus the teaching and interpretation methods of these two branched of science must also be fundamentally different. This means that behaviour, i.e. human actions cannot be interpreted in the same manner as the ″behaviour″ of physical objects is interpreted, but can only be understood by revealing the ″subjective meaning″ of the observed individual and his/her social background (Oliveira-Formosinho, 2012). Social reality is constructed and maintained through the interpretative activities of its individual members.

In other words, the socially constructed reality is objectified and perceived as an objective reality. Interpretative theory does not strive for the causal explanation of human behaviour, but for achieving a deeper understanding of it and revealing the assumptions (basic conceptual schemes) on which it lies (Carr &Kemmis, 1986, 90), thus initiating the process of self-insight or self-reflection. ″ Practices are changed by changing the ways in which they are understood″ (ibid, 91), which means that the practitioners themselves change their own practice with the aid of critical self-reflection. Of key importance is reflecting upon practice through action

and by connecting it with knowledge and theory – as Oliveira-Formosinho and Formosinho (2012) stress, achieving a pedagogy rooted in practice (participatory pedagogy) or, as Pešić et al. (1998) termed it, pedagogy in action. Therefore, action is permeated with theory and supported by the value system of the subjects involved. In this manner, practice or direct research of personal practice becomes the crux of the development of professional knowledge.

The authors Pascal and Bertram (2011) discuss this matter in a similar fashion, and practitioner research – or, as they term it, praxeological research – is in the centre of their deliberations. This type of research is conducted by the practitioners themselves with the aim of improving their own practice. (McLeod, 1999 according to Pascal and Bertram, 2011). The primary aim of such research is not creating new knowledge, but reevaluating and searching for answers to the question why and how a practitioner did what he did in his personal practice, i.e. his immediate work with children. Practitioners possess a rich knowledge that is rooted in practice and real life experiences, and by developing the practice of researching this knowledge they can directly, together with the assistance of critically-minded friends and academic supervisors (scientists) that are prepared for researching and changing educational practice, influence the improvement of their own practice. This is, as the authors continue, actually a reconceptualisation of early childhood research. This new research paradigm, known also as modern praxeology, draws on the theoretical background laid out by Mises (1949), Freire (1978), Wenger (2008) and Flyvberg (2001). Through case studies, dialogues, reflection and research, it points towards the ways in which practice can modify the process of knowledge creation, i.e. how practice influences the creation of information that can be of everyday use to individuals involved in educational processes within institutions for early education. Praxeological research appears as a deeply reflective and dynamic form of practice based on the research discussed Schon (1987), Stenhouse (1975), McViff (2011) and Reason et al. (2008), and has the range of possible conceptual models and scientific methodologies. For example, this type of research based on direct research of educational practice and a social constructivist paradigm in early education is in Reggio known as pedagogical research (Rinaldi, 2006). Educational work from a social constructivist perspective gives children the opportunity to produce their own alternative constructs prior to their encounter with scientifically expected constructs. This means that not only children are involved in the learning process, but so are the teachers – if they are prepared to note the children's ideas, theories and hypotheses with respect, acknowledgement and wonder (Dahlberg et al., 2003, 55). In a similar social constructivist manner, the Portuguese researchers grouped around the "Childhood Association" and "Institute of

Education of the University of Minho" give central importance to a pedagogical environment in which interactions and relationships between all the participants of the educational process dominate, thus making them the co-constructors of their personal knowledge and development.

Conclusion

It is possible to deliberate upon kindergarten culture only in a reciprocal fashion – by establishing that it is only possible to build teachers' capacity for change and improving their own practice if the kindergarten systematically takes care of the development of its educators within an institutional context. We advocate the transformation of our educational institutions (kindergartens and schools) so that they may become what is naturally expected of them: not machines, but humane communities (Bruner, 2000; Henting, 1997; Miljak, 2009; Senge, 2000) that will respond to the real developmental needs, interests and abilities of their pupils (Armstrong, 2006). Due to this, we advocate creating and stimulating the development of learning communities (Senge, 2009) that gather individuals with a deep sense of common devotion (to learning, improvement development), and whose devotion supports them in their efforts to create an educational instutition with a culture that is in harmony with human nature.

It can be assumed that such learning communities will support research of the culture of educational institutions and build a culture that learns and researches – a culture in which individuals constantly develop their existing skills and discover new ones, create those results that they truly desire and foster new and progressive ways of thinking; in which individual and collective goals can be freely set and in which individuals constantly learn and research how to learn together; that is – a culture that constantly improves itself and explores all options for creating a new future. Based on our experience (Vujičić, 2011), but also the experience of other authors (Liberman, Miller, 2002; Valli, Hawley, 2002; Elmore, 2002.; Hopkins, 2001; Rinaldi, 2001; Kimonen et al., 2005; Angus et al., 2009), the best and most effective way to achieve this is to establish a professional training of teachers in which professional knowledge is examined, reevaluated and gradually built upon through research of one's own practice within a concrete institution, research grounded in the culture of the educational institution and focused on learning and exploration. In this manner, professional development ceases to be a merely individual process of development and becomes a process of changing the entire culture of the instution – a process in which all of the members of the institution ought to participate and thus create a community that learns and explores

together. In this situation, educators would be able to recognise moments of stagnation or regression within their own practice and react in a timely and appropriate way to them (Miljak, 2009; Wei et al. 2009; Rinaldi, 2006 et al.). A similar view is held by Fullan (2005), who deems that it is necessary to create and shape professional learning communities that will develop a quality practice in harmony with the nature of children – thus developing both their educational institution and developing adaptable, innovative and self-organising networks between institutions.

Senge (2003), a renowned scholar in the area of organisation science, stresses that when we create or develop an organisation that is in harmony with human nature, then we develop a community that lears – and, we could like to add, explores. This author's message agrees with out views on the necessity of creating or developing a kindergarten in harmony with human (children's) nature, which means creating a community in which all participants in the educational process are willing to learn and research their teaching practices every day, and to share their experiences with others. This implies supporting a culture of research, self-initiative and self-organisation, as all members are ready to accept change, live in accordance with changes and engage in a continued process of acquiring new knowledge that will stimulate further development.

Or, to conclude – we are not able to change the system directly, i.e. change the culture of an educational institution. However, we can achieve change by systematically implementing training and cooperative learning and by researching concrete problems immediately and through practice.

References:

Angus J. MacNeil, A., Prater, D., Busch,S. (2009). The effects of school culture and climate on student achievement, *International Journal of Leadership in Education:Theory and Practice,* 12 (1), 73–84.http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13603120701576241 (accessed 13.02.2012)

Armstrong, T. (2008). *Najbolje škole. Kako istraživanje razvoja čovjeka može usmjeravati pedagošku praksu.* Zagreb: Educa.

Boyol, V. (1992). *School Context: Bridge or Barrier to Change*?

www.sedl.org/change/school/culture.html

Bruner, J. S. (2000). *Kultura obrazovanja.* Zagreb, Educa.

Capra, F. (1998). *Mreža života. Novo znanstveno razumijevanje živih sustava.* Zagreb: Liberata.

Carr,W.,Kemmis,S. (1986). *Becoming Critical.* London: The Falmer Press.

Collinson, V., Kozina, E., Kate Lin, Y., Ling, L., Matheson, I., Newcombe, L., Zogla, I. (2009). Professional development for teachers: a world of change, *European Journal of Teacher Education,* 32(1), 3–19.

Cook-Sather, A. (2008). 'What you get is looking in a mirror, only bette': inviting students to reflect (on) college teaching. *Reflective Practice*.4(9),pp.473–483.

Dahlberg, G., Moss, P. i Pence, A. (2003): *Beyond Quality in Early Childhood Education and Care*. London: Falmer Press.

Datnow,A., Hubbard,L., Mehan,H. (2002). *Extending Educational Reform. From One School to Many*, London and New York: RoutledgeFalmer.

Deal, T., Peterson, K.,(1999). What is School Culture?

www.schoolculture.net/whatist,html (20. 07. 2008.)

Edwards, C., Gandini,L.,Forman, G. (ed) (1998). *The Hundered Languages of Children*. The Reggio Emlia Approach – Advanced Reflections. London: Ablex Pub.

Ehrenfeld,J.R. (2009). *Dostizanje održivosti: Jednostavna rješenja ne postoje*. qLife, 1(2), 21–35.

Erickson, G., Brandes, M.G.; Mitchell, I., Mitchell, J. (2005). Collaborative teacher learning: Findings from two professional development projects. *Teaching and Teacher Education* 7(21), pp. 787–798.

Fullan, M. (1993). *Change Forces*. London: The Falmer Press

Fullan, M. (1999), *Change Forces*: The Sequel. London: Falmer Press

Fullan, M. (2005). *Leadership and Sustainability*. London: Corwin Press.

Fullan, M. (2007), *The New Meaning of Educational Change*, 4 th edition. New York and London: Teachers College Columbia University.

Gardner, H. (2005). *Disciplinarni um*. Zagreb: Educa.

Given, H., Kub,L., LeeKeenan, D., Mardell, B., Redditt, S., Twomblly, S. (2010), Changing School Culture: Using Documentation to Support Collaborative Inquiry. *Theory Into Practice* 49 (1), pp. 36–46.

Grossman, P., Hammerness, K., McDonald, M. (2009), Redefining teaching, re‑imagining teacher education, *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice,* 15(2), 273–289

http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13540600902875340 (accessed 23.03.2012.)

Hargreaves, D. (1999), Helping Practitioners Explore Their School¨s Culture. In: Prosser, J. (ed.), *School Culture*. London: P.C.P.

Hinde, E. R. (2005), School Culture and Change: An Examination o the Effects of School Culture on the Process of Change. Arizona State University West

www. nsdc.org (22. 07. 2008)

Hopkins, D. (2001), *School Improvement for Real*. London: Falmer press.

Hopkins, D.(2007), *Every School a Great School. Realizing the potential of system leadership*. New York: Open Universtiy Press.

Kinsler,K.,Gamble.M. (2001). *Reforming Scholls*. London: Continuum.

Kimonen, E., Nevalainen, R. (2005), Active learning in the process of educational change. *Teaching and Teacher Education* 21, 623–635

www.elsevier.com/locate/tate (accessed, 3.04.2012)

Liberman, A., Miller, L., (2002), Transforming Professional Development: Understanding and Organizing Learning Communities. In: *The Keyes to Effective Schools – Educational Reforma as Continuous Improvement*. California: Corin Press, Inc., Thousand Oaks,74–86.

MacGilchrist, B., Myers, K., Reed, J. (2004). *The Intelligent School*. London: Sage Publications.

Mac Naughton, G. (2012), *Shaping Early Childhood. Learners, Curriculum and Contexts*. Bekshire: Open University Press.

Maleš, D. (ur.) (2011). *Nove paradigme ranog odgoja*. Zagreb: Filozofski fakultet Sveučilišta u Zagrebu – Zavod za pedagogiju. Alinea.

Miljak, A., Vujičić, L. (ur.)(2000). *Vrtić kao dječja kuća*. Poreč: Dječji vrtić Radost.

Miljak, A., Vujičić, L. (ur.) (2002). *Vrtić u skladu s dječjom prirodom „dječja kuća"*. Rovinj: Dječji vrtić Neven.

Miljak, A. (2009). *Življenje djece u vrtiću. Novi pristupi u shvaćanju, istraživanju i organiziranju odgojno-obrazovnog procesa u dječjim vrtićima*. Zagreb: SM naklada.

Muijs, D., West, M., Ainscow, M. (2010), Why network? Theoretical perspectives on networking, *School Effectiveness and School Improvement: An International Journal of Research, Policy and Practice*, 21(1), 5–26. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09243450903569692 (preuzeto 13.02.2012)

Morin, E. (2002). *Odgoj za budućnost: sedam temeljnih spoznaja nužnih u odgoju budućnosti*. Zagreb: Educa.

Oliveira-Formosinho, J., Formosinho, J. (2012). *Pedagogy – in– Participatio: Childhood Asociation Educational Perspective*. Porto: Porto Editora

Pascal,Ch., Bertram,T. (2011). What is Practitioner Research and why is it important in the Early Years? http://www.crec.co.uk/ preuzeto 20.8.2012.

Pešić, M. (1998). *Pedagogija u akciji – metodološki priručnik*. Beograd: Institut za pedagogiju i andragogiju Filozofskog fakulteta Univerziteta u Beogradu.

Peterson, K. (2002), Positive or negative? *Journal of Staff Development*, Vo. 23, No. 3.

www.nsdc.org/library/publications/jsd/peterson233.cfm (27.07.2008)

Peterson, K.D., Deal, T.E. (2009). *The Shaping School Culture*. San Franciso: Jossey-Bass.

Petrović-Sočo, B. (2009). *Mijenjanje konteksta i odgojne prakse dječjih vrtića*. Zagreb: Mali profesor.

Prosser, J. (ed.) (1999), *School Culture*. London: P.C.P.

Rinaldi, C. (2001). Infant – Todler Centers and Preschools as Places of Culture. In: Giudici, C., Rinaldi, C. (ed.), *Making Learning Visible – Children as Individual and Group Learners*. Reggio Children, Municipality of Reggio Emilia, 34–38.

Rinaldi, C. (2006). *In Dialogue with Reggio Emilia: listening, researching and learning*. New York: Routledge.

Schoen, L. T., Teddlie, C. (2008). A new model of school culture: a response to a call for conceptual clarity. *School Efectiveness and School Improvement* 19 (2), pp. 129–153.

Senge, P. (2001). *Peta disciplina u praksi. Principi i praksa učeće organizacije*. Zagreb: Mozaik knjiga.

Senge, P., McCabe, N.C., Lucas, T. (2002). *Schools That Learn*. New York: Doubleday.

Senge, P., Ross, R., Smith, B., Roberts,C., Kleiner,A. (2002). *Peta disciplina u praksi. Strategije i alati za gradnju učeće organizacije*. Zagreb: Mozaik knjiga.

Senge, P. et al. (2003). *Ples promjene. Izazovi u razvoju učećih organizacija*. Zagreb: Mozaik knjiga.

Senge, P., Scharmer, O.C.,Jaworski, J.,Flowers, B.S. (2007). *Prisustvo. Ljudska svrha i polje budućnosti*. Zagreb: Društvo za organizacijsko učenje Hrvatske.

Senge, P. (2009). Zatvaranje kruga između materije i uma–1.dio.

www.quantum21.net (accessed 3.02. 2010)

Slunjski, E. (2006). *Stvaranje predškolskog kurikuluma u vrtiću – organizaciji koja uči*. Zagreb: Mali profesor.

Stoll, L., Fink, D. (2000). *Mijenjajmo naše škole, Kako unaprijediti djelotvornost i kvalitetu škola*. Zagreb: Educa.

Šagud, M. (2006). Odgajatelj kao refleksivni praktičar. Petrinja: Visoka učiteljska škola u Petrinji.

Townsend, T. (2011). Thinking and acting both locally and globally: new issues for teacher education, *Journal of Education for Teaching: International research and pedagogy,* 37(2), 121–137. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/02607476.2011.558263 (accessed 28.03.2012)

Trowler, P. (2008). *Cultures and Change in Higher Education. Theories and Practices*. London: Palgrave Macmillan.

Vrcelj, S. (2003). Školska kultura – faktor kvalitete. u: Kramar, M. i Duh, M. (ur.): *Didaktični in metodični vidiki prenove in razvoja izobraževanja: knjiga referatov z 2. mendnarodnega znanstvenog a posveta*. Maribor: Pedagoški fakultet, str. 87–95.

Vujičić, L. (2008). Research and Improvement of One's own Practice – Way to Development of Teachers'/preschool teachers' Practical Competence. u: I. Žogla (ur.): *Teacher of the 21st century: Quality Education for Quality Teaching*. Riga: University of Latvia Press. pp. 184–194.

Vujičić, L. (2011). *Istraživanje kulture odgojno-obrazovne ustanove*. Zagreb: Mali profesor: Rijeka: Sveučilište u Rijeci.

Vujičić, L. (2011a). Novi pristup istraživanju kulture vrtića. u: Maleš, D. (ur.). *Nove paradigme ranog odgoja*. Zagreb: Filozofski fakultet Sveučilišta u Zagrebu – Zavod za pedagogiju. Alinea. str. 207–234.

*Lidija Miškeljin**

Integrated Policies for Early Childhood Education and Care – Challenges and Possibilities

Early childhood education and care (ECEC) or pre-school education does not yet have a clearly defined provision. At different periods it was classified in other more developed fields – sometimes education, health or social. Depending on the time of the governmental structure of society, the dominant social system, culture, tradition, wealth / poverty and other existing resources, power/status of individuals in relation to society and the state, a system of ECEC or preschool education can vary through time, space and the community in which they are created and formed. Recognizing the importance of the social context in the identification of the role of ECEC or preschool education by individuals in a community, it opens the possibility of considering the social context – how the social practices and relationships create value through public policy. This paper aims at providing some reflections on the policy development and implementation of integrated services of early childhood education and care (ECEC) within a systemic perspective.

Key words: early childhood education and care, position and role, integrated approach.

---

*   University of Belgrade, Faculty of Philosophy, Belgrade, Serbia

Introduction

Early childhood education and care (ECEC) is becoming a growing priority, and has received increased policy attention in many countries during the past years. Equitable access to quality early childhood education is increasingly viewed by policy makers as a way of strengthening the foundations of lifelong learning for all children and supporting the educational and social needs of families. While countries are increasingly determined to increase the provision of ECEC, these policy developments are often motivated by economic and political goals (Urban 2009: 12). It should not be forgotten that early childhood education is, first and foremost, *for children.*

The OECD has undertaken the broadest and most systematic cross-national study of services for young children, covering 20 of its member states, most, but not all, in Europe. The two reports of this thematic review of early childhood education and care (Starting Strong, published in 2001, and Starting Strong II, published in 2006) include not only invaluable information and insights, but a number of "key policy elements of successful ECEC (early childhood education and care) policy", including: a systematic and integrated approach to policy; a strong and equal partnership between early childhood services and the education system; equal possibility for enrolment; substantial public investment in services and infrastructure; a participatory approach to quality improvement and assurance; and appropriate training and working conditions for all staff.

The adoption of a common denominator, such as ECEC, which refers to the set of possibilities that cover the services oriented to the care and education of young children, has some important implications:

- It recognises that all types of services providing care and education for children below school age belong to the same field;
- It addresses the multiplicity of dimensions involved in the field;
- It leads to convergent actions with regard to policy, programmes or research.

The integrated approach to ECEC systems stems from a paradigm shift, in which the responsibility for the care and socialisation of young child lies no longer with the family alone, but of society as a whole, shifting from a deficit model to a model based on human rights. It results that a significant portion of the upbringing process has become a public matter, therefore falling within the realm of human rights arena, with enormous implications for the development of ECEC policies and programs. "It is about situating public provision for children within an analysis of

a changing world and the implications of that world for such provision". (Moss, 2005:2) Within this perspective, the term ECEC suggests shifts in the services' approach and objectives — from selective and exclusive to universal and inclusive — and sets out the elements that grant legitimacy to the system: integration, unity, continuity, comprehensiveness and coherence.

In this paper, a review shall be given on integration within education concerning the effect on ECEC being situated in education, alongside compulsory and post-compulsory education. What are the implications of being integrated there rather than in, say, welfare? To what extent does the whole ECEC system assume the values and principles of the educational system?

Functions and roles of ECEC

The question of the role and purpose of ECEC is defined through what society, as a community of human agents, agrees upon and creates. These constructions come to life with regard to dominant understandings of the child on the one hand, and influence and determine the identity of the ECEC through our given denominations on the other. That way ECEC, as a structural form, represents a specific structure arising in response to an authentic social and cultural series of historical events related to the care and education of early age children.

Most fundamental question we ask ourselves when speaking about ECEC is: what is our image of the child? The question is fundamental because discussion of services for young children must start with young children. To ask the question is to recognise that there are many possible images or understandings of childhood. „Our construction of childhood and our images of the child represent ethical and political choices, made within larger frameworks of ideas, values and rationalities"(Moss, 2005:55). To answer is to make a political and ethical choice, a choice that is very significant for policy, provision and practice and offers a statement of values as a point of reference for the principles that follow.

Given the multifaceted nature of early childhood, it often goes by a number of names and definitions, in different countries, as well as between different stakeholders. For example, UNESCO refers to early education as early childhood care and education (ECCE), the OECD calls it early childhood education and care (ECEC), and the World Bank calls it early child development (ECD), while UNICEF calls it early childhood development (ECD).

In today's modern and postmodern society, there are a great number of debates about the relation between care and education within the ECEC: is care, protection and security of the child, more important or is it the education. Many questions arise: should ECEC have only one function and could it satisfy both? In today's world, many children need care outside of the family, most often because their parents are working and the ECEC should provide that sort of care. The more important question is: how do we construct the significance of the ECEC through the purpose we give it? What do we think, what is it for? How do we situate it through state, social and/or cultural aspect? What is the basic purpose of early childhood education and care?

n order for the education to fulfil its role in the cultural production, achieve social changes, i.e. so it wouldn't only maintain and restore the existing, it should aspire towards development of individuals who shall be emancipated, independent critical thinkers, who shall actively participate in the changes of their immediate and broader environment and be ready to contribute to the common "acts" of their culture through continuous learning.

By exposing different philosophical understandings of the development of early childhood education and care, Dahlberg and Moss (Dahlberg, Moss, 2005) are showing how the institutionalisation of the child brings a dilemma to practitioners involved in care and education of young children and to other institutions directly or indirectly involved with children through political and ethnical instruments. Whilst before there was a widespread understanding that the family is the only natural place and a suitable environment for the upbringing of young children, today, not only do we not see a necessary evil in public education of young children, but it is declared necessary for good emotional, social and intellectual development in early childhood. Pedagogical literature on preschool often either contains or openly presents a thesis by which the institutionalization of preschool children is either the consequence of advances in knowledge about the development and education or a matter of social progress.

The idea and the concept of "social education of young children" turns institutional education into the social one, which implies a change of basic function of ECEC: instead of "replacement and addition" to the family education based on consumer relationship, ECEC should be an opportunity for the exercise of parental function at a social level and a place for joint residence and equal decision-making for children and adults (Marjanović, 1987.) However, is it really? Each country develops institutions for care and education of young children in different ways, depending on the social and cultural context.

Split or integrated system

There is a correlation between concepts of childhood, responsibility for the education and care of young children, the objectives of ECEC institutions, and political and practical aspects related to the supply, management, financing, and distribution of services, starting age of compulsory school, age groups, annual school calendar, length of operation during the day and year, types of services, flexibility and accessibility to different groups, staffing (profile and conditions), and parental involvement. Some basic system characteristics have been selected to discuss major challenges and pitfalls facing government spheres (municipalities, states and ministries) in charge of the ECEC system, as they go about integrating care and education within a wider perspective.

In every country, early childhood care and education (ECEC) services embody two different traditions: care and education. The former was often developed as a welfare measure for working-class children who needed care while their parents were at work; the latter as kindergarten or pre-primary education, providing middle-class or all children with enriched educational activities prior to formal schooling. For example, in France, crèches and écoles maternelles were both established during the period of industrialisation with the aim to take care of poor children while their parents worked in factories. However, crèches evolved into services with a strong medical orientation focusing on children's health and hygiene. They became part of government responsibility only after the Second World War, and have always been fee-paying. By contrast, écoles maternelles were integrated in the education system in 1886 as a vehicle for constructing the French nation and disseminating the French language, and increased in number rapidly thereafter (Rayna, 2007). In Sweden, the first nurseries were established in the 1850s for children with evident social needs, funded by charitable organisations, while the first kindergartens were set up in the 1890s to offer part-time early education for middle class children (Taguchi, Munkammar, 2003).

In most countries, whether in the North or South, this division between care and education strongly influences the organisation of ECEC services. Typically, the two sectors in these 'split systems' are governed, in terms of policy making and administration, by social welfare and education ministries respectively, and are also structured in very different ways with respect to types of service, workforce, access criteria, funding and regulation. Given their distinct historical roots, 'childcare' and 'early education' services in these split systems embody different visions and understandings of children, programme goals, approaches and contents.

For example, in the Flemish-speaking Community of Belgium, there is a clear division of responsibility for childcare and early education. Childcare services, including family day care, for children from birth to 3 years and out-of-school provision are under the responsibility of Kind en Gezin (Child and Family), an agency that reports to the Flemish Ministry for Welfare, Public Health and Family. The responsibility for kleuterscholen (public pre-school provision) for children aged two and a half and above is with the Flemish Ministry of Education. Subsidised childcare services are open at least 11 hours daily for the whole year, facilitating working parents, whereas kleuterscholen operate seven hours daily during the academic year. Nearly all (98 %) children aged 3 to 6 years attend kleuterscholen while about 65% of children aged from birth to 3 years are in formal childcare arrangements on a part-time or full-time basis or else have started attending kleuterschool. In terms of staffing, subsidised childcare centres engage certified kinderverzorgsters (childcarers) with a post-secondary (1 year) professional diploma. Kleuterscholen, on the other hand, have kleuteronderwijzers (nursery school teachers) with 3-year tertiary qualification. As for funding, 96% of the costs of kleuterscholen are covered by public funding and the rest by parental contributions. (Peeters, 2009, 2013). By contrast, subsidised crèches and family day care services in France are funded by public subsidies and parental fees which are set according to family income (parental fees come to 26% of the total budget for crèches and 60% for family day care) (OECD 2006).

Split systems have been the subject of critical discussion since the 1970s. More recently, actual or potential problems of split systems are noted in Starting Strong I and II: Early Childhood Education and Care (2001 and 2006), reports compiled on the basis of ECEC policy reviews in 20 OECD countries. These and later analyses have suggested that the following problems may be more common in split systems:

- Fragmentation of services between those within the welfare system, which are predominantly for the youngest age group, and those within the education system, predominantly for older children.

- Education seen to begin from the age of 3 or 4 years, with younger children defined primarily as needing only minding or care while their parents work; at the same time, strong 'schoolification' of services in the education system, leading generally to junior schools for children 3 to 6 years and educational neglect of children under 3 years.

- Government assuming greater responsibility for education services for children over 3 years than for welfare services for children

under 3 years, with correspondingly weaker funding and less availability for the younger children. This can be especially adverse for children from more disadvantaged families.

- Differences between services in welfare and education in key areas such as access, regulation, funding and workforce, leading to inequalities, discontinuities and problems for children, parents and workers. For example, levels of training and pay for workers in services in the welfare system are usually lower than those for workers in the education system, though group sizes and staff ratios are often worse in the latter; services in the education system are free of charge to parents but parents must pay at least part of the cost of services in welfare; services in the education system are available for shorter hours than those in the welfare system, requiring many parents to make additional care arrangements.

Challenges of integration

Some countries have adopted a more integrative response, starting by consolidating national responsibility for ECEC into a single ministry. There is considerable variation as to how far countries go in the integration process: integration should be seen as a dimension ranging from limited to complete.

Therefore, the integrative systems are characterised by:
- a redefinition of public (state) and private (family) relationships concerning children's affairs;
- the recognition of the rights of the child who socialises and is cared for in a wider social context than that of the family;
- the recognition of the family's right to share the care and education of the child with society;
- the recognition that childcare is a professional task which, along with education in a broader sense, constitutes a new way of promoting the child's full development.

The Nordic countries pioneered the policy approach of administrative integration into a single government department in the 1960s and 1970s, bringing together national responsibility for ECEC within social welfare (with the exception of Iceland, which integrated it within education from the start).

Since the late 1980s, the trend has been toward integrating ECEC within education (Neuman, 2005; UNESCO, 2006). The overall national

responsibility for ECEC in Sweden and Norway was moved from social welfare to education in 1996 and 2005 respectively. Other countries that have adopted the approach of integrating ECEC within education include England (1998), Jamaica (1998), Iceland, New Zealand (1986), Romania (2009), Scotland (1998), Slovenia (1996), and Serbia (2003, 2010).

Only Denmark and Finland still have ECEC services fully integrated within social welfare. Responsibility for ECEC at federal level is also integrated within social welfare in Germany (Federal Ministry for Family Affairs, Senior Citizens, Women and Youth), but arrangements vary at Länder and municipal levels, which play a leading role in ECEC. Some Länder have integrated responsibility – in education or social welfare; some operate under split responsibility, with children under 3 years under social welfare and 3 to 6 year olds under education. A range of analyses, including the OECD reviews (2001, 2006) and some studies published by UNESCO (e.g. Choi, 2005), has put forward possible advantages of integrating ECEC responsibility within a single ministry, such as more coherent policy and greater equality and consistency across sectors in terms of social objectives, regulation, funding and staffing regimes, curriculum and assessment, costs to parents, and opening hours, in contrast to high fragmentation of policy and services.

OECD (2006) has argued that it matters less in which ministry – education, social welfare, family affairs or gender equality – responsibility for ECEC is integrated, but that the ministry has a strong focus on young children's development and education. To what extent does the whole ECEC system share an understanding of what it is for and what it is doing, and how far is this expressed in a common language? In short, has the system got beyond thinking and talking about 'childcare' and 'education'? Of course, thinking and talking need not convert into policy and practice, so we might best consider this as a necessary but not sufficient condition for deep integration of the whole system.

Serbia and ECEC policy

Dominant cultural pattern in Serbia with a tendency to overprotect children and mistrust the competence of children (Trebješanin, 1991), is transferred into institutional contexts of upbringing and education of children. It seems that the traditional concept of the child as "weak, feeble, non-independent" being (Trebješanin, 1991) who needs care and guidance from adults is still present. Social, regional and sub-cultural differences in Serbia, heritage, traditions and cultural systems are reflected in terms of institutional education of young children.

Ever since the construction of the system of child protection in 1974, the kindergarten has been developing into preschool institutions as a basic institutional part which has been getting a lot of attention and insurance for the development worthy of needs of families and children, whilst preschool education is being defined as a part of a unique system of education which constitutes a whole along with family education, through the main activities of: nurture, education, health care and organisation of vacation and recreation for children (Pešić, 2000)

Changes in regulations that followed until 1992 (Law of kindergartens in 1957, and 1965, the Law on Immediate Child Protection and Financial (Parental) Aid in 1967, and 1972, the Law on Pre-School Education in 1974., the Law on Social Care of Children in 1987, 1990, and 1992) have not changed the status of these institutions. In order to define the provision of pre-schools, we started from the fact that they meet the needs of parents to take care of children while they are at work, provide appropriate preventive health and sanitary-hygienic living conditions of children, and together with relevant psychological and pedagogical contents, procedures and methods, meet the developmental needs of children and materialize a process of education. Economical, political and ideological factors have influenced the equation of the education of young children and child's day-long stay (day care) in kindergartens (Pešić, 2000). The half-day educational forms, resulting partially from the educational function of kindergarten, are now present only in the one year before school – pre-school program – and with the title itself emphasizes the child's role expressed as "waiter in the waiting room of life" (James, Prout, 2005). Thus defined, the activity and therefore the identity of the kindergarten, was retained as such to this day.

The legislation from 2003, 2009 and 2010 merged ECEC with the Ministry of Education. The Ministry of Education has defined three main lines of action for the development of education in Serbia: Equality; Quality and Competitiveness within the European education framework, and Education system efficiency. There is a need for expanding and optimizing the network of preschool institutions as well as for greater inclusion of children in preschool institutions. The Law on Fundamentals of Education System (Official Gazette of the Republic of Serbia, No. 72/09) defines preschool education and upbringing as a genuine part of educational system, the first stage of public education organized by and subject to the Ministry of Education's requirements and instructions.[1] Obligatory schooling

1   Preschool education in 2003 fell under jurisdiction of Ministry of Education (at that time named Ministry for Education and Sport) by the Law on Ministries (Official Gazette of the Republic of Serbia No 6/02). By the *Law on Fundamentals of Education*

starts at age of 5,5 (with Preparatory Preschool Program) and finishes at the age of 16. The new Law opens mainstream educational institutions to all children by requiring that educational systems must provide equal access, equal opportunities, and equal outcomes for all children. The system also has to grant knowledge and skills which are needed for the success of every individual in contemporary societies. This Act sets a framework for the development of all other specific laws and bylaw documents, targeting the specific levels of educational system.

The new Law on Preschool education and upbringing, based on the Law on Fundamentals of Education System, was adopted in March 2010 (Official Gazette of the Republic of Serbia, No. 18/10) with the aim to line up the system of preschool education in the Republic of Serbia with the system of preschool education of the European Union[2]. This document is crucial, as it is the first **Law on preschool education** since it became part of the educational system (2003).[3]

Preschool education and its organization within the educational system

Preschool education covers children from 6 months to 6 and half years of age. Only obligatory part is preparatory preschool program (5,5 to 6,6 years of age). Work of preschool institutions is multifunctional, it provides to young children education, nutrition, care, preventive health and social care. Work with children from 6 months to 3 years is organized in nursery/ crèches; day care/kindergartens are for children from 3 to 5,5 years; obligatory PPP is for children from 5,5 to 6,5 years. PPP can be organized both in preschool institutions and primary schools.

Preschool institutions offer programs of different duration: whole day (9 to 12 hours per day, 5 days a week); half day (PPP 4 hours per day, 5 days a week); half day (6 hours per day, 5 days a week); half day (6 hours per day, 3 days a week) and more than one day duration (longer than 24 hours, sometimes five days per week).

System (Official Gazette of the Republic of Serbia, No. 62/03) adopted in 2003 preschool education was recognized for the first time as a genuine part of educational system, the first stage of public education.

2 One of the relevant documents is European strategy for smart, sustainable and inclusive growth " Europe 2020"

3 From 2003 till now preschool education was regulated by *Law on Fundamentals of Education System* (Official Gazette of the Republic of Serbia, No. 62/03). This was umbrella Law so many important issues for preschool education were not regulated. Before in power was Law on Child's care and protection (1992).

Under the Law, parents have the right to choose a program for their children. Nevertheless, in our opinion, it does not mean that parents really do have a choice. There is no regulation which is compelling LSGs to organize diverse services for young children and their families, and to provide sufficient capacities for all children, so parents choose from limited offers and only if they are in a position to choose.

Preschool institutions are organized at the level of Municipality, Local Self Government (only Belgrade has more than one preschool institution; other cities and Municipalities have only one preschool institution); they have their central building/office and other buildings-premises sprinkled around municipality territory. Currently preschool program is implemented in 159 preschool institutions (with 2160 premises) founded by local self-governments, 56 preschool institutions are founded by other legal or natural persons (private preschool institutions) and 192 primary schools implement preparatory preschool program.[4]

Enrolment of children in Preschool Institutions is conducted upon request of parents. Preschool education is financed from the budget of LSG. Preparatory preschool programs (for children 5,5 to 6,5 age), preschool programs for children with developmental problems and work with hospitalized children is financed from the state budget. Children without parental care, children with developmental problems and children from financially endangered families are free from paying a price per child (other parents are paying 20% of the economic price, while local self-management budgets cover remaining 80% of economic price).

All of this policy solutions of integrated system of ECEC in Serbia still do not solve the limitations defined in 2001: we still have "split competencies between three ministries (Ministry of Education, Science and Technological Development, Ministry for Social Affairs and Ministry of Health), parts of the existing practice/system are either not legally regulated at all or are inadequately regulated (privately organised forms, nongovernmental sector of supply), ununiformed system both on the level of regulation (kindergarten with day-care as the basic regulation) and on the level of hitherto policy and practice, decentralisation on the level of funding and planning the supply has the effect of increasing regional differences, insufficient capacity, regional unevenness of the network and the limited supply of different types of programmes and services (inconsistency with needs), low overall coverage, with the exception of the oldest children in certain places (the overall coverage of all programmes and services for children aged 1–7 is around 32%, which is among the lowest in Europe)".(MoES, 2002).

---

4   Resource http://www.mp.gov.rs/

Conclusion

Consolidating ECEC administration under the protection of the educational system is a growing trend, which has many advantages: it facilitates the development of a coherent policy for regulation, funding, and training, and consistent service delivery across different levels of the educational system, as well as cooperation among early childhood education and elementary school professionals, and a continuity of pedagogical approaches for children in the transition from one education level to another. Furthermore, it increases the probability of making the access to the public school system a right for all children.

Nevertheless, this approach implies some risks. As ECEC becomes more fully integrated into the compulsory school system, services may become more "school-oriented" in terms of structure (opening hours, staffing, adult-child ratio, physical setting) and pedagogical approach, as well as more isolated from other childhood related areas.

Simply moving administrative responsibility for ECEC into education is not enough: it is a starting point for reform. Great attention has to be paid to the subsequent process, including strong re-thinking to complement deep re-structuring. Integration requires re-thinking of concepts and understandings and re-structuring, covering a range of areas including access, regulation, funding, and workforce. Re-thinking the meaning of education and the relationship between pre-school and school is an opportunity arising from integration – but it is also a necessity. In short, integration in education must be matched by opening up the meaning of education, and not just for young children – what do we mean by education? What is education for? Integration in education should also open up the question of the relationship between ECEC and schools systems, leading to the creation of a 'strong and equal partnership' in part through developing pedagogical meeting places.

In today's world, the care and education of children require shared responsibility between governments and society. Without such commitment, one side of the boat – the family and mainly the mothers – will certainly be overloaded. There are many intense external world demands on families: rising competition, increased professional instability, reduction in labour rights, the race for technological knowledge and the constant threat of unemployment and poverty. Under these circumstances, will it be possible to prevent the boat from sinking?

An ECEC integrated system requires firm political will, state responsibility, and a clear awareness of the comprehensiveness of the functions involved. Given these conditions, an ECEC policy should, under government leadership, involve all society in a joint and convergent enterprise.

References:

Choi, S. (2003). Cross-sectorial coordination in early childhood: some lessons to learn. *UNESCO Policy Brief on Early Childhood* No. 9. Paris: UNESCO.

Dahlberg, G., Moss, P. & A. Pence (2005). *Ethics and Politics in Early Childhood education*, London and New York: Routledge Falmer.

European Commission (2007b). Towards more knowledge-based policy and practice in education and training, *Commission Staff Working Document,* SEC1098.

Europe 2020 – *A strategy for smart, sustainable and inclusive growth* (2010). Brisel: European Commission.

Eurydice Report (2009). Early Childhood Education and Care in Europe: Tacking Social and Cultural Inequalities. *Education, Audio visual and Culture Executive Agency.* Brussels.

James, A. & A. Prout (2005). *Constructing and Deconstructing Childhood: Contemporary Issues in the Sociological Study of Childhood.* London. Routledge.

Levin, B. (2004). Making Research Matter More. *Education Policy Analysis Archives.* 12,56.

Moss, P. (2007). Bringing politics into the nursery: early childhood education as a democratic practice, *European Early Childhood Education Research Journal*, 15, 1, 5–20.

OECD (2001). *Starting Strong I: Early Childhood Education and Care.* Paris: OECD.

OECD (2006). *Starting Strong II: Early Childhood Education and Care.* Paris: OECD.

Marjanović, A. (1987). Protivrečna pitanja javnog vaspitanja predškolske dece, Beograd: *Predškolsko dete,* 1–4.

Ministarstvo prosvete, nauke i tehnološkog razvoja (2012). *Strategija razvoja obrazovanja u Srbiji do 2020.* Beograd: Ministarstvo prosvete, nauke i tehnološkog razvoja.

Ministarstvo prosvete i sporta Republike Srbije (2002). *Kvalitetno obrazovanje za sve – put ka razvijenom društvu.* Beograd: Ministarstvo prosvete i sporta RS.

Neuman, M. J. (2005). Governance of early childhood care and education: recent developments in OECD countries. *Early Years.* vol. 25, No. 2, pp. 129–141.

Zakon o osnovama sistema obrazovanja i vaspitanja, Beograd: Službeni glasnik. Republike Srbije br. 62/2003.

Zakon o izmenama i dopunama Zakona o osnovama sistema obrazovanja i vaspitanja, Beograd: Službeni glasnik Republike Srbije br.62/03,64/03,58/04, 62/04.

Zakon o osnovama sistema obrazovanja i vaspitanja, Beograd: Službeni glasnik Republike Srbije br.72/09.

Zakon o predškolskom vaspitanju i obrazovanju (2010). Beograd: Prosvetni pregled.

Penn, H. et al. (2004). Systematic Review of the Impact of Integrated Out of Home Early Education and Care on Children aged 0–6. *Research Evidence in Education Library*. London: Social Science Research Unit, Institute of Education.

www.eppi.ioe.ac.uk

Peeters, J. & M. Vandenbroeck (2009). *Caring and Learning Together: A Case Study of Ghent of Belgium Flemish Community*. Paris: UNESCO.

Peeters, J. (2013). *Country position paper on ECEC of the Flemish Community of Belgium,* Genth: VBJK.

Pešić, M. i saradnici (2000). *Predškolsko vaspitanje i obrazovanje u SR Jugoslaviji*, Beograd: CRS.

Ranya, S. (2007). Early childhood education in France, in R. S. New and M. Cochran (eds.) *Early childhood education. An international encyclopaedia.* vol. 4, 1063–1068.

Taguchi, L. H. & I. Munkammar (2003). *Consolidating governmental ECCE services under the ministry of education and sciences: A Swedish case study*, Paris: UNESCO. http://unesdoc.unesco.org/ulis/cgi-bin/ExtractPDF.pl?catno=130135&look=default&ll=1

rebješanin, Ž. (1991). *Predstava o detetu u srpskoj kulturi*. Beograd: Srpska književna zadruga.

Education for All Global Monitoring Report. Strong Foundations: Early Childhood Care and Education (2006). Paris: UNESCO.

Urban, M. (2009). *Early Childhood Education in Europe: Achievements, Challenges and Possibilities*. Brussels: Education International.

*Tatjana Novović**

The Effects of Educational Reform Changes on Preschool Context in Montenegro[1]

In this paper we will try to look at dimensions of the educational context in Montenegro, from the perspective of the reform objectives/changes that have occurred in the last decade in the field of preschool education. Objective: To determine the extent to which the educational process in pre-school institutional context in Montenegro responds to the fundamental reform requirements/tasks in the field of educational process (learning), curriculum, preschool teachers competencies, organizational conditions for educational work (environment), and cooperation with parents. Starting from the key research areas (active learning/interaction of children in the educational process, development of children's individuality and right to choose, a holistic approach to child development and learning, individualization, open curriculum and thematic planning, the opening of the kindergarten to family and community), a structured questionnaire for preschool teachers was designed and implemented in a sample of selected areas in Montenegro. The survey included 484 respondents from three regions who completed the questionnaire while the interviews were conducted as focus groups. Our respondents assessed that the quality of preschool education in Montenegro, in general, is on a relatively high level, but it is necessary to further en-

---

* University of Montenegro, Faculty of Philosophy, Nikšić, Montenegro

1 From the project "*The effects of reform changes on preschool education context in Montenegro*"

courage the research of practice. Moreover, the cooperation with parents and local community should be more diverse and more comprehensive, the attitudes of the participants in the preschool context should constantly change and kindergarten should permanently grow into the "learning organization".

Key words: reform, curriculum, active learning, interaction, open system.

Introduction

The need for fundamental turn in changing the current education system is the result of the recognition that past fragmentary interventions and corrections on the system surface or only in some of its segments did not meet clear and profound requirements of the education practice. Indeed, innovations can be spread over the entire system-globally (reform), or in some of its segments-partially (changes). It can be said that all reforms go along with the new requirements and motives for new changes. And it represents a unique tendency in education systems even in completely different ambiental circumstances.

Demands for reform are naturally indicator of social maturity and need for general updates on all levels. Mitic cites the opinion of the Polish pedagogue V. Okonjo who distinguishes "five categories of innovation: structural, program, methodological, organizational, system" (Milic, S. by Mitic, in 1999, p. 45, 47). It can be said that all these changes are inseparable and mutually dependent.

In this paper we will try to investigate dimensions of the educational context in Montenegro from the perspective of the reform objectives/ changes that have occurred in the last decade in the field of preschool education. As part of the research project that was from many aspects focused on the aforementioned issues, this paper focuses on key research components, obtained from data which combine the responses of two instruments (analysis of questionnaires and interviews with preschool teachers) applied on the sub-sample of preschool teachers (while the larger research project encompassed parents, pedagogues and psychologists, supervisors, directors). Due to the nature of the subject matter and a scope of the planned work, we will predominantly focus on the review and evaluation of the reformed preschool context, from the perspective of the research sample, that is from the point of view of preschool teachers, the key stakeholders and the participants in educational life of a kindergarten.

The broader objective was set in the following manner: To determine the extent to which the educational process in preschool context in Montenegro corresponds to the fundamental reform requirements/tasks in the field of: educational process (learning), curriculum (Program and Planning), competence of preschool teachers/teachers, organizational conditions (environment), and cooperation with parents.

Of course, we are focused on identifying specific challenges and obstacles in educational process for the purpose of planning the possible measures for overcoming these challanges and obstacles in future.

Given the complexity and the layered structure of the research subject/field, methodological concept is based on the combined quantitative-qualitative approach and the use of appropriate instruments.

The role of the teacher in education

The previous constellation of core dimensions of the education system (the traditional model) –with thoroughly structured and unified curricula, static environment which largely affected the narrowing of opportunities for the use of various strategies and methods, poor interaction, i.e. predominantly one-way communication from a teacher to a child, technical and spatial (dis)organization and poor equipment in the kindergarten, models of pre-service and in-service teacher training etc. influenced the quality and directions of teachers professional action. Of course, their role is the result of a series of broader contextual and determining factors that have their implications in practice. Villegas-Reimers listed seven factors that define the framework for professional development of teachers:

- professional development of teachers started with selecting candidates for the teaching faculties,
- the cognitive and psychosocial development of teachers as adult learners,
- characteristics of the school,
- the local environment,
- socio-cultural context,
- time,
- financial resources (Klasnja, S., according to Villegas-Reimers &Reimers 2000).

"The concept of the teacher's role includes scientifically established and in professional practice proven facts about the optimal structure of

teachers' activities in various areas of educational work, about the ways of adopting, modifying and improving these activities" (Havelka, 2000).

Depending on positions and expectations, the particular context defines different roles. Linton, a prominent American anthropologist determines the role and status as a "place in a particular system which a certain individual occupies in relation to the system" (Pavlovic, 1993). That system, no matter if it is educational, social or life system, largely determines the boundaries and a framework of reference for teachers' professional achievements.

Of course, we should not forget that the educational process is conditioned by the curriculum in the narrow sense, but also by structural and personal reasons, i.e. "the implicit pedagogy of teacher him/herself" (Pešić, 1989).

Micro system of an educational institution, reflected in visible, distinctive structural elements (space, time, organization of children in the homogenized age groups, staff, pedagogues and psychologists and their roles and work frameworks) represents the precondition for quality of entire process in that institution, and influences perceptions and actions of all its participants as well as their interaction and the way of life in the kindergarten environment, and consequently in the wider milieu.

We tried to find out more on these dimensions of preschool institutions in Montenegro, in terms of changed paradigms and reformed educational context, through the application of specifically structured research instruments, focused on the analysis of the above mentioned components.

Results Analysis and Discussion

Analysis of the questionnaire for teachers

Starting from the key fields focused as the research subject, a questionnaire for teachers was structured, and and the survey was carried out in selected areas in Montenegro according to projected criteria (thematically concentrated categories: active learning/participation of children through play, as well as developing children's individuality and the right to choose, a holistic approach to child development and individualization, open curriculum and thematic planning, the opening of the institution to the family and community). 484 respondents from all the three regions and all pre-school institutions in these regions (Northern–131, Central–227 and Southern–126) participated in the survey, as planned and presented in the

methodological part of a larger research project (Podgorica, Niksic, Bar, Budva, Herceg-Novi, Pljevlja, Bar and Bijelo Polje).

By analyzing the respondents' education, we find that the majority of preschool teachers, or 61.4%, have a college degree, followed by 10.5% of those with bachelor's degree and 28.1% of those who completed specialized studies. Permanently employed teachers are dominant in our sample (68.9%).

In order to obtain more comprehensive and more objective indicators on the focused aspects of the empirical research field, the responses received in the survey will be complemented with statements from the interviews, which were carried out as focus groups in all the three regions of Montenegro.

The introductory question in the questionnaire was to assess the quality of preschool education in Montenegro on a scale of four options (very good, mainly good, mainly not good and bad). The results indicate the dominance of the second option, i.e. the surveyed respondents in all regions/preschool institutions believe that this segment of education is predominantly well organized. Thus, 67.1% of respondents from the central region selected the option describing the preschool education in Montenegro as mainly qualitative, and 30.6% of respondents think it is of a very good quality. We find that 94% of respondents in the southern region are of the opinion that preschool education is generally very good or mainly good, and this percentage is even higher in the third group of surveyed teachers-about 97%. Below we are going to filter the obtained information through the above mentioned research segments.

Active learning/child participation in education activities (interactions)

For the purpose of evaluation of the level and quality of the representation of a very important component of a reformed preschool system – active learning through play and the full participation of children in education activities, the questionnaire contained a question which was operationalized through several individual items. Respondents had to choose one of four options that was closest to their estimate of the level of representation the focused concept. Starting from the region, as the criterion variable, the respondents evaluated: To what extent are the stated objectives of the preschool education reform achieved?

Table 1 – Promoting active learning through participation
in the education activities (N=475)

Region	Fully achieved	Mainly achieved	Mainly not achieved	Not achieved at all	total	Fully achieved %	Mainly achieved %	Mainly not achieved %	Not achieved at all %	total %
Southern	39	84	0	0	123	31,7%	68,3%			100,0%
Central	114	107	1	1	223	51,1%	48,0%	,4%	,4%	100,0%
Northern	58	71	0	0	129	45,0%	55,0%			100,0%
Total	211	262	1	1	475	44,4%	55,2%	,2%	,2%	100,0%

As it can be seen from the frequency percentage table, our respondents from all the three regions evaluated that the promotion of active learning of children (through participation) is highly present in preschool institutions: southern region – 31.7% (fully achieved) and 68.3% (mainly achieved); central region – 51, 1% (fully achieved) and 48.0% (mainly achieved), northern region – 45, 0% (fully achieved) and 55.0% (mainly achieved). Actually, the respondents select predominantly the second option which may indicate a certain reserve and restraint when deciding on the scope and quality of implementation of this important concept in practice.

On a five-point scale, ranging from expect children to repeat (1) to encourage children to experiment, explore (5), respondents selected predominantly the values on the other end of the continuum (5), and we find the cumulative score/arithmetic mean (95 % of reliability) in the amount of: 4.0784 (south), 4.3412 (center) and 4.2857 (north), indicating significant positive changes in practice. According to our respondents' opinion, changes have resulted in more active involvement of children in education process as they are provided the opportunities to investigate, explore, and express their curiosity.

Moreover, on a continuum from expects obedience (children follow consistently teachers instructions–1) to encourages initiative, freedom of thought, autonomy (5), the respondents were assessing professional behaviour of preschool teachers in immediate educational process and while working with children. The respondents marked high values in all the research areas, so the arithmetic mean was the following: 4.0192 (south),

4.2701 (center), 4.2627 (north). Thus, these very high values indicate that the practice offers more space for autonomous action and decision making, and there is no more insisting on a "blind" and uncritical obedience and heteronomous consistency in executing the instructions.

One of the indicators of stimulating active learning/child participation in learning process is encouraging the children to solve the problems, so 55.0% of our respondents say that preschool teachers reinforce very often these skills in children and 41.8% of them say it happens often.

When answering the question: To what extent, in your opinion, teachers encourage children to explore the causes and consequences, 21.8% of respondents say – very often and 65.2% of them say often.

What's more, in the range from *imposes roles to children* to *respects children's interest in the roles*, respondents dominantly marked a second-mentioned option, or category 5 on the scale, which fully correlates with the previous answers about the respect for children's autonomy, their right to choose and have their own opinions, and even for their action in practice.

In the context of reviewing the quality and methods of encouraging active learning/ participation of children, teachers evaluated the extent to which, in their opinion, children in kindergarten are encouraged to apply their knowledge to new situations (N = 469): preschool teachers from the southern region, 95. 1% – very often and often; preschool teachers from the central region – 95% very often and often, and preschool teachers from the central region – 96% very often and often. This is also supported by the assessment of our respondents when deciding on the following option in the questionnaire: to what extent do the practices promote fostering/developing children's individuality and secure the right to choose, to take initiatives andto make decisions.

Our respondents were of the opinion that this objective is achieved, i.e. the respondents in a very high percentage assessed that preschool teachers allow children to work independently and support the freedom of choice (arithmetic mean: 1–5, 95% of reliability: Southern Region–4, 2170, Central–4, 4038; North 4, 3697).

One segment of the question was related to practices in the area of development of classification skills, seriation, comparing and questioning. The answers of 462 respondents were concentrated according to the selected options in the percentage scores:

To what extent, in your opinion, teachers encourage children to:
- classify objects – very often 39.4%, often 54.3%;
- compare objects – very often 41.0%, 53.0% often;

- put the things/objects in series – very often 44.3%, often 49.5%;
- ask questions – very often 65.5%, often 32.1%

According the responses they gave, our respondents evaluated that important changes were made in practice, and that children in preschool institutions have the opportunity to participate actively in educational activities, according to their abilities and needs, to follow their interests and synchronize them with others – peers or adults. From the interviews we learned that flexible spatial and temporal organization of life in kindergarten, interest centers, the variety of materials, open relationships with parents and the wider community significantly contribute to this. They find that children develop their skills better in this environment, they are more independent, more open, more active, participative, know how to share tasks and responsibilities, more open in communication with peers and adults:"... The role of the adult is to facilitate and not to control the learning process of the child" (*Gordon Wells: The Meaning Makers*).

A holistic approach to children's learning and individualization of work

Through a few specifically defined questions, we discussed a holistic approach as a countrapart to determinist and reductionist understanding of the educational context, which is a fundamental precondision for "the learning organization", (Slunjski, E, 2006: 105). Thus, 28.7% of our respondents believe that this concept (holistic approach), which is based on dynamic reciprocity of all participants in practice through natural interaction of children with physical and social environment, is fully achieved and 66, 5 % say it is mostly achieved. In order to deepen the question of the real presence of holistic-integrative approach in educational practice and everyday activities, we offered the following options to our respondents: Preschool teachers give priority to certain areas (e.g. cognitive domain or mathematical logic area) (1) to... take into account equal representation of all areas (5). High readings (5) are present in all three regions (arithmetic mean – 4.3921, confidence interval – 95%); i.e. the respondents assessed that in practice all aspects of child development as well as all activity areas are evenly promoted. By conducting the interviews we learned that teachers connect life-hands-on activities with various fields and areas, and through playing different games enable children to use different linguistic and communicative, cognitive and social-emotional skills.

Individualization, as a leading principle and a prerequisite for the creation of curricula and child-centered educational process, is one of the fundamental principles/assumptions of reformed concept of preschool education. In this regard, the evaluation of preschool teachers as key actors and stakeholders in the process about the presence and quality of this principle in pre-school education context in Montenegro shows that the focus was shifted from traditional to the contemporary paradigm in all major dimensions. Observing the results/responses we got from the focused group of respondents, we can conclude that thay have a very positive attitude towards the implementation of this concept in practice (the second option – *mainly achieved* is a dominant one).

When answering the question: To what extent, in your opinion, teachers encourage children to advocate effectively for their rights, the respondents (N = 464) predominantly choose the second option, i.e. often. However, there is a difference in responses between respondents from the three regions (Table 3). While the respondents from the central and the northern region gave compatible answers, the ones from the Southern region are more cautious and mainly choose the option often ($x^2 = 12,191$). Interviewed preschool teachers encourage children to question some of their decisions and views, to argue and advocate for those views in the community.

Tabela 2 – **To what extent teachers encourage children to express their opinion and individuality in behaviour and choices**
(N=460 x^2=25,098, df=4, p=.000 Crammer v=,165)

Region	very often	often	rarely	total	very often %	often %	rarely %	total %
Southern	29	68	23	120	24,2%	56,7%	19,2%	100,0%
Central	96	97	23	216	44,4%	44,9%	10,7%	100,0%
Nothern	28	79	17	124	22,6%	63,7%	13,7%	100,0%
Total	153	244	63	460	33,3%	53,0%	13,7%	100,0%

The differences between the choices made in different regions are also obvious when answering the question: To what extent, in your opinion, preschool teachers encourage children to express their opinion and individuality in behavior and choices.

According to the results shown in the table, we note that respondents from the central region, to a considerably greater extent believe that the education process encourages the children to express their own individuality in different ways. The interviewed preschool teachers emhasize that they use a range of situations to monitor and observe children in order to find out more about their interests, needs and to plan their learning environment more functionally.

The interviewed preschool teachers point out that the topic of diversity is an integral part of daily activities within the thematic contents and interest centers. They say they use a variety of opportunities to encourage children to learn about different habits, customs, and recognize the benefits and possibilities of collaborative learning in a variety of situations, using appropriate posters, photographs and books.

Open curriculum and planning

Curriculum as a composite of consistently complex principles and objectives of one scientific theory is understood as a set of complex and dynamic interactions that take place in a wider context and depend on them. Integral components of the curriculum which make the basis for further development and elaboration are theoretical orientation, pedagogical and psychological determinants of the educational process organization and the anticipation or projection of the children development. Working space of the kindergarten is designed as a vital living space. Learning is defined by objectives deduced from the real life and not by academic disciplines constructions (Pesic, 1989: 10). Learning is a process of communication (critical thinking and autonomous action).

In the context of comprehensive, systemic change in the education system of Montenegro, in 2004 the General Education Council adopted the Curriculum Bases[2] as the program orientations for curriculum development at the preschool institution level as well for development of specialized, targeted and shorter programs. It was adopted along with Curricula for Areas of Activity and it was revised in 2010/11 in line with submitted proposals and recommendations from practice.

---

2   This document was proposed by the Institute of Pedagogy and Andragogy, Faculty of Philosophy in Belgrade and at the request of the Ministry of Education and Science of the Republic of Montenegro as a result of many years of positive experience obtained by the implementation of the Step by Step program in pre-school institutions and represents a framework for development of detailed *Curricula for Areas of Activity*

This document contains the basic principles, objectives, didactic recommendations for the work of preschool teachers, methods of planning and evaluation. The **Curriculum Bases** identify three types of objectives for each area: self-discovery and self-mastery, developing relationships and building knowledge about others and discovering the world and developing knowledge about it. Then, three types of activities follow: practical life activities and leisure activities, specific and complex activities, as well as methodological guidelines, the role of preschool teacher, the importance of learning environment, and the role of the family, i.e. partnership with families and the wider community. Contents and activities are not defined, but the preschool teachers are given the opportunity and professional freedom to create curriculum that will respond to the specific context with unique structure of children, professionals and parents in the particular local and social environment, which inevitably puts a specific seal on all the components. In this survey, we paid special attention to identifying the quality of the current curriculum from the perspective of our preschool teachers/respondents.

We were interested in how much our official Curriculum is appropriate and useful, from the point of view of the surveyed preschool teachers. By selecting one option in the multiple choice question, the respondents answered as following:

- **Comprehensive**: on the scale of four answers, 41.0% of respondents usually opted for the option *mainly*, and the same number of respondents chose the option-*mainly not*;
- **Clear and user-friendly**: 44.5%, of our respondents answered with *very* and 48, 0% answered with *mainly;*
- **Adjusted to the age of children**: 41.3%, of our respondents answered with *very* and 56.1% answered with *mainly;*
- **Optimal (not too easy or too challenging):** 30,7% of our respondents answered with *very* and 61,6% answered with *mainly;* ($\square^2$=58,024 df=4, p=.000 Cramer's coefficient).

By analyzing the responses, we can conclude that our respondents see the current curriculum as relevant framework and guidance for developing practices that fit the context. Given the fact that our respondents say that the staring points in treir planning are topics, experiences or specific contexts, and that they do not sufficiently consult the curriculum which is a compulsory frame of reference for their work, we asked them what the situation in practice today is.

Table 3 – Preschool teachers use the current curriculum to plan the activities
N=459 □2=37,544 df=4, p=.000 Cramer's coefficient v=,202

Region	Certainly	mainly	mainly not	total	certainly %	mainly %	Mainly not %	total %
Southern	25	74	21	120	20,8%	61,7%	17,5%	100,0%
Central	112	84	21	217	51,6%	38,7%	9,7%	100,0%
Northern	39	73	10	122	32,0%	59,8%	8,2%	100,0%
Total	176	231	52	459	38,3%	50,3%	11,3%	100,0%

Although the responses were mostly affirmative, we note, however, that some preshool teachers generally do not use the curriculum (11.3%), and a significant number of respondents selected the second positive option (mainly YES), indicating their relatively responsible attitude towards the official frame of reference for educational work and practice (Table 5). In the opinion of our interviewees the reason for this is that the current curriculum is only a framework and does not offer them ready-made guidelines for work, content or structured activities, but only pave the way for development and further interpretation and requires deeper reflection and continuous changes in practice.

The interviewed preschool teachers have had generally positive comments about the reformed curriculum, whose implementation was one of the most important and most demanding changes in the modern context and during the postreformed period. However, they suggest that curriculum should be complemented with a set of similar handbooks, possibly for each area of the activities. They also believe that at university, during the initial preparation of future preschool, more should be done in terms of methodological training that will prepare them to work in line with contemporary didactic principles. They point out that in the initial education more time should be dedicated to practical work and students' activities in kindergartens.

Thematic planning, with the holistic approach in its basis, as well as the integrated, but not just "associative" linking of content with different

fields of educational work, enables establishing of substantial conceptual connections and improving of teaching practices and program areas objectives, which is in contrast to earlier segmented planning of certain areas, i.e. their contents (Pavlovski, 1992: 39). In this way, professionals/ teachers are able to achieve a high degree of autonomy in their work, but also have a bigger responsibility in selection of topics and activities, as well as in accomplishing and (self-) evaluation of objectives priscribed in the curriculum. The analyses of the current plans of our teachers show that teachers who have build creative and child adjusted working methods have more original topics, derived from the children's interests and experiences associated with a specific event and contextual circumstances.The themes could be selected deductively, as it is closer to our teacher because of the previous experience, and inductively, where the terms and concepts branch spirally, starting from simpler, more specific and more concrete units.

Preschool teacher develop the topics according to areas, different developmental domains, and interest centers.

Preschool teachers should include the activity areas, objectives and activities in thematic plans (in the form "spider's web" or square grid). The centers of interest are in the weekly plans as they are expected to specify operational objectives, stemming from the topic, within the specific centers. The objectives are taken from the curriculum, and made operational, whenever possible, according to the chosen topic. Most of them say the registers are not appropriate enough, especially the registry of work where they write a lot, copy the same things, and sometimes leave the things incomplete due to the lack of space for notes.

One of the significant changes in the approach is defining the objectives from a child perspective, instead of the previous paradigm where the focus was on a teacher (what the teacher expects, and what objectives have to be achieved). According to our respondents from all the three regions, preschool teachers have adopted such a change *constantly* in 14.5% of cases, and *often* in 30.9% of cases, i.e. the objectives defined from the perspective of teachers ares still dominant in their plans. Looking at the most common problems that teachers encounter when planning, we selected the following ones:

- problems in making curriculum objectives concrete within the focused topics;
- inadequately structured workbook;
- the number of children does not match the pedagogical norms;

- difficulties in adapting the objectives to children's evolving capacities;
- lack of resources, particularly relevant manuals for teachers;
- incompatible opinions of teachers, that is "implicit pedagogy 'and participants' expectations;
- topics are often fluid/ambiguous.

Cooperation with parents and community

Since the cooperation of the preschool institution with parents and local community represents one of the preconditions and the key dimensions of the open pre-school system, we tried to learn more about the quality and level to which this objective/ intention is accomplished.

We have elaborated the question about the quality and scope of collaboration through several special options (N = 458):

- *Parents and family members are invited to participate in the education process.*
- 33.0% of the respondents choose the option-*very often*, while 45,6% choose the option *often*.
- *Use a variety of written materials to communicate with family*
Very often – 55,0%; often – 38,4%
- *Organize workshops for parents*: Very often–15,9%; often– 32,9%; rarely–40,7%

When it comes to organizing and implementing the workshops for parents, we see that the dominant option is *rarely*, if we add up all the answers of our respondents from all the three regions.

The interviewed preshool teachers from all the three regions emphasized that they advocate for more active involvement of parents, but they experience a variety of barriers when initiating the communication.

Learning environment

Based on monitoring of the educational process in pre-school institutions in Montenegro, as well as on evaluation of the interviewed teachers on the quality and relevance of arranging the learning environment, we can conclude that this segment is nurtured and that teachers are trying to make an environment that will be stimulating for learning. Materials,

equipment and furniture are suitable for the age of the children, as assessed by 96.3% of our respondents.

Preschool teachers take care to display children's products in the working rooms and all around the kindergarten. With its exterior and interior kindergarten reflects the current local events, completed and current topics.

Interviewed kindergarten teachers have remarks on the proposed scope and content of teaching materials and expect further support and understanding of the management of kindergarten and relevant institutions.

Conclusion

The starting point of the reform movement was the idea that the key drivers and users of educational practices need to be involved in the process from the very beginning, and changes need to be reflected, understood and adopted by making permanent links among theoretical and scientific knowledge, research and practice. Based on the research results obtained, starting from the initially focused empirical fields, in general, we find that significant changes have occurred and are occuring in all segments of the pre-school practice. Our surveyed and interviewed teachers assess that the quality of preschool education in Montenegro is on a relatively high level, but it is necessary to affirm the following aspects of this education segment:

- first of all, it is necessary to systematically improve the position of this segment in the overall education and social context in Montenegrin milieu;
- educational process should be more flexible, i.e. it is necessary to enhance interaction and active participation of all children in educational context in order to improve the overall atmosphere in educational group/kindergarten;
- stimulate the research of practices, the openness of the kindergarten from "inside and outside", as well as the involvement of all stakeholders more intensivelly, methodically and functionally because the kindergarten is a "living system" (Fullan, 2000: 106);
- planning should be done in line with the curriculum and the life context; objectives should be defined from the child's point of view; topics should be more operational and more close to the context and child; increase program offerings for children;

- cooperation with family and community should be more diverse and comprehensive;
- respect educational standards in terms of the number of children in educational groups, "stretch" the temporal and spatial boundaries in kindergarten, increase the number of children in pre-school context (from today's 30%);
- improve accompanying documentation and registers;
- change the attitudes of immediate and specific participants in the preschool context about the necessity of a permanent growth of kindergarten into "learning organization."

References:

Fullan, M. (2000). *Sile promjene*. London: The Falmer Press.

Villegas R., E. i F. Reimers (2000). *Professional Development of Teachers as Lifelong Learning: Models, Practices and Factors that Influence it*. Washington: National Research Council.

Milić, S. (2002). *Individualizovani pristup u vaspitno-obrazovnom procesu*. Podgorica: Pedagoški centar Crne Gore.

Havelka, N. (2000). *Učenik i nastavnik u obrazovnom procesu*. Beograd: Zavod za udžbenike i nastavna sredstva.

Pavlović-Breneselović, D. (1993). *Položaj deteta u dečjem vrtiću i prvom razredu osnovne škole*. Beograd: Institut za pedagogiju i andragogiju Filozofskog fakulteta Univerziteta u Beogradu.

Pavlovski, T. (1992). *Tematsko planiranje u dečjem vrtiću*. Beograd: Institut za pedagogiju i andragogiju Filoyofskog fakulteta Univerziteta u Beogradu.

Pešić, M. (1989): Programiranje vaspitno-obrazovnog rada u dečjim vrtićima. *Predškolsko dete*. br. 2, 8–17.

Slunjski, E. (2006). *Stvaranje predškolskog kurikuluma*. Zagreb: Mali professor.

Nataša Simić, * *Gerhild Bachmann,* ** *Milan Stančić,* ***

Comparison of Teacher Education Reforms in Serbia and Austria[1]

The aim of this paper was to compare the changes in educational policies and educational practice regarding teacher education in Serbia and Austria. In the last years the most important changes in policy papers in Serbia were: request for all teachers to have a master's degree and a minimum of 30 ECTS in pedagogical-psychological-methodical courses and 6 ECTS of school practice, introduction of inclusive education, formalization of one year induction programs and introduction of obligatory professional development courses. In Austria the new teacher education, proposed by the National Council in 2013, includes a uniform educational training for all teachers and educators at universities and the University College of Teacher Education (PH) in Austria. For the first time both class and subject teachers will be required to have at least Bachelor degree or later on Master Degree gained at the university. The master studies are planned to deepen selected parts of Bachelor studies and to widen the adjacent age ranges of pupils. It was concluded that the main difference between teacher

---

*   University of Belgrade, Faculty of Philosophy, Belgrade, Serbia

**   University of Graz, Department of Educational Science, Graz, Austria

***   University of Belgrade, Faculty of Philosophy, Belgrade, Serbia

education in Austria and Serbia could be viewed through the interplay of uniformity and flexibility. Finally, relying on contemporary models of teacher education, recommendations that could contribute to further teacher education reforms in both countries were defined.

Key words: teacher education reforms, induction, professional development, Serbia, Austria.

Within the education sciences in recent decades, subject teachers are recognized as one of the most important initiators and implementers of the reforms of educational system, primarily because they are one of the most important factors of student achievements (Brofi, 2004; Hattie, 2009; Taylor & Larson, 1999). In order for the subject teachers to be successful agents of the changes it is necessary to reform their education and to define their professional roles and responsibilities in new ways (OECD, 2005; Villegas-Reimers, 2003). In the following chapter we will shortly present the findings about what teacher education should look like, or rather what practices have proven to be the most effective.

Teacher professional development – how it is and how it should be

Programs of initial teacher education typically consist of activities in two completely different contexts – the university and the school. Although the idea about separating theory and practice has been rejected in professional literature long time ago, it is, obviously, still maintained in practice. University courses teach theoretical principles using mostly explicitly stated academic discourse and that kind of knowledge is de-contextualized. Contrary to that, during the practice in schools they focus on everyday demands of the teachers' job, connecting their knowledge with certain situations and specific solutions (Connelly, Clandinin & He, 1997; Little, 2003, in Sutherland, Howard & Markauskaite, 2010).

Research has shown that induction programs have at least two positive effects – first, the novice teachers acquire a routine in managing a class and successfully engage students in completing tasks. Second – the rate of job abandonment is lower. Factors that especially favorably affect the remaining of teachers are: the accessibility of mentors that teach the same subject at the same school, the existence of time for planning and cooperation with other teachers, the inclusion in external networks of teachers and the participation in group activities (Smith & Ingersoll, 2004). On the other hand, the lack of time for meeting with the mentors, working in different schools, on different subjects and poorly prepared mentors, with a narrow view of their role have a negative effect.

Speaking of continuous professional development of teachers, traditional formats, such as short-term workshops and conferences have less of a chance to cause a change with teachers because they are directed at the mere dissemination of information and because they are based on models of 'knowledge transmission' which, paradoxically, they themselves criticize (Bullough, 2009).

Based on the mentioned findings, several recommendations can be made. Regarding the duration and organization of the initial education of teachers – chances for change are greater when the program lasts longer and includes more practice (experience with working in a class), when there are more possibilities for reflection, as well as possibilities for everyone to understand themselves in a safe environment, when testing new, challenging situations (Guskey, 2000, in Opfer & Pedder, 2011). It has been shown that reflecting after practice has a greater effect on the change in beliefs than reflecting before practice (Tillema, 2000, in Opfer & Pedder, 2011). Based on that, it is possible to conclude that it is useful to organize a program of initial teacher education in which the phases of school practice and reflecting on that practice would be interwoven.

In order for the induction programs to be a success, the role of the mentor should be to help the novices to identify their own beliefs about teaching, reconstruct what they know about learning and teaching, to solve tasks that are in the zone of proximal development and to develop their own style (through observing classes by mentors and other colleagues, dialogue, reflecting, etc.) (Blase, 2009). It is useful for novices to have more mentors so that they could have the opportunity to see many various styles of teaching and to have time to choose the one that suits to them the most. Also, the training of mentors must be approached thoroughly.

When it comes to continuous professional development programs, research has shown that they are especially successful if teachers from the same school participate in them, so they can participate together and then together implement in the school what they have learned. The use of information technologies, primarily online forums, can have additional positive effect (Sutherland, Howard & Markauskaite, 2010). Joyce states that the seminars must not represent just mere credits collecting, but should be based on discovery learning, exploring (inquiry-oriented approach) and should be result-oriented (Joyce et al., 2009).

Between theory, education policy and practice

The question is why reforms are often unsuccessful, since research already showed the effective practices and since many successful mod-

els of the professional development of teachers are described in the field of learning and teaching theory. One of the obstacles in "translation" of modern ideas and innovations to the level of policy papers, and more importantly, in their implementation in practice, is teachers' resistance. The meta-analysis of John Hattie's research proofs shows that 85% of teachers resist changes to the existing practice (Hattie, 2009). It is a common phenomenon when a change is being introduced top-down. Even when the requested behavior is seen as a mean to achieving some desired effects, authentic motivation is missing, which leads to a superficial, manifest and formal compliance to the request (Jerković et al., 2011). So it is common that changes in educational policies on the theoretical level and in practice are not "in line".

In this paper we will try to show the changes in the educational policies and educational practices in the context of teacher education in Serbia and Austria. Our goal is to determine the extent in which the changes in the practice of both countries "follow" the changes defined through policy papers. After that, we will try to determine, by comparing reforms in teacher education in these two countries, what Serbia could "learn" from Austria, as well as what Austria could "learn" from Serbia. Finally, relying on contemporary models, we will define recommendations that could contribute to further teacher education reforms in both countries.

State of the art and teacher education reforms in Serbia

Of special importance to this paper are reforms that began after 2008. In 2009 the Parliament adopted a new Law on the fundamentals of educational system. One of the most important changes in the field of teacher education concerned the request for all teachers to have a master's degree in education and a minimum of 30 ECTS in pedagogical-psychological-methodical[2] courses and 6 ECTS of school practice. This legal request was supposed to especially "shake up" those faculties which didn't consider themselves to be "teacher faculties" (such as the faculty of Medicine, Economy, Electrical Engineering, etc.), but whose graduates were employed in vocational high schools without taking a single class related to the field of education during the course of their university studies.

The next important innovation in the Law from 2009 concerned the inclusiveness of education. The Law introduced equality and accessibility

---

2   Terms subject didactics and methodic (and related adjectives) will be used interchangeably.

of education for all children in principle (Art. 3). The measures of support to children from marginalized and vulnerable social groups envisioned by the Law comprise affirmative action and introduction of services of a pedagogical assistant and a person accompanying the child (Art. 117), as well as the right to additional educational support at all levels of education in the form of Individual Education Plan (Art. 77).

The Law from 2003, and then the Rulebook from 2005, defined the induction status, the role and the way in which exams for a license are taken (Stankovic, 2011). Regulations required that an experienced teacher is assigned to a novice as a mentor who should help him/her in planning and realization of teaching, observe his/her lessons (at least 12), analyze his/her practice and progress and help him/her prepare for final examination for teacher license.

The greatest number of system changes occurred in the field of continuous professional development. The Rulebook from 2012 defined several forms of professional development (e.g. accredited programs of higher education institutions, professional conferences, summer and winter schools, study trips, etc.). The teacher is required to achieve at least 120 points in 5 years through different forms of professional development that can last from one day (8 credits), to three days (24 credits). In accordance with contemporary trends, the Law from 2003 foresaw that teachers could advance, acquire more knowledge (and thus a greater pay) by collecting a certain number of credits through different forms of professional development.

It is obvious that in the past several years, concerning educational policies, important changes were made in order to improve educational system and to bring Serbian teacher education closer to the practices of EU countries. Still, it is important to check which of the mentioned changes "took root" in practice, and which areas still have problems.

Class teachers in elementary schools (from 1st to 4th grade) acquire basic education on one of six faculties for class teacher education in Serbia.[3] Undergraduate studies at this faculty last 4 years (eight semesters) and are completed by passing the diploma exam, after which comes a one year of graduate (Master's) studies, which are completed by a written master's thesis. According to analysis conducted in 2009, it has been established that courses as academic disciplines (e.g. Serbian language, Math, etc.) make up 35% to 40% of the total teaching program, subject didactics – 35 to 40%, pedagogical courses – 10 to 15%, teaching practice 10 to

---

3   In 1993 Schools of higher education / Colleges of Teacher Education were canceled and the education of class teachers began taking place at the university level, on faculties.

12%. Pedagogical courses are usually present at the beginning of studies, courses related to academic discipline and subject didactics come later, and teaching practice is present in a smaller amount at the beginning of studies and is increased in the following years (Macura-Milovanovic, Gera & Kovacevic, 2009). The situation today is similar – Psychology, as well as Pedagogy and Didactics are studied during the first two years, while various subject didactics dominate in the final years. School (i.e. pedagogical, didactic or methodical) practice is conducted from first year, but the number of classes increases from year to year. Reviewing study plans and programs from six state faculties for education of class teachers in Serbia, it's been determined that teaching courses as academic disciplines take up 20 to 55%[4] of the total curriculum (300 ECTS), that subject didactics take up 20 to 36%, pedagogical and psychological courses take from 10 to 15%, while there is still very little school practice – 5 to 7%.[5]

Subject teacher education is the same for elementary school teachers (5th – 8th grade, i.e. age 11 to 15) and secondary school teachers, except in the case of subject teachers for vocational schools. Teachers of general subjects, who are educated at the faculties that are traditionally called "teacher faculties", during their initial education acquire teaching competence as part of school practice and courses in the field of psychology, pedagogy and subject didactics. Most of the faculties of natural sciences (e.g. chemistry, physics and geography) have separate study programs for teachers, while faculties of social sciences usually have special teacher education modules within study programs or at least elective courses from this field.[6] Still, the differences between the faculties themselves are great – a course designed for acquiring knowledge in psychology relevant for the school context carries 2 ECTS to 6 ECTS, and at some faculties the students can choose more courses in the field of psychology and collect even 22 ECTS (for instance at the Faculty of Sport in Belgrade). The situation is similar with pedagogy. At some universities there is a school practice as a separate course, that carries 4 ECTS or 6 ECTS, and at some it is conducted as part of other courses. Since, according to the research from

---

4   The great span comes from a different presence of teaching subjects as academic disciplines in the category of elective courses. Faculties with a large percentage of teaching subjects as academic disciplines actually have numerous elective courses where students can deepen their knowledge in, for instance, math, foreign languages or Serbian language and literature.

5   It should be kept in mind that practice is integrated in some courses, and that the number of ECTS seen on the plan and program is probably smaller than the number of hours spent in practice.

6   From internal report of Tempus MASTS project: State of the art of subject teacher education on University of Belgrade (June, 2011). Available at: http://www.masts.tk

2006, it's been determined that pedagogic-methodical courses, if they are covered by the curriculum, take up no more than 6 to 8% (Kovács-Cerovic, 2006), we could say that in the past seven years the situation has been changed for the better. An analysis of plans and programs of undergraduate and master's studies at "teaching" faculties at the University of Belgrade has shown that 12 to 48% of all ECTS (300) "belong" to courses that prepare students for working as a teacher. Other universities show similar tendencies.

Although the situation at so called "subject teacher education" faculties has improved significantly, changes are sporadic at faculties that traditionally "do not educate teachers", even though their graduates are being employed in schools. Due to adopting the Law that foresaw new demands for student teachers, in 2010 began the realization of the Tempus MASTS project, which as its objective had the introduction of a master program for subject teachers at five state universities, so as to provide for students of so-called "non-teaching" faculties to acquire the necessary teaching competencies during their initial education. The first generation of master students completed their studies at the universities in Novi Sad and Novi Pazar, while at the University in Belgrade the first generation of students was enrolled this school year. Universities in Nis and Kragujevac are still waiting for the decision of accreditation commission.

With the introduction of inclusion, the need arose for the introduction of new courses during the initial education of subject teachers, as well as finding different mechanisms for educating teachers that already work in schools for work with children who need additional support. Reviewing study plans for faculties of class teacher education (or pedagogy), it's clear that each has at least one course that relates to working with children with a need for additional support. They have different names (e.g. Didactics of working with students with special needs) and a different number of ECTS – from 3 to 5. At some faculties there are courses that deal with intercultural education and working with gifted children. When it comes to faculties that educate subject teachers, there are no particular courses that deal with inclusion, but working with children with a need for additional support is at best taught as part of a pedagogy-psychology course. All this indicates that student teachers (not to mention student teachers who will work in vocational schools) during the initial education do not acquire necessary competencies for working in an inclusive school. Later on they are offered specialization during induction and seminars for professional development, as well as collaboration with a pedagogical assistant, but those solutions are not effective enough. Even though the employment of pedagogy assistants began from the school year 2010/11, their number is still very small.

For now the situation is such that, during the induction period, which lasts for one year, teachers are more focused on preparation for the teacher license exam than on acquiring competencies necessary for working in diverse classrooms (Rajovic & Radulovic, 2010). In many cases novices do not even know who their mentor is, and when they have one – he/she often is not from the same profession (for instance a math teacher is a mentor to a novice who teaches computer science), or the same school, or, simply, is willing to perform his/her duty as a mentor only formally.

In spite of the respectively high number of available professional development programs for teachers in diverse fields, studies have shown that educational needs of teachers and the contents offered at seminars are often in discord (Alibabic & Segrt, 2010). In addition, the programs offered are insufficiently efficient, i.e. they are based on one-way transmission model that is proved to produce poor results in practice (Pesikan et al., 2010). Apart from that, the procedure for approving programs is questionable (the issue of quality control), programs are not monitored or evaluated enough and there are difficulties with providing finances (Stankovic, 2011). Although at the level of policy papers the possibilities for teacher advancement exists, it does not happen in practice.

State of the art and teacher education reforms in Austria

In Austria immense reforms in teacher education are taking place. According to the changes in Law from 2013, first new curricula of teacher education should be developed until October 2014 and "launched" in the school year 2015/16. In the following the current and the new system will be presented.

The Austrian teacher training for elementary school teachers (Volksschule) takes place at the University College of Teacher Education (Paedagogische Hochschule, PH) and lasts for six semesters (180 ECTS). In Austria there is no unique model of elementary teacher education but here will be presented a model of the curriculum at the PH in Graz, which can be considered as a typical example how teacher training works in general.

After passing an entrance exam and a standardized assessment students start the entry phase (Studieneingangsphase). There they will be introduced to different conceptions of teaching and basic knowledge of lecture planning and school organization. A modular practice-oriented curriculum follows. Study areas are Academic discipline and Didactics (e.g. German, English, Music Education: 84 ECTS), Pedagogy and Hu-

man Sciences (Inclusive Education, Educational Psychology, Educational Sociology, etc.: 39 ECTS), School practice (36 ECTS), Additional, elective courses (e.g. Personality development, School law, etc.: 12 ECTS), and Bachelor Thesis (9 ECTS). This means that different courses as academic disciplines are closely connected to subject didactics and together make up 46.7% of the total teaching program. Pedagogical courses embrace 6.7%, whereas teaching practice make up 20% of the total bachelor program. The elementary teachers get the academic degree of a Bachelor of Education and they are allowed to teach pupils from 6 to 10 years.

Students, who are interested in working with older pupils (age 10 to 14), have to choose the Curriculum of Secondary Schools I (Hauptschule / Neue Mittelschule), also at the PH. They master two subjects (one being German, Mathematics or English). Courses are: Study Entry (6 ECTS), Subject A (30 ECTS), Subject B (30 ECTS), Pedagogy and Human Sciences (e.g. Personal development, Introduction to giftedness, Heterogeneity, Evaluation of teaching processes, Educational standards: 48 ECTS), School Practice (36 ECTS), additional, elective courses (12 ECTS), Introduction to scientific writing (6 ECTS) and Bachelor Thesis (12 ECTS). This means that courses which are related to academic disciplines (subjects A and B) make in total 33.3 % of the studies. Pedagogy and human science embrace 26.7 %, School Practice – 20% and elective courses – 6.7 %. At the moment teachers of secondary schools I also get the academic degree of a Bachelor of Education.

Currently the program of teacher training for Secondary schools I and II (age group 10–18) takes place at the Universities, lasts 10 semesters and has 2 phases with a working load of 300 ECTS. At the beginning, studies are mainly devoted to academic studies in two disciplines. Besides that, students are expected to acquire basic knowledge about the requirements, issues and insights of the present pedagogical, didactic and human science theories in order to professionally solve problems in schools. Students should be able to discuss pedagogical discourses and they should experience and check the personal decision to become a teacher. They reflect on the first impressions of the demands of the teaching profession and the role of a teacher. Later on students will get to know school realistic examples to develop the ability of teaching and thinking about school issues. They should acquire empirical knowledge guided by theories and research.

The curriculum at the University of Graz consists of a study entry phase (Studieneingangs– und Orientierungsphase, in general between 6 and 20 ECTS) and two academic subjects with corresponding didactics (119 ECTS + 119 ECTS). Pedagogy and human sciences are closely con-

nected to school practice and these courses are attended at the same time (20 ECTS in total). The study finishes with writing a master theses and an exam (30 ECTS). After graduation, a one-year induction program for the two chosen subjects in school completes the teacher education program. During this one-year-induction program graduates get supervision by a mentor. It covers eleven hours of actual independent working time for on-going teachers in classes and fourteen full hours of contact time with the mentor, who cares directly by observing and supervising teachers. In the induction program a debriefing takes place before and after teaching.

However, overarching reforms are taking place in Austria. The goal is to have well-trained teachers in all educational institutions in Austria. The new Teacher Education, proposed by the National Council in 2013, includes a uniform educational training for all teachers and educators at Universities and the University Colleges of Teacher Education (PH) in Austria. In this way the cooperation between the University and the PH will be deepened. This is supposed to provide greater sustainability, contribute to greater attractiveness of teaching profession, support mobility and internalization and equate the status of teachers from different academic institutions.[7]

In this respect teachers with a Bachelor degree (240 ECTS) obtained at the University will primarily teach in the level-specific specialization for elementary schools. When teachers pass another 90 ECTS they will get a Master's degree and they will be allowed to teach pupils older than 14 years in the Secondary schools II[8]. For the practice after finishing studies students will get another 30 ECTS, so that the total amount to become a full teacher will be 360 ECTS. The master studies serve to deepen selected parts of Bachelor studies and to widen the adjacent age ranges of pupils. It is necessary to make a master thesis in connection with a specialization in an educational or didactic subject.

Central concern of future development in the education debate in Austria are redesign and expansion of teacher education, implementation of the new middle schools, implementation of educational standards, central maturation, dealing with heterogeneity and inclusion (see Tischler, Wakonigg 2013: 76). Nowadays the "negotiation" of orders, rules and rituals with the participation of students is required. Kind of communicative skills, conflict management, project planning and organizational and administrative activities have gained in importance (see Mayr & Posch 2012: 1).

---

7   See BMUKK 2013 – http://www.bmukk.gv.at/ministerium/vp/2013/20130403a.xml [2013-11-11].

8   A teaching transition into the age range of pupils will be possible.

Speaking of heterogeneity, three issues are particularly in the focus of educational experts – intercultural education, inclusive education and education of gifted children. Teachers still relate "intercultural education" to education of immigrant children and believe that it should be "reserved" only for German language classes. However, in contemporary discussions it can be heard that intercultural education should be integrated in the curricula of all teacher faculties and related faculties (e.g. social work, pedagogy, etc.) (see Tischler, Wakounigg 2013: 80f.). Students who will become teachers should have an inclusive attitude and profound scientific knowledge of diversity. When it comes to giftedness, it is worth mentioning that in August 2009 the decree "General Ordinance on the Promotion of Giftedness and Talent" was issued to all Austrian schools.

Concerning continuous professional development (Weiterbildung) in Austria, University Colleges of Teacher Education (PH) offer professional development programs for teachers of all school types. Teachers in elementary and secondary schools I are required to attend 15 hours in further education every year. They freely choose the courses according to their interests (e.g. burn out, children anxiety: prevention and intervention, team building, mediation, visually impaired and blind education, etc.). Teachers may also attend paid university courses with internationally accepted master degrees from a workload of at least 120 ECTS e.g. "the Private University Master's degree Course with Health Promotion and Health Education", "Mentoring: Supporting the Professional Career" or "Managing for Innovation in Education"[9] The rate of attendance is higher compared to other European countries – according to TALIS (BIFIE 2008: 51) 97 % of all teachers attended some of the programs for the professional development.

Comparison of teacher education reforms – Conclusions

After this overview of teacher education reforms in Serbia and Austria, we would like to highlight some similarities and point to some differences in these two countries. First of all, Serbia has a longer tradition of University level education for all teachers. Both class teachers and subject teachers were required to study four years, while with the introduction of Bologna system and changes in Law, they are both obliged to have Masters title (five years of study: 300 ECTS). Accordingly, the social status of both

---

9   See www.phst.at [2013-10-31].

class and subject teachers in different schools was similar, what is not the case in Austria, where discrepancies in salaries and status between teachers who graduated at PH or University are significant. Still, in November 2013 Austrian Parliament decided to equalize teacher salaries from 2019.

Although the formal requirements are the same, the study programs for class teachers and subject teachers in Serbia are completely different. Despite some positive changes in programs for subject teachers in Serbia, it is still the case that subject teachers are primarily experts for the subject, whereas the class teachers are merely experts for didactics, having little knowledge of specific subjects. In Austria it is the case that teachers are specialized for two school subjects, whereas in Serbia they are experts only for one science (and one general subject), with rare exceptions (for example, mathematics and computer science).

If we look back at the examples of good practices in teacher education, we could conclude that teacher education in Serbia is far from effective teacher education models. Even at the faculties that offer relevant courses, experience gained through learning psychology and didactics is not being connected to school practice experience in a systematic and coherent way, which prevents student teachers from challenging their implicit theories in practice and building up deeper understanding of teaching and learning processes. On the other hand, Entry and Orientation Phase provide Austrian students with the opportunities, besides learning for exams, to reflect their implicit theories. However, according the contemporary literature, students would benefit more if they have opportunity to reflect their beliefs after some practice. Therefore, it will be useful for Austrian students (and especially Serbian students) to have initial teacher education organized in the way in which the phases of school practice and reflecting on that practice would be interwoven.

The inclusive education is not a new topic in Austria, as it is in Serbia. First inclusive class was established in Oberwart 1984, while the Law from 1996 introduced equality and accessibility of education for all children. Nowadays the most popular model of inclusive education in Austria is "inclusive class" (ger. Integrationsklasse), which consists of 20 pupils, with about 4 of them being pupils with the need for additional support. In these classes two teachers are engaged – one regular teacher and one teacher specialist in special education. In Serbia minority of schools employ pedagogical assistant and there is still a lot of resistance toward inclusive education (Macura-Milovanović and Vujisić-Živković 2011; Rajović and Jovanović 2010).

If we compare induction programs in two countries, we can conclude that they are much better developed in Austria than in Serbia. Although Austrian mentors at schools have a lot of autonomy, the quality of induction program is provided through the careful selection and preparation of mentors. They are not primarily motivated to work as mentors by financial incentives, but because of opportunities to develop personally and professionally. With this in mind, Serbia should put more effort into promoting mentorship among experienced teachers as a form of their professional development There is well developed network of schools for practice, whereas in Serbia there are only few cases of formally defined cooperation between universities axnd schools. Yet, efforts have been recently put into ensuring stronger link between faculties that educate future teachers and schools. The practice schools have been introduced by the Law on the Foundation of Education System (newest changes in 2013) and pilot project for preparation of schools and teachers for this task has already started, while implementation should start from school year 2014/2015 (Popović, 2013).

However, both countries are struggling with the professional development programs. They are focused on individual needs and interests of teachers, while more systemic approaches (e.g. school-based programs, organization development) and tendencies to improve social capital are lacking (Buchberger & Seel, 1999). Even that potential to improve human capital through continuous professional development in Serbia is not effectively used – studies have shown that teachers' educational needs are not met at these seminars, mostly because they are based on a one-way transmission model (Pešikan, Antić, and Marinković 2010).

Overall speaking, main difference between teacher education in Austria and Serbia could be viewed through the interplay of uniformity and flexibility. Austria shows strives to establish uniform educational training for all teachers, while in Serbia there are significant differences between faculties (even of the same university) without visible attempts to harmonize education they provide for future teachers. Austria also provides more flexible solutions for teachers in terms of their employability and job change. Teacher education in Serbia could also provide opportunities for two-subject teacher studies (as it is in the countries in the region, i.e. Croatia and Slovenia) and opportunities to have additional education for work with other age groups (i.e. from high school to elementary, or vice versa, or even to adult education).

References:

Alibabić, Š. & Šegrt, B. (2010). Ponuda i potražnja u (pod)sistemu usavršavanja nastavnika [Supply and demand in (sub)system of teacher professional development]. *Pedagogija,* 65 (2), pp. 280–294.

BIFIE (ed.) (2008). *TALIS 2008: Schule als Lernumfeld und Arbeitsplatz* [School as a Learning Environment and Workplace]. Available at: https://www.bifie.at/buch/1053/3 [retrieved 2013–11–11].

Blase, J. (2009). The Role of Mentors of Preservice and Inservice Teachers, in *International Handbook of Research on Teachers and Teaching.* Springer International Handbooks of Education, Volume 21, pp. 171–181.

Brofi, Dž. (2004). *Nastava* [Teaching] Beograd: Pedagoško društvo Srbije.

Buchberger, F., & Seel, H. (1999). Teacher Education in Austria: Description, Analysis, and Perspectives. In T. Sander, F. Buchberger, A. Greaves, D. Kallos (Eds.), *Teacher Education in Europe: Evaluation and Perspectives.* Osnabrück 11–42.

Bullough, R. V., Jr. (2009). Seeking eudaimonia: The emotions in learning to teach and to mentor. In P. Schutz & M. Zembylas (Eds.), *Teacher emotion research: The impact on teachers' lives* (pp. 33–53). New York: Springer.

Connelly, F. M, Clandinin, D. J., & He, M. F. (1997). Teachers' personal practical knowledge on the professional knowledge landscape. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 13(7), pp. 665–674.

Hattie, J. (2009). *Visible learning.* London and New York: Routledge, Taylor & Francis.

Jerković, I., Gavrilov-Jerković, V., Mihić, I., Mihić, V., Petrović, J., & Zotović, M. (2011). *Dometi reforme obrazovanja u Srbiji.* [Scope of educational reforms in Serbia]. Paper presented at the XVII conference Trendovi razvoja: "Evropa 2020: Društvo zasnovano na znanju", Kopaonik 07.–10.03.

Joyce, B., Weil, M., & Calhoun, E. (2009). *Models of teaching* (8th ed.). Boston: Pearson Education, Inc.

Kovács-Cerovic, T. (2006). National Report: Serbia In P.Zgaga (Ed.), *The prospects of teacher education in South East Europe.* South East European Educational Cooperation Network, Center for Educational Policy Studies, University of Ljubljana, Slovenia.

Macura-Milovanović, S., & Vujisić-Živković, N. (2011). Stavovi budućih učitelja prema inkluziji – implikacije za inicijalno profesionalno obrazovanje [Attitudes of pre-service teachers toward inclusion – Implications for initial professional education]. *Pedagogija,* 66 (4), pp. 633–647.

Mayr, J., & Posch, P. (2012). Lehrerbildung in Österreich: Analysen und Perspektiven. [Teacher Education in Austria: Analysis and Perspectives]. In: *Schulpädagogik heute.* [School Pedagogy Today], 5: 1–15. In: http://www.upl.or.at/wp-content/uploads/2013/03/Mayr_Posch_2012.pdf [retrieved 2013–11–11].

OECD (2005). *Nastavnici su bitni* [Teachers matter]. Beograd: Ministarstvo prosvete Srbije.

Opfer, V. D., & Pedder, D. (2011). Conceptualizing Teacher Professional Learning. *Review of Educational Research, 81(3),* pp. 376–407.

Pešikan, A., S. Antić, & Marinković, S. (2010). Koncepcija stručnog usavršavanja nastavnika u Srbiji – koliko smo daleko od efikasnog modela [Conceptualization of teachers' professional development in Serbia – how far we are from the effective model]. *Nastava i vaspitanje,* 59 (3), pp. 471–482.

Popović, M. (2013). *Teacher Education and Training in the Western Balkans. Report on: Serbia.* Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union.

Pravilnik o stalnom stručnom usavršavanju i sticanju znanja nastavnika, vaspitača i stručnih saradnika [Rulebook on continuous professional development and acquiring the title of subject teacher, preschool teacher or school psychologist/pedagogue] (2012). Službeni glasnik Republike Srbije 13/2012 i 31/2012.

Rajović, V., & Jovanović, O. (2010). Profesionalno i privatno iskustvo sa osobama sa posebnim potrebama i stavovi nastavnika redovnih škola prema inkluziji [Professional and private experience with special needs persons and regular school teachers' attitudes toward inclusion]. *Psihološka istraživanja,* XIII (1), pp. 52–67.

Rajović, V., & Radulović, L. (2010). *Serbian beginning teachers' views on induction as their professional development stage.* Paper presented at 35th annual conference of the Association for teacher education in Europe, Budapest, August 26–30.

Smith, T., & Ingersoll, R. (2004). What are the effects of induction and mentoring on beginning teacher turnover? *American Educational Research Journal*, 41(3), pp. 681–714.

Stanković, D. (2011). Obrazovne promene u Srbiji (2000–2010), In M. Vujačić, J. Pavlović, D. Stanković, V, Džinović, I. Đerić (Eds.), *Predstave o obrazovnim promenama u Srbiji* [Perceptions of educational changes in Serbia] Beograd: Institut za pedagoška istraživanja.

Sutherland, L., Howard, S., & Markauskaite, L. (2010). Professional identity creation: examining the development of beginning preservice teachers' understanding of their work as teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 26(3), pp. 455–465.

Taylor, H. E., & Larson, S. (1999). Social and emotional learning in middle school. *The Clearing House*, 72, pp. 331–336

Tischler, C., & Wakounig, W. (2013). Lehrerbildung in Österreich zwischen Tradition und Innovation [Teacher Training in Austria between Tradition and Innovation]. In: V. Domovioc, S. Gehrmann, J. Helmchen, M. Krüger-Potratz, A. Petrović (Eds.), Europäische Lehrerbildung. Annäherung an ein neues Leitbild. Berichte aus West– und Südosteuropa. [European Teacher Education. Approach to a New Model. Reports from Western and Eastern Europe]. Münster: Waxmann.

Villegas-Reimers, E. (2003). *Teacher professional development: An international review of the literature.* UNESCO: International Institute for Educational Planning.

Zakon o osnovama sistema obrazovanja i vaspitanja Republike Srbije 2009 [Law on the Fundamentals of the Education System], Službeni glasnik RS, br. 72/2009.

Teréz Kleisz

Quality in Focus – Why Professionalism Isn't Enough of a Guarantee? Contemporary Issues Affecting the Learning Professions

The meaning of educational quality is interpreted differently by key stakeholders, for deeper analysis to understand their views the effects of real and symbolic power have to be explored in the field of education. Who prescribes the requirements that need to be fulfilled? The power of the quality discourse is seen in the policies resulting from that discourse and how it translates into establishing standards that govern all the ingredients of the education system, setting up regulations, monitoring mechanisms and indicators, requesting structures and consolidated cyclical procedures that are supposed to be capable of ensuring consistently the desirable level of achievement in the teaching-learning process. In the composition of the policy mix managerialism is getting the upper hand over the professional bodies determining the criteria and expectations. The article investigates the sociological conceptual frameworks used for understanding professions whose core asset was always sustaining quality service based on their knowledge and its continuous improvement. The article wants to high-

*   University of Pécs, Faculty of Adult Education and Human Resource Development, Pécs, Hungary

light recent trends focussing on building professionalism in the era of quality management generally and specifically in the field of adult learning professions.

Key words: quality standards, profession, intellectuals, discourse, adult education.

Quality components in Education

The nature of all the forms of education pose a complex universe, a very intricate system, where all components count – but certain components are prioritized through the lenses of powerful actors' defining criteria. Who sets the quality criteria in the field of education? A relatively fresh piece of news reached me regarding the organizing theme of this publication: Quality in Education.

Education International, a network of education organizations on the eve of World Teacher's Day (Oct 5), launched the campaign *Unite for Quality Education* at two simultaneous events at UNESCO in Paris and UNICEF in New York. They define quality education focusing on three pillars: teachers, tools, and environments. Teachers are emphasized as the most important educational resource, who must have access to quality curricula, teaching and learning materials, and adequate technology. The last pillar, environments, refers to supportive, safe and secure facilities for teachers and students to work effectively.

Others wouldn't leave the learners out from these pillars, as the key factor is how the learning outcomes of the learners are enhanced from the initial moments by the whole educational process, whether there are real changes in the learners personality – besides the benefits for the wider community. Evaluations of learning outcomes, for example, PISA and other surveys' data and their findings (not very satisfactory results for a lot of countries) direct us to think about the decisive factors of quality in education that are hampering good achievements. The policy context is not mentioned.

Who prescribes the requirements that are needed to be fulfilled? It is a common-place phrase, that quality is doing the right things right, yes, but who defines what that right is? Which standards of 'rights' become legitimized? The business sector claims the satisfaction of their customers is the clue, so meeting and exceeding the learners' expectation seems to be one relevant approach. That puts the pupils and their parents, and adult learners into central focus, achieving their satisfaction and the worth of their learning outcomes.

But the goals and objectives of education systems express broader social causes embedded in constitutions, government policies and market-

driven operations. Professions and professional organizations usually do have a voice of their own based on their expertise and want to influence educational policies. Lately employer groups appear to be playing an increasingly powerful role. In the composition of the policy mix managerialism is getting the upper hand over the professional bodies determining the criteria and expectations. Different conceptual frameworks have been formulated to envision quality in education offering a wide variety of perspectives.

Several models of quality in education are offered in the literature, such as like the goals and specifications model; the resources input model; the process model; the satisfaction model; the legitimacy model; the absence of problems model; and the organizational learning model. (Yin & Wai, 1997). The majority of the models employed recently borrow heavily from the managerial literature. Last year UNESCO (2012) published a paper offering three models: the learner-centred approach; the inputs-process-outputs approach; the Multidimensional Social interaction approach. One of the last is illustrated by Nikel and Lowe's concept (Nikel & Lowe, 2010), that proposes seven conceptual dimensions – effectiveness, efficiency, equity, responsiveness, relevance, reflexivity, and sustainability contextually balanced and woven together.

Emergence of a new discourse, a new cultural order aiming for dominance: The Quality-discourse

New terms in connection with quality keep surfacing in policy discussions shaping the practice of educational institutions dramatically: quality standards, quality control, quality assurance, quality culture, quality development, quality management, quality system, quality framework – just to name a few that are frequently used.

The growing language shows the power of the discourse and the policies resulting from that discourse and how it translates into establishing standards that govern all the ingredients of the education system, setting up regulations, monitoring mechanisms and indicators, requesting structures and consolidated cyclical procedures that are supposed to be capable of ensuring consistently the desirable level of achievement in the teaching-learning process. Internal frameworks, conducting ex-ante or ex-post programme assessments, external accreditation of study programmes and educational institutions by the mushrooming Quality Agencies (institutional, national, international) have become a very common phenomena over the last decades (EQF, ENQA INQAAHE, CEE, EQAVET, ELLI).

Some couldn't see it other than an increasing form of social control, an effective means of managerialism over the relative autonomy of the teaching professions, others find it a valuable policy tool enhancing improvement in the field. Naturally only results could be convincing.

Why this obsession with Quality improvement? Does it mean that there is a lack of reliable quality found in social settings ? For the critical minded the answer would be a firm yes. In the quality discourse another term keeps appearing, the notion of *excellence*; striving towards 'excellence' is presented as an overall goal of quality development and linked to the practice of a constant self-improvement in the given area. Educational systems support varied forms of learning and establish much stronger links with workplaces and community centres providing resources for individuals and groups to use them when they have particular learning needs. Learning system have become more diverse and more flexible implying new roles for educators, among them the evaluator – assessor.

Which actors have the power to set the frames of references and impose them?

Whose agenda is getting priority? What position can the professional bodies take representing the collective interests of the profession?

Reference points – Intellectuals. The searching for and the identification of reference point**s** is a key phenomenon of the postmodern reality that captures the social world saying goodbye to the fixed truths, firm and binding rules, guaranteed meanings, taken-for-granted assumptions. There is a social space with plural perspectives offering seemingly authoritative value-frames that are competing for followers, at best triggering them to jump on the band-wagon of ongoing questioning and reflection. Current modes of theorizing question the viability of long established cultural norms and goals and develop a sensitivity to the ambiguities and pluralism of views.

According to Zygmunt Bauman's thesis regarding intellectuals as "collective owners of knowledge" lost their authoritative role in setting the canons he labels as legislator-role. They no longer define the main norms of the modern world embodying and practising the unity of truth, moral values and aesthetic judgement. The modern era starting with the Enlightenment assigned to the knowledge/power –syndrome crucial relevance to shape the social order, but that powerful position has diminished in late modernity (Bauman, 1987). Other influential thinkers on this issue, for example, Bourdieu has maintained emphatically his view that intellectuals

haven't lost their specific claim to defend the universal values as reference points and their role is exactly instilling them into public debates serving the public good in the world as "functionaries of humanity" (Bourdieu, 1989). Intellectuals still have a say in the production of social discourses, whether their words are followed or not believed. Burawoy, the present president of the International Sociological Association argues that his profession is taking a public turn currently. He distinguishes four different ways of pursuing sociology: professional sociology, policy sociology, critical sociology and public sociology, and their relevance and weight shift over time. What he terms 'public sociology' is currently engaging with local communities and transnational civil society and social movements in their struggle to defend labour and social rights, human rights against 'rampant marketization' and state regulations supporting this wave of commodifying labour, money and nature. He advocates for public sociology to act like a 'guiding spirit and directing force'. He ends with the perspective of struggles in the terrain. "It is unclear whether these movements can reverse third wave marketization and whether the result will be to expand or narrow the confines of human freedom. It is possible that sociology itself will succumb to commodification—the commodification of the production of knowledge in the university and elsewhere, the commodification of the distribution of knowledge by the mass media, and the commodification of the consumption of knowledge as student fees continue their upward trajectory. Conversely, there may be a place for public sociology to participate in the knitting together of organizations, movements, and publics across the globe, helping to fortify a civil society beyond the control of market and state" (Burawoy, 2013).

Reference points: Professions. Exercising a profession means a stable capacity for performing a quality service, never sliding below a certain standard, thus remaining capable of generating social trust and rewards. At least, that is the ideology of professions that claim that their self-regulatory practices have always ensured producing and improving quality services, that is the core concern of professionalism.

Professions have been building themselves to portray the message to society that their members are dedicated experts pursuing full time careers based on their intellectualized special knowledge and skills. Without question their asset lies in the continuous development of the employed distinctive knowledge package (consisting of know-why, know-what, know-how type of knowledge, thus combining the *telos* and the *techne* – components) put into practice following longer periods of formal training and preparation for the job. Creating systemic and tested knowledge-base from the praxis and control over its knowledge-production needs mutual

efforts, needs building up a professional community, needs an organized profession. A lot of occupations have tried to professionalize themselves in the modern era. Barber thought professionalization is a gradual process, during which certain common traits are evolving (Barber, 1963).

Professionalizing is seen as a collective project that aims to attain prestige and public trust while carving out a special field of work into institutionalized forms within the division of labour and it tries adhering to it seeking jurisdiction to establish an exclusionary shelter. It involves consensual agreements or struggles and rivalries with other professional groups over the boundaries. Abbott maintains that the evolving system of professions is the result of disputes and competition between inter-professional groups over jurisdictional boundaries (Abbott, 1988).

Boundary setting makes possible commonalities and differences across contexts and theoretical positions come to light, a knowledge of the field and the disciplines rationalized and disseminated, professional identity formations facilitated to arrive at shared sense of 'us and them', that can be recognised by the outer world.

If the expertise of the holders of the specialized knowledge is respected, their self-legitimized authority is accepted within a special professional territory that ultimately would mean a degree of autonomy for the professions. Creating symbolic power (in Bourdieu-terms) is a collective achievement aimed at (later to be converted to other rewards). But the primary goal is not to serve the particular and privileged interests of the practitioner groups but to extend beyond self-interest, to serve the public good. Governed by ethical standards is a very strong characteristic of professions and it goes back to the aspect of "vocation" in its original meaning representing a " calling" (from God) that guides the practitioner throughout life. This later transforms into a secular calling shaping professional identity and placing the interests of the clients over their own. Practicing according to the code of altruistic ethics, taking an oath with a binding nature at the initiation ceremony to join the profession results (optimally) in establishing and sustaining trust in the public and attributing to the moral responsibility – aspect of the professions. This approach was favoured by Durkheim (2001), Carr-Saunders (1933), Tawney (1946), Marshall (1963) in their writings about professions of modern times.

Freidson (2001) argues that professionalism represents a third logic in the way work is organized and controlled, not that of the market ruled for maximising profits, and not that of the bureaucratic management whose duty is to advance the policies of their superiors and reach organizational objectives. His intention is to defend the claims of professions as he sees their vulnerability to market and bureaucratic forces. His model of professionalism distinguishes institutional constants and contingent variables He does not emphasize the historic distinction between 'Continental' and

'Anglo-Saxon' modes of professionalism, as the literature often does. "The defining elements of the ideal type, the theoretical constants, are, first, a body of knowledge and skill which is officially recognized as one based on abstract concepts and theories and requiring the exercise of considerable discretion; second, an occupationally controlled division of labour; third, an occupationally controlled labor market requiring training credentials for entry and career mobility; fourth, an occupationally controlled training program which produces those credentials, schooling that is associated with 'higher learning', segregated from the ordinary labor market, and provides opportunity for the development of new knowledge; and fifth, an ideology serving some transcendent value and asserting greater devotion to doing good work than economic reward. The contingencies which are critical to realizing the institutions of the ideal type and which vary in time and place include the organization and policy positions of state agencies, the organization of occupation themselves, and the varying institutional circumstances required for the successful practice of different bodies of knowledge and skill" (Freidson, 2001: 180).

The third logic means offering a committed service in a responsible way in harmony with the trans-contextual value horizon and altruistic ethics, using the relatively autonomous field of the profession to control professional conduct and enhance disciplinary knowledge and practice always with an eye on self-improving, quality standards of professional activities as scrutinized by collegiate control. Professionalization revolves around the principle that members control their work (goals, content, nature of their tasks, independence of judgement, terms and conditions, criteria to evaluate performance). Debates about the use of professionalization strategies are continuous in the education sector, especially in adult education and has been reignited since managerialism became more powerful since the 80s. Managerialism defines professional activities organizationally and mainly driven by the principles of efficiency, effectiveness and business profitability motives.

Up to this period professions were theoretized mainly in the List of traits – model – (Carr, Saunders & Wilson, 1933; Caplow, 1954; Millerson, 1964; Wilensky, 1964) or the Semi-professions – conceptual framework. The first invoked serious criticism as it presented ahistoric and unilinear models. Even the constructed lists of attributes were very diverse. The latter concept was formulated by Etzioni (1969) who thought the signs of a semi-profession were characterised by the following: professional practitioners are heavily controlled by the employer organization management; their profession's legitimacy were weak; the ethical code was operated inconsistently; entry to the profession did not require long training; and most members of the professional group were women.

The Dominance-model, the Social closure-framework revolved around the power-discourse and professionalization's exclusion strategies in order to gain both symbolic profits and material rewards. The representatives of this view (Johnson,1972; Larson, 1977) interpreted professionalization as collective social mobility projects to secure a privileged position in the market, and they were critical of the professions' social closure-practice in protecting their own domains.

The criticism of professionalization processes as monopolization for advantages was firmly opposed by the Radical-critical prespective that suggested totally abandoning these projects and suggested liberating the civic leg of the society from the dependence created by the professions (Illich, 1977) or in the case of adult education a return to the Social Movement –tradition was advised.

The regressive version of the dominance model can be seen in the Counter-professionalization: Deprofessionalization (Haug, 1973) – conceptual framework. The thesis here is that the knowledge monopoly and the symbolic authority of the professions is undergoing an erosion. Several factors curb processes of 'client-making' and being dependent on the professions, like the massification of higher education that has been inflating the degrees and quality-levels, increased access to information about failures has reached the public through the sensation–seeking practices by the media, the expansion of education has made people more knowledgeable and turned proactivity into a sharing knowledge using the new technologies of communication.

Professional work is increasingly dominated by large organizations where management governs, plans strategies and processes, designs, compartmentalizes, standardizes the activities and has the allocating power over the resources, subordinating the governing values and professional criteria of the practitioners. Managers claim to serve the consumers' rights to quality service and their freedom to choose. There is a competition between managerialism and professions to construct the "needs" of the citizens. This is especially true in the case of human or caring professions, education, health, social work.

New trends, new concepts for professionalism

The growing focus is towards managerialism. According to the new cultural agenda, the so called public management model, community and public institutions have to operate by using market-compliant ways.

Government supports competition, internal markets are created, providers get contracts through bidding processes. Management is working through objectives and target setting, offers performance incentives, and

accountability measures are taken seriously. Resources and rewards are channelled toward policy makers and higher level managers.

Professions have reacted quite differently to these changes along a continuum of categorizing it threat to professional autonomy and feeling vulnerable, to adjusting to the reforms and seeking mutual benefits, asserting agency and responding with initiatives to cooperate. "In this context, professionalization, with its emphasis on monopolistic market closure, restrictive practices and self-regulation, is, in some quarters, seen as neither desirable nor achievable; rather, new knowledge-intensive occupations are expected to succeed through innovation, entrepreneurship and active engagement with the markets professionalization processes are guided by new conceptions of professionalism and supported by some novel strategies and tactics" (Muzio et al, 2011: 444).

Muzio consider a new organizational form of professional work corporate professionalization to be the newly-emerged strategy. It operates in and through large work organizations in the field of 'new' knowledge-based occupations requiring fluid, contextual knowledge and transferable skills. This new trend is supported by 'projectification' processes, the demand for new specialities in the market and the internationally situated work. Traditionally professional knowledge was linked to the practitioner, rather than to organizational expert systems, but that's changing according to this point of view.

Organizational forms vary within and between sectors, some offer professional dominance (professional firms, multi-professional organizations) or a balanced version of administrative and professional powers, so hybrid forms seem to be emerging. I borrow from Mike Saks the very astute metaphor that animals can live in zoos, circuses and safari parks representing very different levels of freedom and control. As the model of the 'third logic' – professionalization was ranked as 'neither desirable, nor achievable', another concept is surfacing:

New professionalism. In social work and human professions, in the field of adult education when the talk is about new professionalism, equal partnership is emphasized between the practitioner and client eliminating dominance and prescribing. Instead of exposure to an expert authority the principle of dialogue and reciprocity is put into the practice (like the normative concept of Habermas on communicative action). Andragogy's learner-centeredness, or learner control in the sense Knowles defined embodies exactly the same idea. (The negotiated learning contract defines the shared goals, targets and the criteria of evaluation etc.). Inter-professional collaborations are advised to work along the same principles. New professionalism demands deepening the expertise of the practitioners in forms of continuous professional development and giving up the idea of profes-

sionalization entailing privileges and power. The term acquired a totally different use, when the meaning is very close to the managerialism-driven model of human services, where professionalism is being imposed above, controlled by the organizational managers and organizational objectives, status attainment and increase of rewards are missing (Evetts, 2011).

The field of adult learning – Fear of over-professionalization

The history of adult education tells us that both for and against –status quo positions were held regarding the ideological-political map. The ideals of adult education were embedded in social movements and individual reform-projects that show clearly the original 'vocation' of bringing about change and transformation in the social world. The goals of empowering and enabling were in their focus and professionalization was seen a project diverting from it. According to critical thinkers the quest for power and privilege, seeking sheltered market positions, requiring credentials, creating a not so inclusive domain goes against the original purposes.

Even those who wanted the mountain of professionalization to climb in adult education agreed with the principles of not creating dependency, not exercising control over clients, not monopolizing knowledge. This ethos always seemed to jeopardize the project of professionalization and boundary-setting work.

In liberal countries mainstream professional organizations have a long-term viability and they perform a decisive role in shaping the professions, setting standards. They are successful in getting the support of the voluntary society in and forming partnerships with government.

Contrary to the Anglo-Saxon professionalization pattern where the state performed a relatively passive role, in Continental Europe the profession of adult education was created largely by the state. In former socialist countries the political forces were explicitly dominant in shaping the steps towards professionalization, so much so that they practically crushed the emerging forms of professional autonomy or limited them greatly. Path-dependency and political culture are still factors playing their role.

What is the current focus of building professionalism in Europe? In Europe lately a convergent theme: key competencies of practitioners in the adult education field has come center stage. Research projects supported by the EU targeted this theme. Though lifelong learning has been embedded in the policies of European Union for the last decades, surprisingly the significance of adult educators wasn't prioritized at all for long.

The ALPINE research projects aimed to give an overview on the professional status and competences of adult educators working in the field of non-vocational adult education in European states. They found that there is "no clear view on standard competences or skills needed to fulfil the professional tasks" (Research voor Beleid, 2008: 11) and suggested reference framework for generic and contextualized competence profiles to be developed and be used by national, sectoral and institutional organisations in developing staff policy. The report promotes an integral quality management system to be employed. They offer their model (five Pro's) to raising the quality of the NVAL sector: Professions, Providers, Programmes, Procedures and Products (Research voor Beleid, 2008; 14–15). But they again warn that "in the non-formal part of the field a lot of damage can be expected if too many formal rules are applied (over-professionalisation)" (Research voor Beleid, 2008; 12). Another research report in later (Research voor Beleid, 2010) offered the constructed set of key competences to be used for stakeholders.

A research project coordinated by the German Institute for Adult Education – Leibniz Centre for Lifelong Learning (Bernhardsson & Lattke, 2011) had the intention of mapping the core competences of adult learning facilitators working in various contexts covering the entire field of adult and continuing Education. Expert opinions were recruited. On the basis of the findings the project developed a concept for a transnational qualification framework (creating descriptors for each of the nine key competencies of the transnational catalogue in compliance with the European Qualification Framework for adult learning facilitators.) The proposed qualification framework is capable of handling both the academic training and the alternative routes to the professional field which is very appropriate for the heterogeneity of adult educators.

These endeavours can be interpreted as determining that placing emphasis on the capability –component is a way of promoting the profession of adult educators, an effort to communicate the value of their activities to the stakeholders in order to gain their support. The recommendations are telling betraying the relative weakness of the profession's agency: "It is up to stakeholders how to use the set of key competences and for what purpose. Member States should encourage stakeholders to use the set of key competences in developing policy and monitor the progress made" (Research voor Beleid, 2010; 120). Stakeholders (the state, universities, user groups, employers, professional bodies, practitioners) should be identified and targeted with effectiveness. More advocacy, more visibility, more strength are needed, more symbolic power and real empowerment. "Altogether, while it can be safely said that these initiatives marked an important step in the European discourse on professionalisation, it is never-

theless obvious that this step had much more the characteristics of a start rather than a conclusion" (Bernhardsson –Lattke, 2012; 13).

Conclusion

The article presented that a seemingly innocent and appreciated discourse on raising quality in all the sectors, has actually re-arranged the map of powers giving increased dominance in shaping the criteria of excellence to the managerialism and market-driven imperatives in public services, in the field of education as well. Established professions self-created a symbolic power based on their knowledge-asset and values. New external regulatory measures and frameworks are imposed squeezing the levels of professional autonomy. Creative responses are needed in the new legitimacy struggles. The knowledge-base and the capability approach needs to build up professional communities both on national and international levels to be an active player in the game.

References:

Abbott, A. (1988). *The System of Professions: An Essay on the Divison of Expert Labor*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Barber, B. (1963). Some problems in the Sociology of Professions. *Daedalus*. no.92. pp. 671–672.

Bauman, Z. (1987). *Legislators and Interpreters*. London: Polity Press.

Bernhardsson, N. & S. Lattke (eds.) (2011). *Core Competencies of Adult Learning Facilitators in Europe. Findings from a Transnational Delphi Survey*.

semlllhub.org/fileadmin/www.dpu.dk/ASEM/events/RN3/QF2TEACH_Transnational_Report_final_1_.pdf

Bourdieu, P. (1989). The Corporatism of the Universal. *TELOS*. no. 81. pp. 99–110.

Burawoy, M. (2013). The Future of Society. Epilogue. In: Brym, Robert(ed.). *New Society* – Nelson Education.

http://burawoy.berkeley.edu/PS/The%20Future%20of%20Sociology.pdf

Caplow, Th. (1954). *The Sociology of Work*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota.

Carr-Saunders, A. & P. A. Wilson (1933). *The Professions*. Oxford: Clarendon Press.

Durkheim, É. (2001). *A társadalmi munkamegosztásról*. Budapest: Osiris.

Etzioni, A. (1969). *The semi-professions and their organization: teachers, nurses, social workers*. New York: Free Press.

Evetts, J. (2011). A New professionalism ? Challenges and opportunities. *Current Sociology 59 (4)*

Freidson, E. (2001). *Professionalism. The Third Logic*. Cambridge: Polity and Blackwell Publishing.

Haug, M. R. (1973). Deprofessionalization: An Alternate Hypothesis for the Future'. In Halmos, P. (ed.) *Professionalisation and Social Change. Sociological review Monograph no.20.* Keele: University of Keele.

Illich, I., Zola, I. K. & J. C. McKnight (1977). *Disabling Professions (Ideas in Progress)*. London: Marion Boyars Publishers.

Johnson, T. (1972). *Professions and Power*. London: British Sociological Association.

Larson, M. S. (1977). *The Rise of Professionalism: A Sociological Analysis*. Los Angeles: University of California Press.

Marshall, T.H. (1963). *The Recent History of Professionalis in Relation to Social Structure and Social Policy*. London: Heinemann.

Millerson, G. (1964). The Qualifying Associations: A Study in Professionalization. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

Muzio, D. et al. (2011). Towards corporate professionalization: The case of project management, management consultancy and executive search. *Current Sociology 59(4.)*

Nikel, J. & Lowe, J. (2010). Talking of Fabric: a multi-dimensional model of quality in education. *COMPARE, 40 (5), 589–605.*

Research voor Beleid (2008). ALPINE: Adult Learning Professions in Europe. A study of the current situation, trends and issues – final report.

http://ec.europa.eu/education/more-information/doc/adultprofreport_en.pdf.

Research voor Beleid (2010): Key competences for adult learning professionals .Contribution to the development of a reference framework of key competences for adult learning professionals – final report

http://ec.europa.eu/education/more-information/doc/2010/keycomp.pdf

Tawney, R. H. (1946). *The Acquisitive Society*. New York: Harvest Books.

UNESCO (2012): *Beyond the Conceptual Maze: The notion of quality in education*. http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0021/002175/217519e.pdf

Wilensky, H. (1964): The professionalization of Everyone ? *American Journal of Sociology Vol. LXX no. 2.*

Yin C. C. & Wai M. T. (1997). Multi-models of quality in education. *Quality Assurance in Education*, 5 (1).

IV
METHODOLOGICAL APPROACHES AND SOLUTIONS IN THE STUDY OF THE QUALITY OF EDUCATION

*Milica Mitrović**

Ethnography of Literacy and Microethnographic Discourse Analysis in Literacy Research

The subject of this paper is a current trend of literacy research developed within the New Literacy Studies as well as its contributions to conceptualization of literacy, changing educational policies on quality in education and changing educational practices of literacy development. Classic ethnographies of literacy, classroom ethnographies of literacy and microethnographic discourse analysis of language and literacy events in a class are introduced as current types of research. The current trend is characterized by literacy research in the context of use, focus on the literacy development process (unlike the previous focus on effects), using the new units of observation and analysis (literacy practices, literacy events), and positioning pupils and teachers as research participants or as researchers – ethnographers. Systematic collection of data on literacy as a phenomenon, revealing the social character of literacy, shifting educational policies towards the model of literacy described in this tradition, establishing an authentic way of developing new educational practices by bringing together educational and research activities are considered significant contributions of this research trend. In this paper, it is concluded that this is a trend with a distinctive emancipatory potential.

Key words: literacy research, ethnography of literacy, microethnographic discourse analysis.

*   University of Belgrade, Faculty of Philosophy, Belgrade, Serbia

Introduction

At the level of international documents on education, literacy is today recognised as the key competence of children and adults in the 21st century, and considerations have been given to implications of such literacy status in the literature in Serbian language as well (Alibabić, Medić, Levkov, 2011; Mitrović, 2012). Today there are several scientific traditions researching and further conceptualizing literacy. By the end of the last century, it became clear that the way of planning and realisation of literacy development in formal education depended on how literacy was understood. In this paper, we want to consider how literacy is currently researched in the tradition of New Literacy Studies. From that perspective, literacy research is related to the terms of ethnography and discourse analysis. These terms are used by many scientific disciplines and specific meanings and uses are ascribed to them in accordance with their own epistemologies. That is why we will attempt, at the beginning of this paper, to indicate how we will use the above mentioned terms in the academic and historical traditions. Then we plan to present three types of research characteristic for literacy research in New Literacy Studies. They are: classic ethnographies of literacy, so-called classroom ethnographies of literacy and microethnographic discourse analysis. In this paper, we see them from the perspective of their reciprocal continuity as they evolved and of their interrelation. Since such literacy research is rarely used in our environment, we will present basic methodological characteristics of each of them. In the final part of this paper, we will consider contributions of such research trend in the areas of (1) further conceptualization of literacy, (2) changing educational policies on quality of education and (3) changing/developing educational practices of literacy development in the institutional context.

Locating Key Concepts

Locating literacy. Difficulties in understanding and defining literacy – it seems that they have been accompanying literacy since its earliest history – in our daily lives and in science. Much data give evidence of the social construction of literacy as a living collective process in the form of so-called everyday theories, numerous metaphors and myths (Lonsdale & McCurry: 2004; Mitrović: 2010; Scribner: 1997). As Gee (1996) claims, the literacy myth dates centuries back, from Plato to Freire.

In science, evolutionary approach to literacy, which shows literacy as an autonomous and monolithic force always leading the way to prosper-

ity for both societies and individuals, was particularly influential in the twentieth century. Within the approach, defining literacy in terms of effects (usually of a set of cognitive skills such as reading, writing, etc.) was developed. Even today such a way of defining is the most common in the UNESCO tradition, in new international evaluation literacy studies as well as in separate researches of certain types of literacy. During the eighties a contextual approach to literacy research in the form of several related orientations (ethnographic approach, sociocultural approach, ecological approach, etc.) was developed. At the time, they were known under the common name New Literacy Studies. In these studies, literacy is researched exclusively in the context of its real-world use and with a distinctive phenomenological orientation toward finding out what literacy is, how people use it, what it means to literacy users. Through these studies, literacy is seen as culturally, historically and contextually defined, dependent on power relations in the context of use, as plural, temporally and spatially changeable. Literacy activities are part of various social activities i.e. certain literacy practices. The basis of the difference between these two views of literacy is where B. Street (2003) recognizes two models of literacy: the autonomous model – characteristic for the evolutionary approach and the ideological model of literacy – characteristic for the contextual approach. Literacy is lately being researched through discourse as well. This concept is used in several ways: in explaining the literacy development process in individuals (where discourse is seen as a building block in the individual's literacy content), in describing literacy as a discursive phenomenon, and as a theoretical framework in the literacy discourse analysis in formal education and out of it.

Locating ethnography. Ethnography, popularly known as "writing about people" in the form of a dynamic "picture" of the social life – is a research approach aimed at unveiling and understanding social, cultural and normative patterns forming the basis of everyday sociocultural activities in the context. Ethnographies originate in anthropology and they are known as intensive and long term holistic studies with researchers living with the people they study. In these studies separate social microstructures are observed in their natural environment in a thorough and analytical way and in relation to the general context of culture. Halmi (2005: 227) sees them as "[...] one of the ways of understanding latent content and experiences" completely neglected by the quantitative research methods. Meaning, understanding, interpretation and multiple perspectives (perspectives of the research subjects in particular) are key factors for ethnographers and they see them as dynamic entities evolving and "flowing" through social interactions. They are realised through participating observation, in-depth interviews, triangulation, qualitative analyses and data

interpretation. These researches were initially realised in small societies and then adjusted for researching certain elements of the big western societies (minority subculture, local community, etc.). Since the mid-twentieth century ethnographers have been researching education as well, and in the last three decades, these studies have frequently been realised in individual schools and classrooms.

Locating Discourse Analysis. Discourse analysis is the name for several analysis approaches and styles which focus on the language use in the social context. The discourse analysis concept was initially developed by linguists who were observing language as an independent system and researched it first through the small linguistic units and then through units above the sentence level and large units. Alternative approaches to discourse analysis are being developed in numerous humanistic disciplines (anthropology, sociology, psychology, communicology, pedagogy, etc.). Within them discourses are seen as "languages in the world" or as particular forms of social practice functioning in all aspects of human life thus constituting and reflecting reality and meaning, power, identity, social status, knowledge. Traditions of ethnomethodology, symbolic interactionism, constructivism, phenomenology, postmodernism are in this sense considered methodological origins of discourse analysis. Critical discourse analysis and Foucault's discourse analysis are today considered the two new and frequently used conceptualizations of discourse as well as original approaches to discourse analysis. Halmi (2005: 400) generalizes different approaches and styles of discourse analysis into several thematic units: (1) dealing with the notion of discourse (its content and organization), (2) considering language as a constitutive and constructive part of the social reality construction, (3) action character of the discourse analysis and (4) critique of the rhetorical organization of discourse as the way of achieving persuasion in social activities. Methodologically, discourse analysis usually implies asking research questions, getting and transcribing the analysis content, detailed review of the text in order to construct categorical and coding schemes, coding, analysis (looking for certain patterns of regularities in the data and functions of specific discourse features), analysis assessment and results interpretation. Starting points of both categorical and coding schemes are always separately created according to the subject and goals of the concrete analysis.

Ethnographies of Literacy

New Literacy Studies and ethnographic research approach are tightly related. Ethnographically oriented researches on the correlation between literacy and education have represented an autonomous line in the emer-

gence of New Literacy Studies since the sixties. Such researches were first done by anthropologists, ethnographers of communication and sociologists. Since the eighties the implementation of ethnographic researches has become more frequent so that it is today considered the main research methodology in New Literacy Studies (Baynham & Prinsloo, 2001; Baynham, 2004; Luke, 2004; Street, 2004; Rogers & Street, 2011).

Ethnography of Literacy Key Concepts. Ethnographies of literacy have all the characteristics of the classic ethnographic studies: (1) they are studies of a real environment focused on the everyday use of literacy in the context; (2) with a holistic approach which is provided by observing the cultural practice of literacy; (3) with the use of detailed observation, interviewing and a set of other techniques needed for the data generating and systematic acquisition of documentation and (4) studies of interpretive character with the mandatory presentation of the participants' perspective (Hamilton, 1999: 431). Literacy practices and literacy events are key concepts of the ethnography of literacy. According to S. Scribner (1997a), *literacy practice* has features of the social practice (understood in a critical way) and some distinctive features which make it a special form of practice: it includes written language and writing conventions, information and concepts needed for reading, writing and achieving specific goals through them. The practice also includes the subject position characterized by assumptions and an ability for the independent meaning-making in the context of use. After she and M. Cole had realized the famous ethnographic studies on cognitive effects of literacy on the Vai island in Liberia (published by the name of "The Psychology of Literacy" in 1981), the author concluded that the concept of practice was essentially important for understanding literacy: "it is practice that explains literacy" and not a great theory or a formal model (Scribner, 1997a). In ethnographies of literacy the *literacy event* concept has become a basic unit of observation and analysis. This unit was developed by relying on the experience of D. Hymes (1980, 1996) in operationalization of the units for ethnography of communication. In one of the first ethnographies of literacy, literacy events are described as the occasions in which written language is integral to the nature of participants' interactions and their interpretive processes and strategies (Heath, 1983; according to Gee, 1996). D. Barton (1994) describes literacy events as regular repeated activities in everyday life with literacy having an integrative role. Each literacy event includes three elements: context, identity and practice and it is valid equally for literacy events in formal and informal education (Pahl & Rowsell, 2005). Apart from the above mentioned concepts, the ones that further divide literacy practices into *global, academic and local practices* are also relatively typical for this type of research. Today, the first term signifies practices mediated

by electronic and digital media. Academic practices are associated with formal education and the local ones are seen in different domains of everyday life (job, work environment, home, etc.).

The possibility of the rich methodological creation of the ethnography of literacy. Along with participating observation and in-depth interviews as the main methods of research, it is possible to use a set of other research techniques in ethnography of literacy as well as to set up different data sources, even to use quantification procedures as a way to provide qualitative data. For instance, in our ethnography aimed at studying the meaning of the practice of writing in schools as the literacy development practice (Mitrović, 2006) the following data sources have been formed: (1) recording of the classes and conversations with teachers and pupils in the context of monitored classes, notes, and researcher's comments; (2) recordings of the planned conversations periodically realised with pupils and teachers regarding certain writing activities; (3) responses to the survey of the students from the observed classes after the main school writing activity has been done as well as responses to the survey of the teachers whose classes have not been observed; (4) responses of the teachers whose classes have been observed from the final interviewing; (5) inventory of all the writing activities realised in grades I – VIII during the course of the ongoing school year. The last data source which contained 3213 writting activities, in the context of research, was used as an auxiliary one. The data on writing activities were first subjected to the content analysis (through which each writing activity was described through a category system relevant with regard to the research subject), the data were then subjected to the classical statistical processing (and were used, in the report text, as illustrations of quantitative features of the writing activities). In the third step the same data were subjected to the cluster analysis so that the way of how writing activities were mutually grouping and how the writing activities models were separated could be studied. The data in the report, too, were used to describe writing activities – and it is still the very first step needed to be taken in order to interpret the meaning of the practice of writing as the literacy development practice in a concrete school.

Three generations of the ethnographies of literacy. Over a few decades of use, ethnographies of literacy have gone along a certain development path. In their research heritage, some authors (Baynham, 2004; Baynham & Prinsloo, 2009) have referred to even three generations of the ethnographic studies. Ethnographic studies of the first generation were mainly realised as long term cross-cultural researches of small and unresearched social groups; in the next generation the attention has shifted to specificities of the local practices (e.g. family and school literacy practices; lit-

eracy associated with different domains). Ethnographic studies realised in one school or in one classroom have become more frequent. Thereby, it is important to say that even such researches need to meet a condition of holism. In the current generation of the ethnographic studies, there have been certain changes concerning the subject of research resulting from the fast formation and development of the new literacy practices: "[...] the focus has shifted from the local to the translocal, from the print based literacies to electronic and multimedia literacies, and from the verbal to the multimodal" (Baynham & Prinsloo, 2009: 2). Even in the first generation of these research studies the contributions were visible in more areas. We will come back to these contributions after we present other types of research.

Classroom Ethnographies of Literacy

The term classroom ethnographies of literacy refers to associating ethnographic approach with educational activities in teaching. Changes made in literacy pedagogy by the systematic ethnographic studies have led to ethnography being seen as a special learning resource which offers critical engagement and rich reflections on literacy to pupils and teachers (Hamilton, 1999). Classroom ethnographies of literacy realised by pupils and teachers are not about the systematic ethnographic studies but the use of *elements of the ethnographic method* or assuming *the ethnographic attitude* in teaching. Typical activities that pupils get involved in imply awakening the attitudes on literacy (their own, teachers', other peoples'), recognizing local and and folk literacy practices, researching differences in literacy use at home and in school, unveiling the way language is used in different contexts, etc. However, in some environments, this kind of activities lists are rather rich since they are created by adding some other research traditions, too, (such as sociolinguistic or participatory researches) which share "the history of care for the educational capital in the context of cultural and linguistic diversity" (*Ibid*.: 433). What researchers consider particularly valuable in classroom ethnographies of literacy is authenticity of the educational – research situation as well as engagement of actual pupils' literacies in the research of language, knowledge and social constructions of literacy, and an opportunity for networking of the school and local literacy practices that the pupils participate in.

An example of connecting the ethnographic method with educational activities. A noteworthy way of putting ethnographic research activities in context of educational activities is the LETTER Project (Learning for Em-

powerment Through Training in Ethnographic Research) whose realization started in India in 2005, and then moved to Ethiopia and some other environments (Rogers & Street, 2011). This project develops education programmes which bring together, through ethnographic research activities, local literacy practice and educational activities along with literacy curriculum development. Adult literacy education is realized through the project. The project starting point is the understanding of literacy as a wide variety of social practices within the context and for a specific purpose. Through a series of workshops the participants attend a short course training in ethnographic research and the activities of researchers – ethnographers. Then they conduct fieldwork consisting of small-scale case studies which imply exploring how certain categories of the local community (taxi-drivers, salesmen, neghbours, etc.) manage their everyday literacy. Once the fieldwork is conducted, the participants with support of their teachers develop a programme in literacy for adults associated with the literacy activities they need. These educational activities are considered more productive than attempts at developing literacy through decontextualised skills. Introducing ethnographic perspective in the education programme provides a socially established approach to adult literacy education since it enables finding out what participants already know and what relevant local practices are as well as developing the programme on that basis (Nirantar, 2007).

Microethnographic Discourse Analysis

Along with the described ethnographic researches, literacy has recently been researched by using discourse analysis as well. On account of that, (1) researches named *microethnographies* which may contain discourse analysis, too, as well as (2) various *discourse analyses directed by the microethnographic approach* are present in the literature. Boundaries between them manifest as fragile since they are researches with ethnography and discourse analysis having complementary roles. However, differences can be found in epistemological and methodological principles rooted in these research traditions.

Methodological delimitations. Microethnographies are described as a type of ethnographic researches employing ethnographic starting points and methods but they are focused on small samples of interaction in relatively short time frames. In education, this way is used for studying behaviours, interactions, discourses, social relationships between pupils and teachers. Microanalysis of interaction discovers visible processes and conditions of interaction. The researches of this type are usually based on

the meticulous analysis of recorded data. If they include using discourse analysis – then it enables insight into how the language use shapes social interactions and patterns of social relationships. In establishing differences between the microethnography and classic ethnographic study in education, it is emphasized that microethnographies enable: (1) documenting the processes in greater detail and precision than it is possible with participating observation, (2) identifying how routine processes are organized in contrast to just describing them and (3) very careful testing of the validity of characterization of intent and meaning in the context (Erickson, 1992; according to Atkinson et al., 2011). However, when discourse analyses directed by the microethnographic approach get conducted, the language and conceptual framework of the chosen approach to discourse analysis are in their focus. Bloome (Bloome et al, 2005) argues that ethnographic perspective is the source of interest in the role of language in the construction of classroom literacy events and research conducting – i.e. interest in understanding how people and researchers use language. On account of that, understanding the language using process as a process which summarizes contexts and complex social, political, cognitive and linguistic processes is essential.

Methodological characteristics of the microethnographic analysis of language discourse and literacy events in the classroom. Microethographic analyses of language discourse and literacy events in the classroom are characterized by Bloome and associates (Bloome et al, 2005) as a research approach conducting different methodological varieties. In explaining this approach the authors insist on using the term *methodology* to refer to integrating theoretical and methodological starting points and on using the term *method* for research techniques, data collection strategy, analysis and reporting. The approach relies on microethnography, linguistic anthropology, New Literacy Studies, studies of narratives, discussions associated with the work of M. Bakhtin, etc. Microethnographic discourse analysis is conducted within concrete educational activities with the focus on how language and other systems of communication are used in construction of literacy events in the class. In simple terms, what is researched is who is doing what, to whom, where, and how through the use of language in classrooms. Those are the questions the researcers ask of themselves, teachers and students. The class is seen as a complex where a series of interactions is conducted. This is mainly an interpretive methodology which offers description and understanding of a concrete literacy event. In some approach varieties, critical discourse analysis is used and then a significant effect of reflection and emancipation of pupils in the research is possible. Only the events with written language having an essential role are considered literacy events. There are two key issues which define and distin-

guish this approach varieties: *implied personhood* and the *foregrounding of events.* Conceptional framework as the basis for creating coding categories and analytical framework further depends on the way how these terms are defined (*Ibid.*). These terms express assumptions shared by the participants in the literacy event i.e. the way of their social construction. In this study, the following contexts have been used as theoretical "tools" for the microethnographic analysis: (1) contextualization cues (verbal, nonverbal and prosodic signals and the manipulation of artefacts), (2) boundary making (making decisions on where a text ends and another begins), (3) turn-taking (taking turns during the interaction), (4) negotiating thematic coherence (the organization of meanings throughout the event) and (5) intertextuality (juxtaposition of texts).

Prevalent research topics. By relying on two sources, we will illustrate what, in relation to literacy, can be researched in this way. In the study by Bloome and associates (*Ibid.*) cultural practices, construction of social identities, power relations in language and classroom literacy events have been researched. A review of research (Rex et al, 2010: 94) encompassing about 300 literacy studies conducted over the last 10 years across the age span (preschool to adult) analyzed which research topics and issues were investigated through discourse analysis. It turned out that a common theme of all the studies was a way of accomplishing literacy education of all people. This theme is a part of the current educational policy *on equal access* to education and literacy *for all.* In the large research sample, the review authors selected following frequent questions: What are literate identities, how are they constructed and by whom? How are disciplinary knowledges, discourses, and identities constructed? How can schools provide pupils with access to school-based literacies? How do roles of literacy shift within and outside of school? How does discourse analysis research movement within and and across literacy sites and practices in a globalized and digital world? The list of questions whose answers the discourse analysis researchers were searching for shows that this type of research agrees well with the ideological model of literacy and mechanisms of literacy in the context. (We feel the need to mention that this research sample contained not only microethnographic but some other types of discourse analysis as well.).

Contributions of Such a Research Trend

Contributions in the area of further conceptualization of literacy. When literacy is seen from the pedagogical perspective it is visible that the major problems arise from different comprehension of literacy. Due to its meth-

odology aimed at understanding the phenomenon in the real context, ethnographies of literacy have achieved literacy to be, *for the first time*, researched in a phenomenological manner. *The social character of literacy* is thus illuminated as well as the way it is incorporated in everyday social and cultural activities. The view of literacy as a set of skills have not yet been eliminated from the formal education; but the data have been systematically offered on *non representativeness of the school literacy activities* in comparison to the ones which are a part of productive and socially appriciated literacy practices in the society. In relation to that contribution, the use of the concept of discourse and discourse analysis has a complementary contribution in establishing understanding between two dominant images of literacy in the world. This research tradition contributes to the understanding of existance of *various discourses of literacy* (Rex et al, 2010). At a macro level, literacy discourses are contained within global educational policies, institutional procedures, schooling curriculum or within discussions of literacy occurring occasionally and becoming a global scale topic. At a micro level, there are various discursive practices such as classroom or school literacy practices. At a meso level, discourse researchers distinguish discourses situated outside of school, in community groups and institutions (family, church, administrative venues, etc.). Through such discourses, social and scientific construction of literacy is being established on daily basis; also, the literacy education context is established by these discourses.

Contributions in the area of changing educational policies on quality in education. History of institutions, declarations, movements and international actions aimed at literacy education and spreading literacy globally in the last four decades can be also understood as the history of *shifting educational policies* towards the ideological model of literacy. Such shifts are visible in a series of details: in changing definitions of literacy in the international evaluative studies, in advocating the development of literacy across all areas of the curriculum, in emphasizing the principle of equal access to literacy and education for all, in elevating literacy to the level of the key human competence, etc. According to our understanding, such shifts are a result of increased insights into literacy as a phenomenon, and persistence of a considerable illiteracy rate in the world. In relation to that process, research work in the tradition of New Literacy Studies systematically offers data on the contextual coherence of literacy (through ethnographies) and on ideological mechanisms as the basis of the development of literacy process (through discourse analyses), which have a role of the *corrective* regarding the goals proclaimed by educational policies. We believe that the process of *forming a more realistic attitude* toward the literacy development problems is currently conducted in this interaction.

Contributions in the area of changing/developing educational practices. In relation to the previously dominant orientation on effects in literacy development, the described research trend contributes to the *understanding of literacy development process* as well as understanding of classroom literacy practices and their relationship with practices the pupils are involved in outside of school. In that sense, the contact between educational and research activities through classroom ethnographies of literacy is particularly valuable. By just understanding a practice, *pupils change the practice*. We consider classroom ethnographies of literacy the most appropriate way of spreading the New Literacy Studies ideas in practice and the *authentic way of developing* educational practices. Rogers & Street (2011: 12) assume that ethnographic researches "[...] of everyday are a necessary part of any pedagogic activity, whether with adults or children, whether in Europe or other environments".

Conclusions

In this paper we have described a current trend of literacy research developed within the New Literacy Studies and we have considered its contributions to the theory and practice of literacy development. The data in this paper indicate that this trend is characterized by: (1) literacy research in the context of use, (2) focus on the literacy development process (unlike the previous focus on effects), (3) using the new units of observation and analysis (literacy practices, literacy events), and (4) positioning pupils and teachers as research participants or as researchers – ethnographers. Significant contributions of this research trend are reflected in: (1) systematic collection of data on literacy as a phenomenon, (2) revealing the social character of literacy, (3) shifting educational policies towards the model of literacy described in this tradition, (4) establishing an authentic way of developing new educational practices by bringing together educational and research activities. All the data in this paper indicate that this is a trend with a distinctive emancipatory potential.

References:

Alibabić, Š., Medić, S., Levkov, Lj. (2011). Pismenost kao ključna kompetencija u evropskoj politici obrazovanja odraslih [Literacy as a Key Competence in the European Politics of Adult Education]. *Inovacije u nastavi*, 24(3), 5–18.

Atkinson, D., Okada, H. & Talmy, S. (2011). Ethnography and Discourse Analysis. In Hyland, K., Paltridge, B. (Eds.), *Continuum Companion to Discourse Analysis* (pp. 85–100). London: Continuum international Publiching Group.

Barton, D. (1994). *Literacy: An Introduction to the Ecology of Writen Language*. Cambridge: Blackwell.

Baynham, M. & Prinsloo, M. (2001). New Directions in Literacy Research. *Language and Education*, 15(2&3), 83–91.

Baynham, M. (2004). Ethnographies of Literacy: Introduction. *Language and Education*, 18(4), 285–290.

Baynham, M & Prinsloo, M. (Eds.) (2009). *The Future of Literacy Studies.* New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Bloome, D., Carter, S. P., Christian, M., Otto, S. & Shuart-Faris, N. (2005). *Discourse Analysis and the Study of Classroom Language and Literacy Event – A Microethnographic Perspective*. London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.

Gee, J. P. (1996). *Social Linguistics and Literacies: Ideology in Discourses*. London: Falmer Press.

Halmi, A. (2005). *Strategije kvalitativnih istraživanja u primenjenim društvenim znanostima* [Strategies of Qualitative Research in Applied Social Sciences]. Jasterabrsko: Naklada Slap.

Hamilton, M. (1999). Ethnography for Classrooms: Constructing a Reflective Curriculum for Literacy. *Curriculum Studies,* 7(3), 429–444.

Hymes, D. (1980). *Language in Education: Ethnolinguistic Essays.* Washington: Center for Linguistics.

Hymes, D. (1996). *Ethnography, Linguistics, Narrative Ineguality.* London: Teylor & Francis.

Lonsdale, M., & McCurry, D. (2004). *Literacy in the New Millennium.* Canberra: National Centre for Vocational Education Research (NCVER). Retrieved (2013. 10. 05) from: http://www.ncver.edu.au/research/proj/nr2L22/Lonsdale&McCurry.pdf.

Luke, A. (2004). On the material Consequences of Literacy. *Language and Education*, 18(4), 331–335.

Mitrović, M. (2006). *Obrazovna praksa razvijanja pismenosti u institucionalnom kontekstu* [Educational Practice Literacy Development in the Institutional Context]. Doktorska disertacija odbranjena na Filozofskom fakultetu Univerziteta u Beogradu.

Mitrović, M. (2010). *Pismenost i obrazovanje: Perspektiva Novih studija pismenosti* [Literacy and Education: The New Literacy Studies Perspective]. Beograd: Univerzitet u Beogradu, Filozofski fakultet.

Mitrović, M. (2012). Pismenost kroz kurikulum: modeli [Literacy and Curriculum: Models]. In Alibabić, Š., Medić, S. i Bodroški-Spariosu, B. (Eds.). *Kvalitet u obrazovanju: izazovi i perspektive* [Quality in Education: Challenges and Prospects] (pp. 147–165). Beograd: Institut za pedagogiju i andragogiju Filozofskog fakulteta.

Nirantar (2007). *Exploring the Everyday: Ethnographic Approaches to Literacy and Numeracy*. New Delhi: Nirantar and ASPBAE.

Pahl, K. & Rowsell, J. (2005). *Literacy and Education: Understanding the New literacy Studies in teh Classroom*. London: Paul Chapman Publishing.

Rex, L. A., Bunn, M., Davila, B., Dickinson, H., Ford, A. C., Gerber, C., McBee Orzulak, M., & Thompson, H. (2010). A Review of Discourse Analysis in Literacy Research: Equitable Access. **Reading Research Quarterly, 45**(1), 94–115.

Rogers, A. & Street, B. (2011). *Using Ethnographic Approaches to Understanding and Teaching Literacy: Perspectives from both Developing and Western Context*. Special issue World Literacy Day 8 Sept 2011. Retrieved (2013. 10. 05) from: http://www.academia.edu.

Scribner, S. (1997). The cognitive Consequences of Literacy. In Tobach E. et al. (Eds.), *Mind and Social Practice: Selected Writinngs of Silvia Scribner* (pp. 160–189). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Scribner, S. (1997a). The Practice of Literacy. In Tobach E. et al. (Eds.), *Mind and Social Practice: Selected Writinngs of Silvia Scribner* (pp. 190–206). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Street, B. (2003). What's „new" in New Literacy Studies? Critical Approaches to Literacy in Theory and Practice. *Current Issues in Comparative Education*, 5(2), 77–91.

Street, B. (2004). Futures of the Ethnograpfy of Literacy. *Language and Education*, 18(4), 326–330.

*Lidija Radulović**

Teacher Research: From Theoretically-Conceptual Framework to the Landmarks for Practice

Teacher research is long– known concept in pedagogical literature and the phenomenon not new in the practice. However, there are different ways of conceptualising this kind of research and many dilemmas concerning its realization. This paper searches for the landmarks which could be useful if we want to encourage, research and realize this kind of research. Our search involves: 1. Clarification of the theoretical conceptual framework of teacher research; 2. Presentation and explanation of the general teacher research characteristics; 3. Discussion of the characteristics that the successful research of this kind have.

The paper gives the analysis, integration and interpretation of different sources: literature on the contemporary tendencies in pedagogical epistemology and methodology (particularly postmodern and critically oriented), literature on teachers' research and the experiences of teachers researching own practice. The most important landmarks are: 1. Teacher research should be based on the teacher's research attitude and issues which are relevant for him/her; 2. Inseparability of research, practice and professional development; 3. Critical nature and change as the part of research process.

Key words: teacher research, teacher's research stance, emancipation of teaching profession.

---

* University of Belgrade, Faculty of Philosophy, Belgrade, Serbia

Teacher Research is not an add-on; it is a way of being!
(Gail Ritchie, Teacher Leader Network & Fairfax County's Teacher
Researcher Network)

Introduction

Teachers' research and a concept of teachers as researches have long ago ceased to be novel pedagogical phenomena. There is already a large number of publications about teachers' research and a lot of descriptions of such research examples on the different education levels can be found in the literature. Student teachers' researches have become an integral part of a number of pre-service teacher education programs.[1] Moreover, research on teachers' research has been conducted and the teachers' researchers associations and networks have been established.[2] Promoting teachers' research has become a part of the official education policy in many developed countries, including some in the region. However, these phenomena are not conceptualised uniformly. Although it is clear that teacher research is a process by which classroom teachers investigate problems of practice, the different views appear in the concretization of this concept and in the attempts to translate it into the practice. This is a situation posing many dilemmas to anybody willing to investigate teacher research issues, to implement such research or to develop teacher education programs to support the development of teachers as researchers. This paper attempts to find some general reference points – underpinned by the essence of teachers' research – that may assist in solving these dilemmas. We shall try to do this by looking into the theoretical-conceptual framework and the key characteristics of the teachers' research, particularly of the successful ones. Using the available literature, integrating, interpreting and complementing different sources we shall try to provide an answer to the old question: what is the essence of teacher research. In a quest to this answer, we shall take into account the contemporary trends in social and humanistic sciences, the latest findings on the teacher research, my own personal experience as a teacher researching practice and a need to identify those crucial characteristic of the teacher research which may be relevant for encouraging and development of such research in practice.

---

1   This primarily refers to the pre-service teacher education curricula in USA, the U.K., Canada, Australia, New Zealand, the Netherlands. However, more and more countries include research and inquiry in the future teachers' education.

2   For example, these are collaborative Action Research Network (CARN): (http://www.did.stu.mmu.ac.uk/carnnew), League of Teacher Researchers (lynx.csusm.edu/ltr/), Fairfax County Public Schools Teacher Researcher Network (www.fcps.edu/plt/tre-search.htm), Teacher Inquiry Communities (TIC) Network.

Conceptual-theoretical Framework

Teacher research conceptual-theoretical framework has been developed by following the developments in science and academic research in general, through the changes in understanding the teaching profession, teachers' work and the attempts to conceive the teacher education in the best possible way (Lytle & Cochran-Smith expressed the similar attitude even in 1994). Therefore, it is not surprising that there are different concepts on the teacher research which are related or equated, including teacher research, action research, action science, cooperative inquiry, self-study, narrative inquiry, emancipatory praxis, auto-ethnography, the scholarship of teaching and learning, and the use of teaching as a context for research (Anderson, Herr, and Nihlen, 2007; Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2009). Common to these theoretical concepts is exactly that what can be considered as the key theoretical starting point and the basis of the teacher research concept and which makes these researches different from other forms of research in education. Those are epistemological-methodological approaches which investigate and reconsider the relation between theoretical and practical knowledge and critique criticize methodological procedures, researcher's role and nature of knowledge in the positivistic (process-product, empirical-analytical) methodology, primarily in social and humanistic sciences (Cochran-Smith et al., 2009). Same as in other domains, this viewpoint in pedagogy rests on the dissatisfaction with the existing situation – this time due to the failure of the research on education based on positivism to contribute to the understanding and change of the education practice. Investigating research boundaries has led to their change and the development of new scientific paradigms. Regarding pedagogic research that brought an array of changes which are today taken as well known characteristics of the interpretative and critical paradigm. The most important are: recognition of necessity that the science goes beyond description and the attempt to control reality and the acceptance that the interpretation of the real phenomena meaning and/or their change should become the purpose of science; realization that it is necessary to re-consider the meaning of objectivity and the relation between objective and subjective in the exploration of education phenomena; respect for necessity to view education contextually. This has also created a distinction between research on teaching and research in education (and for education). Research on teaching is university based research. This kind of research is derived from theories related to teaching, learning, and schooling within academic disciplines and seeks to develop this kind of theories. Knowledge gaining procedures are based on the values of positivistic methodology (standard procedures for data gathering and their

statistic processing, quantification, objectivity). This kind of research are done by *expert researchers* working at the universities and institutes with a purpose to get universally valid knowledge. *Research in education* and *research for education* stem from the very professional practice, although they can be based on the academic postulates, more precisely relations between theoretical postulates and practice (Lytle & Cochran-Smith, 1994). These research are, in principle, done by practitioners,[3] starting from the daily problems in the practice (Pešić, 1998, Cochran-Smith et al., 2009). They do this alone, with colleagues or with the researchers' participation, but always through their own long-term, intense, and direct professional involvement. Methodologically, teachers' researches usually belong to the interpretative or action research, even though they sometimes "resemble university-based studies in conventions, methods and forms" (Myers, 1985). Teachers research to better understand own experiences and, to be able to decide on the actions and solutions to problems. Hence, the main purpose of these researches is not to develop universal theories but to understand and develop their own practice. This is exactly why, according to Lytle & Cochran-Smith, these researches shift and blur the border between research and teachers' work in practice (Lytle & Cochran-Smith, 1994). They also move the line between the research and teachers' professional development because research are the way of job-embedded professional learning.

Although the epistemological basis of teacher research presented in this paper is relatively broadly acknowledged, we should note that there are other kinds of research, based on different methodological paradigms, which are sometimes called teachers' research (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2009; Anderson, Herr and Nihlen, 2007; Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2004; Zeichner and Noffke, 2001 – in Cochran-Smith et al., 2009).

Having in mind the current trends in social sciences (McLaren, 2012), contemporary understanding of teaching profession[4] and the fact that

---

3   Literature uses terms teachers' research and practitioners' research for the same kind of research. In their recent papers, Cochran-Smith and Lytle argue that we should speak about the practitioners' research because teachers are just one of the groups doing these researches, but they can also be done by the school principles and other professionals involved in the education process (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2009).

4   Here we mean those understandings of teachers underpinned by understanding of reflective practice, action research and curriculum development. They see teachers as a critical reflective group that develops emancipating practice, works on the school democratisation and the development of democratic society (Garman, 1995; Hartnett, Carr, 1995) while criticizing: reducing teachers' role to those that "apply rather than create" (Elliott, 1981: 1), limiting teachers' autonomy to report on how to work and the inside classroom context (Stenhouse, 1989), technocracy of teachers profession, disregard for teachers' practical knowledge, neglect for his/her activities in the

there is a worldwide movement of teachers researchers,[5] nowadays we can notice one more foothold for the development of teachers' research. It is directly and inseparably connected with the presented epistemology (can even be considered a part of epistemology, different angle of looking at it or its consequence). But, it can also be considered as a separate starting point because it is not underpinned by postmodern postulates, methodology and science but with something else. To understand this perspective one has to know the answer to questions who does this research and which issues are his/her starting point. As already pointed out in the explained teachers' research epistemology, researcher, participant and the user of research are in fact the same person. Teachers have a key role in knowledge about the practice and changing it. They are *users and generators of theory* (Lytle & Cochran-Smith, 1994:28), *knowers, not only doers* (Check and Schutt, 2012), *decision makers and change agents* (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2009:6), they "change the practice and the conditions in which it happens" (Pešić, 1998:59). Teacher researcher is capable and "has a mandate" to identify problems, interpret occurrences in the school and classroom, uses research to understand the practice and introduces changes in his/her work based on that. Hence, the concept of teacher researcher assumes a change of his/her role and responsibility but also the position ensuing from that. These roles cannot be achieved without respecting teacher's autonomy and his/her power to decide on the practice.

Besides its importance for the teacher as individual and group, this conception bears on the very teaching profession. Teaching profession is being developed on the new foundations: it is promoted as reflective, based on research, collaboration and autonomy. We can even say that it has been professionalised for the first time because without trust in the teachers' actions (which involves their accountability and autonomy) we can hardly speak about the profession in its full sense (Radulović, 2011). Regarding this, Cochran-Smith & Lytle point out that practitioner research offers hope for us to "take back accountability" (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2009:376). Thus, development of teachers as researchers is at the same time not only a way to find relevant knowledge and change the

---

social-political area (Goodson, 1995), no comprehension of the importance of teachers for the development of democratic society (Hartnett, Carr, 1995); bureaucratic school governance (Garman, 1995) and bureaucratic reforms (Goodman, 1995).

5   Development of teachers' researchers movement is reflected in broadening of networks that bring together teachers who research (some are mentioned above), but it is also emphasized in the title of the paper: *The teacher research movement: A decade later*, written by M. Cochran-Smith and S. L. Lytle, whose work have a crucial importance for the conceptualisation and the development of teachers' research (Cochran-Smith, & Lytle, 1999).

way of education work, but also a way to emancipate teaching profession and teachers as a group. Hence, it is not surprising that teachers organize themselves to research together, support each other in research and share research experiences.

At this point, a teacher research concept can depart from those characteristic of the postmodern understanding in education which have the largest critique from the critical pedagogy and contribute to integration of those two contemporary ways of thinking. A change of teacher's position into researcher is not only a part of the postmodern change of the way in which the science is understood but also a way of emancipating teachers as individuals and groups, which is compatible with the critical pedagogy ideas. Cochran-Smith and Lytle support the similar idea when, juxtaposing the concept of teacher research and the standardization of the teaching practice, emphasize the importance of teacher's perspective and the role of their work for the democratic society:

"With practitioner inquiry, the larger project is... about enhancing educators' sense of social responsibility and social action in the service of a democratic society" (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2009: 58).

Besides emancipating teachers, critical pedagogy as a theoretical starting point for teachers' research is also clear on the choice of the issues to be researched. Critical pedagogy theoreticians stress the importance of identifying and researching issues related to the social structure, power distribution, justice, identity, language and social changes thereby coming back and re-iterating the relevance of the value and moral components of the teachers' work. This idea is present in the Cochran-Smith and Lytle recent works where they say that the teachers research "those problems in the best interests of the learning and life chances of students and their communities" (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2009: 123). Therefore, the teachers' researches are not only about how to do something but also about what needs to be changed. In the critical pedagogy perspective, teacher research is an opportunity to raise the awareness of the role of education in the reproduction of (unequal, unfair) social relations, but it also becomes a form of social action. According to this, teacher research can be defined as "personal, professional, and political journey" (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2009:294). For B. Fecho, this kind of research is a "critical inquiry" (Fecho, 2011), which corresponds to the Habermas's concept of "critical knowledge" as knowledge which teacher acquires through research and which is a basis for change (Habermas 1971, in: Moon, 2004: 13–14).

Although such understanding of teacher research exists since its very beginnings (Stenhouse argues that this is a way to emancipate practitioners and improve curriculum and calls it democratizing research – Sten-

house, 1985 in Cochran-Smith, 1999), this is not the only understanding of this research. As noted by Cochran-Smith and associates, practitioner inquiry is sometimes, (but not always) explicitly linked to larger social justice and social equity agendas (Cochran-Smith et al., 2009). Sometimes these inquiries are not oriented to social critique but are way to adjust the activities to make own practice more effective. However, teachers' emancipation and their actual change through the research process can be viewed as a part of social change, while teachers' knowledge, skills and power could be considered as a society transforming tool (Garman, 1995: 31).

Key Characteristics of Teacher Research

The basis to define the concept of teacher research are answers to the questions: who does the research, what are the research questions and how are they identified, what research methods and data analysis procedures exist, what is the scope of such research and what is assumed teacher's position for such research. According to the already explained theoretical postulates, teacher research is the research done by the practitioner in their work context to resolve certain problems encountered/observed in the practice, compare theoretical findings and perception of practice, deliberate on and understand their work and their way of understanding. This leads to the changes in practice (in the classroom but also socially) and to the professional development which requires teachers' autonomy and contributes to the emancipation and professionalization of the teacher vocation.

The key characteristics of teacher research mentioned in the literature are that they are:

- Systematic and intentional
- Reflective and self-critical
- Voluntary
- Ethical
- Contextual
- Cooperative
- Public.

Systematicity and intentionality are teacher research characteristics mentioned by many relevant authors from the beginning of this concept development till today (Stenhouse, 1975, in Pešić, 1998; Stenhouse, 1985; Cochran-Smith et al., 2009; Mohr et al., 2004). These characteristics can help to distinguish between what teacher research is and what it is not.

They can make the distinction between the knowledge gained through the teacher research and *lore* and craft knowledge which are teacher knowledge gained through the spontaneous observations and teachers' accounts on practice (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999).[6] Teacher research is planned and uses intentional and systematic ways of gathering and recording information, documenting and analysing data about the practice.

Reflectivity is an essential part of teacher research because the teachers are those who identify problems in their practice, share and compare perspectives among themselves, reconsider their own opinions and activities, evaluate the practice and the research itself. We may say that the reflectivity is another name for this kind of reconsideration and evaluation. The techniques helping teachers to organize research are also the techniques for systematic gathering of information and reflecting on the practice, like for example: field notes, research journals, memos, collaborative logs, group critical reflection and discussion (Check and Schutt, 2012).[7]

Self-criticism is closely related to reflectivity because reflecting is not any kind of thinking but critical reconsideration. This characteristic is underlined by authors who have contributed the most to the origin and development of this concept – L. Stenhouse i M. Cochran-Smith (Stenhouse, 1975, in Pešić, 1998; Lytle & Cochran-Smith, 1994). The necessity of the teachers' self-critical approach is obvious if we are aware that the research is undertaken out of need to identify and solve the problems in the practice, in order to change and develop the practice, and also if we keep in mind that one of the footholds for this research is critical pedagogy.

Open reconsideration of own assumptions and beliefs may cause discomfort and vulnerability. Therefore, the teacher alone must make a decision to do the research, which makes *voluntarism* an important characteristic of teacher research (Cochran-Smith et al., 2009; Mohr et al., 2004). Besides, it will be impossible to force anybody to identify the problems in their practice and to do the honest self-critical reconsideration. It should be kept in mind that such research will be done by those teachers who feel confident to do so and who work in a supportive environment. This is corroborated by the postulates regarding the emancipating role of such research for the teachers. The analyses of somehow obligatory or compul-

---

6   Such kind of data gathering can lead to the insight into practice or become the source of prejudice. They can be relevant for research if a teacher decide to change *lore* into a research question and investigate it.

7   Some authors make the difference between reflective practice and teacher research (Zeuli, 1992; Zeuli & Tiezzi, 1993, in Vujisić-Živković, 2007). Here, the view of reflection is very narrow: as thinking about own practice and not as an attempt to reconsider, understand and develop own practice by viewing it in the regard to the entire (socio-political) context.

sory teacher research have shown that this can be disruptive factor. For instance, those kinds of researches were the ones given as tasks to student teachers during their initial teacher education. If the research is done with a feeling that it is an imposed requirement or that it is done because of external control or gaining short term interest, the chances that this will contribute to the teachers' development in a proper way are very slim (Cochran-Smith et al, 2009, Stančić, Radulović, Perišić, 2012). Cochran-Smith and associates believe that such situation distanced the researcher from the teacher research purpose and "encouraged a procedural understanding of inquiry", thus they compare such research with "studying for an exam" (Cochran Smith et al, 2009:23).

Ethical characteristic of this research ensues from the fact that the researched problems are always value loaded and that the education requires respect for the basic human values which must not be violated by such research. Teacher researchers must follow in principle the same ethical practices as other educational researchers, meaning that all participants in research must be treated with fairness and respect (Check and Schutt, 2012). The fact that the researchers themselves are the participants in the issue researched may facilitate respect for some ethical principles (for example, those related to attitudes to the teacher). However, this requires a particular attention concerning the confidentiality of information regarding the other participants in educational process (pupils, parents). Due to the specific power relations in the classroom and school, teacher has to be particularly careful not to abuse the data obtained during research when analysing them with the colleagues and the others and in introducing the changes in the practice (Mohr, et al. 2004).

Teachers research are always *contextual* because the teachers research are based on the assumption that those who work in particular contexts have knowledge about both what the problems are and how to solve those problems within that particular context. This kind of research enables to get detailed information from "inside" (because they are done by the participants) and enable teacher researcher to compare the information on actual practice with his/her own intentions, reactions, decisions, and interpretations (Cochran-Smith et al., 2009). Contextuality means that the researcher attempts to take into account the entire context in which s/he does research, to pay attention to it during the research, to develop and reconsider his/her assumptions within the context and to discover the relations within the context (Mohr et al., 2004). Contextuality also means that findings of teacher research are meant to be used within the context in which they were developed (Lytle and Cochran-Smith, 1994). It does not necessarily mean that these findings are not relevant for other context (quite the contrary) but underlines the fact that the purpose of this research is not generalisation.

Social nature and cooperation in teachers' research underlines the necessity of collaboration and the others' perspective to better understand findings and get self-insights. Group discussions and joint data analysis are the methods facilitating achievement of this goal. Therefore, teacher researchers often research together with other researchers, such as other teachers and practitioners, university-based researchers, teacher educators; their teacher colleagues or with their own students.

Teacher research is *public*. M. Cochran –Smith points out that the practitioner inquiry makes the work of teaching and learning public and open to the critique of a larger community (Cochran-Smith et al., 2009:5). M. Mohr highlights this characteristic of teacher research by saying that teachers, when they report on their research, participate in a public discourse (Mohr et al., 2004) and thus contribute to the creation and development of this discourse. This characteristic also indicates both need and opportunity for teachers to exchange their research experiences, present and publish their work at the professional conferences and in professional journals thus making their findings available to the others. Teacher research can "generates both *local knowledge* developed and used by teachers for themselves and their immediate communities as well as *public knowledge* useful to the larger school and university communities, making the teacher research knowledge public knowledge" (Lytle & Cochran-Smith, 1994:30).

In addition to the characteristics of teacher research described above, there is one more element defining them which can be taken as both teacher research characteristic and the precondition for such research. This is the particular research attitude of teacher researcher. According to Cochran–Smith and Lytle, the special stance of teacher to the research and his/her practice is of crucial importance for this kind of research. They define teacher research as "inquiry as stance", as opposed to "inquiry as project" (Cochran–Smith and Lytle, 2009). Teacher research is more than occasional, separated participation in the projects added to the regular work, which requires additional time and assumes that teacher undertakes some research at a certain limited period of time (Cochran–Smith and Lytle, 2009, Curwood, 2011). Contrary to this, teachers research stance assumes his/her continuous and consistent approach to the practice ensuing from the way in which s/he conceptualises practice, his/her role in it, the way of building knowledge on the practice and leading the practice. Teacher research cannot be separated from daily professional activities.[8] Teacher's entire professional work becomes both the field of his/her research through which s/he builds understanding of the practice (theory)

---

8   Similar message is sent by many practitioners and theoreticians interested in teacher research. It is present in this paper motto and in the title of the publication of M.Cochran-Smith and S.L.Lytle from 2009.

and the field of his/her professional development. Such stance cannot be imposed on anybody. To develop research stance and educate teachers as researchers, without sending the message that research are individual isolated activities added to the other teachers' activities, is a serious challenge for the professional education and development of teachers (Cochran-Smith et al., 2009).

What are the Characteristics of the Quality Teacher Research

Besides accounts on the teacher research, there is also a literature on the research of the practitioners' research, their role and scope. One of such research has been done by M.Cohran-Smith and associates. They have tried to identify what distinguishes the successful research from the less quality ones.[9] From the perspective of this paper, besides identifying the characteristics of the quality research to understand the essence of teacher research and the guiding principles for translating this concept into the practice, it is also very important how the quality of teacher research is understood, that is, what are the criteria to assess researches as more or less quality. In this research, criterion was based on how much has the research helped the teachers' researchers (in this case future teachers) to understand the pupils' learning, get insight into their practice and ideas for change.

Having analysed a number of the research in practice, the authors have identified three groups of characteristics that distinguishes the quality of research of teachers and future teachers:

- Type of the initial research question
- A way in which researcher conceptualises students' learning
- A way in which researcher understands nature of the inquiry process (Cochran-Smith et al., 2009).

Research questions are different and can stem from different sources: direct communication with pupils, teachers' reflective notes, scientific research that were inspiring for the researcher. Although any of those sources may be the beginning of the quality research, according to Cochran-Smith and associates, the findings show that the stronger inquiry is embedded within larger theoretical frameworks related to teaching and learning. More precisely, these are the researches stemming from incongruence

9   This is research on process and results of the teacher education program (involving researches done by student teachers) carried out by a group of higher education teachers from Boston College (Cochran-Smith & all, 2009).

between theory and practice or the ones that starts from the problem in practice but integrate experience, beliefs, and theories into a conceptual framework. The existence of such broader framework which some authors call "curricular vision" (Zumwalt, 1989, in Cochran-Smith et al., 2009) or theoretical vision (Cochran-Smith et al., 2009) is the feature of quality research. Such framework links individual problem with understanding of pupils and school and classroom context. It means that the quality teacher research is not reduced to identifying individual techniques – recipes for the short term solution of a problem in a given situation – but also covers the response to the questions what are the sources of problem and why. Starting from such question, teacher researcher discovers elements for understanding and change of practice and clarification of links between his/her beliefs, observations, and theoretical perspective.

The way in which teacher conceptualized and assessed learning and what they counted as evidence of students' learning determines his/her selection of information important for learning and teaching which s/he will gather. According to Cochran-Smith and associates' findings, the quality teacher research is characterised by focusing on the pupils' learning as the final result, thus to the flexible understanding of teaching paying attention to the different levels of learning. Such research will gather various data from different sources: survey, analysis of class questions and comments, student work samples, classroom observations, and journal entries.

The way in which researcher understands the nature of the inquiry process is another characteristic of research influencing how much the researcher will learn from research. Quality research are done by teachers who see the inquiry as constant searching and reconsideration, as "repeated, almost unending process of asking questions, looking carefully at the data of practice, altering practice based on new insights and ideas, asking new questions, and so on" (Cochran-Smith et al., 2009:19). For them, reconsideration and research are "integral and ongoing part of decision making in teaching", that is, integral part of teaching itself (Cochran-Smith et al., 2009).

Instead of Conclusion: Orientation for Action

As already underlined, teacher research is not a rarity today. However, it still does not mean that they are widely accepted as a way of teacher's work. Although teacher research is not equally present in all parts of the world and in all education systems, there is an overall opinion that they are insufficiently present in practice. Regarding Serbian education practice, such researches are an exemption. Having in mind that encouraging,

developing and implementing teacher research in practice assumes facing dilemmas, solving problems, avoiding and overcoming possible deviations, we shall try to present several key findings on the teacher research ensuing from the above discussion, which, in our opinion, may be a kind of landmark and assistance in this process:

Teacher research assumes that the teachers – practitioners are also researchers who in the research process represent both sources of knowledge, learners and researchers (Cochran–Smith and Lytle 2009). Understanding teaching process and activities in the school, getting insight into own practice, developing ideas for change and professional development are unavoidable consequences of such research. Practical work is lead by research through which teachers learn, that is develop professionally, therefore boundaries between practice, research and professional development are erased.

Teacher research assumes teacher research stance, that is, a particular attitude of teacher to the practice and to the research. This stance calls for the specific teacher's identity based on the understanding that research is inseparable part of the practical work and takes place in the continuity with the practice. This identity also means that the competent teacher identifies problems, looks for the solutions and learns from teaching. Such stance cannot be imposed externally and the lack of teacher's autonomy and bureaucratisation of his/her professional work are counterproductive.

Teacher research is a process whose integral parts are critical reconsideration, understanding and change of practice. The change can happen in different areas – change of practitioners' understandings, change on micro, mezzo or macro level of practice. Changes on different levels are inter-connected, even inseparable, thus the real professional development process in a way represents a process of institutional and social changes. Critique and change are inherent to this kind of research. Therefore, they do not deal only with the question "how" but also with "what" and "why" questions.

Teacher research may start from different research questions that may arise from the observations in daily practice or the perception of incongruence between practical and theoretical knowledge. Many authors insist on exploring the problems that lead to raising the awareness of and change of unjust social relations in education. However, the most important is that the research question is relevant for the researcher and perceived by him/her as such.

Teacher research can differ in the methods of data gathering and processing. Although there are many kinds of teacher research (from self-exploration to the action research), they are always systematic monitoring, analysis and social action.

Taking teacher researcher role and establishing the education system in which teacher research is not an exemption is not an easy endeavour. This requires engagement of all actors – from education policy makers, teacher educators at universities and those involved into teachers' continuous professional development, to school principles, professional associates and the teachers in schools. This calls for much more than introducing small changes based on the new findings or popular ideas – it assumes a new identity of teaching profession and a serious cultural change.

References:

Anderson, G. L., Herr, K., & Nihlen, A. S. (2007). *Studing your own School: An educator's guide to Practitioner Action Research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: CorwinPress, London: Sage Publications.

Check, J., & Schutt, R. K. (2012). *Research Methods in Education*. Boston: University of Masacusets.

Cochran-Smith, M., & Lytle, S. L. (1999). The Teacher Research Movement: A Decade Later. *Educational Researcher*, 28 (7), pp.15–25.

Cochran-Smith, M., & Lytle, S. L. (2009). *Inquiry as stance: Practitioner research for the next generation*. New York: Teachers College Press.

Cochran-Smith, M., et al. (2009). Inquiry on Inquiry: Practitioner Research and Students' Learning. In E. Pultorak (Ed.), *Research on Teacher Reflectivity: The Impact on Teaching and Learning*. Boston: Boston College.

Curwood, J. S. (2011). Teachers as Learners: What makes technology – focused professional development effective? *English in Australia*, 46(3), pp. 68–75.

Elliott, J. (2001). *Action Research For Educational Change*. Philadelphia: Open University Press.

Fecho, B. (2011). *Teaching for the students, Habits of heart, mind and Practice in the Engaged Classroom*. New York and Berkeley: Teachers College Press.

Lytle, S. L, & Cochran-Smith, M. (1994). Inquiry, knowledge, and practice. In S. Hollingsworth & H. Sockett (Eds.), *Teacher research and educational reform: Ninety-third yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press,.

McLaren, P. (2012). Multikulturalizam i postmoderna kritika: ka pedagogiji otpora i preobražaja [Multiculturalism and postmodern critique: Towards pedagogy of resistance and change]. In D. Ilić (Ed.), *Obrazovanje za demokratiju* [Education for democracy]. Beograd: Fabrika knjiga.

Moon, J. A. (2004). *Reflection in Learning end Professional Devvelopment*. London and New York: RoutledgeFalemer.

Myers, M. (1985). *The Teacher-Researcher: How to Study Writing in the Classroom*. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.

Mohr, M., et al. (2004). *Teacher research for better schools*. New York; London: Teachers College.

Pešić, M. (1998). *Istraživanja praktičara* [Practitioners' research]. In M. Pešić (Ed.), Pedagogija u akciji [Pedagogy in action]. Beograd: IPA, Filozofski fakultet.

Radulović, L., (2011). *Obrazovanje nastavnika za refleksivnu praksu* [Educating Teachers for Reflective Practice]. Beograd: Filozofski fakultet.

Stančić, M., Radulović, L., & Perišić, M. (2012). Fostering student teachers' self-reflectivity by using concept mapping. In M. Orel (Ed.) *International Conference »Modern Approaches to Teaching Coming Generation«*. Ljubljana: EDUvision, 6–7.12.2012, pp.12–22.

Stenhouse, L. (1985). *Research as a basis for teaching*. London: Heinemann.

Vujisić-Živković, N. (2007). Pedagoška istraživanja i obrazovanje nastavnika [Pedagogical researches and teacher education]. *Zbornik Instituta za pedagoška istraživanja* [Journal of the Institute for Educational Research]. Vol. 39, 2, pp.243–258.

*Aleksandra Ilić-Rajković, Ivana Luković**

Autobiography in Educational Research

The scientific interest in autobiographies in the past few decades is getting wider, and it ranges from the theory of literature, through social sciences, to medicine and pharmacy. In this paper, we present autobiographies and their role in educational researches. At the beginning, we consider two questions: what is an autobiography and how autobiography became the subject of research interest? In the second part, we consider the different views on autobiography in the light of methodology of educational research. The central part of paper is focused on autobiography and its potential for application in educational research. We ascertain that there are two standpoints: autobiography as a document about one's life and socio-historical context, and secondly, autobiography as a process which leads to certain research and educational goals. The writing of autobiography can be seen as self reflective process or reconstruction of the past experiences. Author of autobiography is not only describing his life, process of his upbringing and education, but he is also evaluating it, trying to give an answer to the question "how did I become what I am?". Education has its place in the answer to this question. Autobiography gives researcher an opportunity to examine the educational process from the perspective of the central subject in that process.

Key words: autobiography as a document, autobiography as a process, methodology of educational research.

William P. Scagill's book *The Autobiography of Dissenting Minister*, written in 1834, is considered to be the first autobiography, while some authors mark the beginning of the autobiographical prose with the Jean-Jacques Rousseau's *Confessions* in 1760. Also listed are *Confessions* by St.

---

*   University of Belgrade, Faculty of Philosophy, Belgrade, Serbia

Augustine, Plato's work *Seventh letter* and so on. Autobiography, in fact, was possible when a man became aware of himself and his past, and it was created when it was recorded for the very fist time (Gusdorf, 1980). Indicated disagreements regarding the dating of the first autobiographies illustrate the variety of approaches to this thematic which eludes theoretical attempts of defining and classifying it (Olney, 1980; Grdinić, 2003). Despite of these disagreements, the extent of scientific interest in autobiographies in the past few decades is getting wider, and it ranges from the theory of literature, through social sciences, to medicine and pharmacy.

What is an autobiography?

In 1971 Philip Lejeune published and explained so far one of the most cited and also most disputed definition of autobiography. The standpoint of this author about the "autobiography's pact" was considered as a significant contribution to the theory of autobiography. Lejeune defines autobiography as a retrospective narrative prose of a real person about his own life, with the highlight on his personal life, especially the history of his personality (Lejeune, 2009). Every autobiography is distinguished by the hero of the story, the writing technique or style and the topic. In an autobiography, the main character has the same name as the author but they don't share the same time or the space. The style is what will give the certain elements of the story more space, determine the dimension of the events which are presented, and introduce the tone and metaphors. The topic relates to ideas and beliefs, which are giving the meaning to the autobiography and which can come from the authors personal philosophy, religious beliefs, political or social stands. In the broadest sense, the topic of the autobiography is life as it can't finish with the death (Howarth, 1974).

With the "autobiography's pact" the author commits to tell his life story, or respectively an aspect of his life, correctly and truthfully (Lejeune, 2009). However, this agreement is difficult to achieve by the author because between "I the storyteller" and "I the narrator" stands the lees of time, experience and knowledge which makes them significantly different (Duvnjak Radić, 2011). During his life, the individual does not always perceive the causes and consequences of his actions. He is rarely capable of noticing the continuity of the lifetime experience. When writing the autobiography he defines that continuity, connects the events and moulds the life as an autoportrait which, however, is not identical to the original. In that sense, autobiography is not "factually" correct (Howarth,

1974; Grdinić, 2003). From the sum of everything that makes the reality of the authors life, he chooses only certain people, situations and events, shapes them linguistically, organizes them meaningfully and builds his inner world.

How did autobiography become the subject of research interest?

The answer to question "how autobiography became the subject of research interest" in social sciencies, is offered by Olney (1980), approaching it nominally and reviewing it from a historical perspective. He says that the term autobiography contains three elements: autos – self, bios – life, graphos – writing, relating few general questions with them. Those questions are related to the definition of the above mentioned elements as well as on the establishing the effects that has the very act (graphos) of writing – transforming the life into the text. Historically, the focus of the researcher was first on the bios – autobiography was understood as a life history of an individual shown from his own perspective (Olney, 1980). Thus, autobiography represents the source of information relevant to the author's biography, for other characters connected to him, as well as for the historical context. Autos was understood neutrally, meaning that the author of autobiography was taken as a neutral observer of his own life. However, under the influences of changes in the epistemology of the social sciences in the middle of the 20th century, and highlighting the role that individual has in creating his own life, the focus of the research was changed from element bios to the element autos, and autobiography became the field of interest for the researches from almost all of the areas of social sciences. Likewise, the writing of autobiography was not "reserved" anymore for the historically significant individuals, but for anyone who can make the retrospective of his own life and it can be used in research purposes. In this respect, the third element graphos became important. The writing about one's own life became the subject of study, and therefore the interest for the studying the autobiographical process.

For example, in theory and methodology of historiography arises the question about the role of autos or self of the researcher in the writing about history (Aurell, 2006). Psychologists from phenomenological and existential perspective are trying to explain self which defines himself through the process of writing an autobiography (Folkenflik, 1993). Literary theoreticians, beside a number of other questions, study the relation between an autobiographical fiction and childhood in the works of writ-

ers (Brajović 2006; King 2009). In the past few decades, autobiographical material was accepted as relevant for the feminist studies, studies of race, media and postcolonial studies as it enables the researcher with "the inside look", into the experience which an individual gains in certain social and cultural context, especially as a member of marginalized social group. In the field of educational research, autobiographies are studied because of their informativeness in pedagogical sense, but as well as stimulus towards self-reflection, reconstruction of experience and respectively as a form of the transformative learning.

The ways of defining the role of autobiography in educational research

The first reflections of autobiographies in pedagogical context came from the theory of literacy and the standpoint about their pedagogical role. Namely, Howarth (1974), discussing the goals of writing autobiographies, defines the two pedagogical roles of an author of autobiography: as a narrator, he gives the reader the lesson about life, and as a protagonist, he learns on his mistakes. It can be said that the common goal of authors of autobiographies is to picture their life worth of living. Although the goal with which the author approaches the writing does not have to be pedagogical, undoubtedly most of them want the readers to "learn" something on their example. The reader too can have the intention to find in the autobiography an "information", "advice", "referent experience", "final solution" which could help him solve some dilemmas he has in a certain part of his life.

Perceived from the aspect of methodology of educational researches, and in the context of previously shown actual standpoints in social sciences, the position of autobiography is significantly complex. In educational researches autobiographies can find a very diverse use, but their significance and role is differently determined depending on the methodological approach of the researcher. In the researches of the social reality autobiography is often defined as a method of research (Šušnjić, 1999; Fajgelj, 2004). Considering the inconsistency among the researchers in the filed of social sciences about the differences between the scientific methods and techniques, one could encounter some different views according to which autobiographies could be defined as a scientific technique. If it is spoken about the method as a "tool or aid" which is used towards the path of knowledge (Šušnjić, 1999), autobiographies would belong to the group of methods which are more appropriate for the research of the inner experi-

ence i.e. subjective experience. If the "tool or aid" was considered to be a research technique (Bandjur and Potkonjak, 1999), then autobiographies as such would respond the historical and analytical research methods.

It is sometimes spoken about autobiographies as a kind of research which as such, could include more different methods and techniques for understanding the facts about the social reality. For example, Halmi (2005) in his classification of historical researches in applied social sciences differs: 1. biographies, autobiographies, historical institutions and social movements; 2. synthesis, comparison and forecast of future trends; 3. revisionist history. Autobiographies are therefore categorized in the first type of historical researches, which are also considered the most common type of historical studies. These types of researches are helping us understand how and why did appear some social movements, institutions or events from distant or recent past, and to evaluate their meaning for the contemporary science and practice, believes Halmi.

In addition, the autobiography in educational research will be presented with dual role. Initially, autobiography will be presented as a document written as a testimony of one's life, and secondly as a process which leads to certain educational and research goals. This division is inspired by current theoretical considerations in social science.

An autobiography as a document and an autobiography as a process in educational research

Autobiography as a document. Autobiography observed as a report about someone's life usually is "relatively formal document which author has written thinking about what the audience will say" (Good and Scates, 1967: 591). As such, autobiographies are considered relevant for historical and educational researches, and are observed as a source of data about the problems in history. Autobiographies are a source which shows author's spontaneity, immediacy, honesty, personal standpoints, and these can be considered as their special values (Bandjur and Potkonjak, 1999). Also, many phenomena in the protégés personality become available only with the use of introspection (Mužić, 1981) where autobiographies can find their place.

The examples of the use of autobiographies as a source in research of history of education are represented in the research of Burnett (1982a; 1982b) and Fortna (2001). Burnett described experiences shown in unpublished autobiographical records about the schooling in England in the 19th century. Fortna was studying published autobiographies from the late

Ottoman Empire, which are, on one side, rich with information and on the other diverse in form, style, topics. He grouped the data from these autobiographies around few themes: family and the home environment; movement from home to school; school life; language and culture. These authors, studying already existing autobiographical records were mostly concentrated on process of description of source. Obtained data they used for definition of schooling in the given historical contexts which should be examined further.

The example of an autobiography as a document represents the autobiography of Frank Spalding (Good and Scates, 1967). Spalding described his educational history, from his early life, to doctors dissertation at the Leipzig university, and a year after the doctorate which he spent at the Clark University. Spalding, beside that, described the use of his pedagogical principles at five different schools at which he worked over 25 years. From the point of the history of pedagogy, this is a rich source of data about schooling system and teaching methods at that time.

From the point of quantitative methodological orientation in education, autobiography as an account of someone's life and context has a number of significant limitations. First of all, the individual is "weak observer of himself" and often not being capable of being objective in describing the motives of his acts. It also happens that the examinee from the few truthful facts about him, chooses just the one, for which he thinks is most appropriate, which in a certain way can be considered as insincerity (Mužić, 1981). Quite often that information is hard to check, because there are no other sources of information. The sources of partiality with authors of autobiographies can be various. The author might unconsciously distort the information – for example, in the process of forgetting things; some details might be intentionally left out; certain information author may find implying and are therefore left out. In order to check the validity of the personal history, Plamer (1983; according to: Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007) suggests next steps: examinee should give his own comment on the personal history as a final product; personal history can be compared with official records in order to validate the truthfulness of information; comparison of personal history can be made with similar written sources, by identifying main overlapping points and differences; comparison can also be achieved by interviewing other people.

If it is spoken about autobiography as a source of data, technique used for analysing the content is the content analysis. The analysis unit can be autobiography as "natural environment" like a movie or a picture (Havelka, Kuzmanović and Popadić, 1998). However, the statements can be also analysed (the ones not necessarily coinciding with the sentences)

or themes which autobiography contains. Global approach is more useful, but is also unreliable because many of researchers find it very hard to reach an agreement about the number and type of message that text sends to the reader. As the units of the analysis have been set, it is approached then to their classification into previously given categories. Type and number of categories depends on the subject of research. The main disadvantages of the data obtained by content analysis are their validity and their reliability. For example, complex semantic analysis is pretty unreliable because there can be as many interpretations as there are valuators. It can also happen that the same evaluator after a certain amount of time singles out completely different units of analysis and classifies them into different categories (Havelka, Kuzmanović and Popadić, 1998).

Mentioned deficiencies refer to already published autobiographies which are considered as the source of information. However, research that has a goal in collecting the data through autobiographies and where writing was made with researcher's instructions can minimize these deficiencies, what Griffiths and MacLeod (2008) tried to prove. They considered the possible contribution of the research of autobiographies for creating the educational policy. Next to explanation of the personal experience of education, autobiographies can contribute to defining the certain, hidden problems as well as different ways of resolving them through educational policy, and at the end understanding the core of education. According to authors, analysis of an autobiography enables understanding of complexity of the human behaviour in social context and the important role of social institutions in its structure. Autobiographies which are applicable in above mentioned purpose should meet seven conditions, which are extensively discussed by these authors: truthfulness, representativeness, representation, re-framing of the matter at hand, genre, literary quality, and reflexivity. They also cite a number of questions which can be relevant in this type of research. Some problems are especially suitable for the studying of autobiographies: a) studying of experiences of groups on the margins of educational system, in particular the ones which experiences are crossed with few factors of marginalisation; b) autobiographies are suitable for longitudinal studies where changes are monitored in the constriction of certain questions from level to level of education and life of an individual; c) autobiographies enable a number of different quantitative studies.

Qualitative research, narative research and autobiography. In qualitative and methodological context, however, previously mentioned limitations can be considered a challenge. Qualitative researches study the subjects in historical and social context with a goal of understanding and

interpreting the meaning of their works, events and everyday experiences (Halmi, 2005). Although the qualitative researches can be very different amongst themselves, based on different theoretical views and with different paradigmatic frameworks, nevertheless they all have a few common forms: the basic epistemological principle of qualitative research is understanding; starting pointing of the research is reconstruction of the case study; the foundation of research is construction of the social reality, and the text is the main empirical material. In the qualitative research, the researcher is "measuring instrument" and analysis comes down to the word analysis (Milas, 2005). Qualitative research postulates that human acts have a meaning, and that humans act on the basis of that meaning. The goal of qualitative research is to find out this exact meaning. To this type of research, one approaches with the assumption that nothing is meaningless, and records every detail. The detailed approach is needed in order to gain the complete understanding of your surroundings and to reflect correctly the complexity of the human behaviour (Milas, 2005; Savićević, 2011).

Typical examples of the qualitative methods are methods which result is the story or narration. Narrations do not contain the variables which can be shown as changeable and there is no measurement in them. Thus, narration as a qualitative method is the most distant from quantitative methods (Fajgelj, 2004).

The interest in narrative research brought the so called "linguistic turn" which happened in social sciences in the eighties (Halmi, 2005). The narrative turnover was hinted, among others, by Bruner's book "Act of Meaning" published in 1990. In this book, Bruner proved that there are two ways of thinking: paradigmatic and narrative. Paradigmatic thinking is a scientific method based on specific classification and categorisation which guides the scientific research. Narrative approach, however, governs interpretations of the everyday world into a form of a story. Narrative theory has a different view of knowledge in regard to positivistic view. This time, knowledge is created in self's interaction, culture and world around us, rather than beyond experienced and social framework. Narrative has liberating function as it encourages the respondent to present his opinion, suggests that our lives can be re conceptualized and supports the variety of perspectives.

Autobiographies have narrative form and their analysis can be observed as narrative analysis. While content analysis refers to already told narrative, narrative analysis uses narration for obtaining and presenting the knowledge (Fajgelj, 2004). In the field of social sciences, a significant number of approaches is noticeable to narrative analysis (Pavlović,

Džinović and Milošević, 2006). One of the especially interesting approaches is Polkinghorne's one. According to his standpoint, narrative analysis can be done in two ways: paradigmatically and narratively. Paradigmatic analysis of narration goes from stories, their common elements or topics, towards characters or contexts, in order to come to the general concepts. Narrative type of research uses the plot to connect individual experiences and make a context for the understanding of the meaning. The plot is the link which connects events into a story and the development of the narrative has following steps: a) description of the cultural context where the story takes place; b) characteristics of the main character in the plot; c) identification of other characters which have significant influence on main character, as well as demonstration of their mutual relationship; d) focus on the main character's actions in order to reach certain goals; e) paying attention to the previous experiences considering that they are manifested in the present; f) production of the story in a certain timeline; g) developing the plot which helps to connect the different information and explains the reactions of the main character (Pokinghorne, 1995; according to: Pavlović, Džinović and Milošević, 2006).

Autobiography as a process. Henry Adams (1838–1918), grandson of the American president John Quincy Adams, wrote an autobiographical work *The Education of Henry Adams*, officially published in 1918. In the book, Adams describes his education at the turn of the 19th to 20th century. As he had a possibility for education at the most prestigious universities around the world, in his autobiography Adams has a critical relationship towards schooling systems in European countries, America and Russia at that time. Purposefulness of the educational systems he assessed according to applicability of the knowledge gained in schools in everyday life. When it first appeared, Adams' autobiography drew a great deal of attention, mostly as it depicted the intellectual and political life at the end of the 19th century. A year after the publication, the book got the Pulitzer's prize. Literary critics of the second half of the 20th century, however, assessed it as "unsuccessful" (Renza, 1977). The main reason for such evaluation was a fact that a major part of Adams' life was not portrayed at all, and the search of the author for the "good" education, which motivated Adams to write this book, turned into a search for his own identity. This conclusion imposes next question: is the autobiography only a report about our past experience or can it be something more that just that? The example of Adams' autobiography takes us into a discussion about autobiography as a process.

Autobiography according to Bruner (1987; 1993) is not a report about the life lived, but also represents construction and reconstruction of ex-

periences. "Like all forms of interpretation, how we construct our lives is subject to our intentions, to the interpretive conventions available to us, and to the meanings imposed by the usages of our culture and language" (Bruner, 1993: 40). The proper human development implies the need for the reflective approach to our own "I", the need to explain ourselves, our actions and their influences on others from an early age. Therefore, points Burner, autobiography is a "natural need" of an individual.

Every autobiographical reconfiguration of life is not really a question of new discoveries in archaeological records of our experiences, nor is the revival of the previously "hidden" memory content, but is a narrative processing along different interpretation lines (Bruner, 1993). In the process of writing an autobiography comes the change in relationship towards some contents from the previous life – what was not important to us before now can represent something new.

When autobiography is approached with this theoretical point of view, and in the context of educational problematic, the researcher gets the chance to examine the educational process from the perspective of the central subject in that process, who is not only describing this process, but is also evaluating it, from the earliest memory to the day of writing. With the act of autobiographical writing, individual makes the report about his own research with a goal to give himself and the readers an answer to the question "how did I become what I am?" Education has its place in the answer to this question. When we understand the education as constant construction and reconstruction of experiences with the aim of further increase of experiences then the analysis of the message became important for educational research. These are messages which author of autobiography – protégés received from his surroundings, which moulded his experience. Now, from a certain time distance, by writing his autobiography author comprehends and interprets this messages as important.

In the light of such a standpoint about a man and his education, it is spoken about autobiographies as means of reconstruction of the past experiences; as a mean of development. Writing of autobiography encourages us to look back on our life and to indicate the change in the future. In this respect, the authors of autobiographies are no longer the individuals in mature age: they can be pupils, students, teachers, the people of any age thinking about their future (Karpiak, 2010).

Irene Karpiak, professor of transformative learning and the leader of courses about narration and autobiography at Oklahoma University, has researched life stories of her students for ten years. Karpiak (2010) concludes that autobiographies helped her to get to know her students better; she found out a lot about the human nature and behaviour in par-

ticular situations; she received the answer to the question she wouldn't think of asking them herself. Revisiting the previous experiences, students searched for the meaning of their experiences and reconstructed them from the current point of view. When these reconstructions are concerning the reconstruction of former beliefs and assumptions, whether they were private ones or socially defined, transformative learning occurs. The aim of this learning is to build better integrated and more inclusive view of the world (Mezirow 1991; according to: Karpiak, 2010).

It can be concluded that Karpiak shows autobiography as a research and teaching method, because the accent is on the process of learning, and this time it is learning about us and others. The writing of a lifetime story, above all, is observed as a process which has its duration and passes through the stages through which the teacher follows his students. The guidelines point the students to think and evaluate their earliest experiences, to connect the childhood events with the later events in their lives, to remember the members of their families and the upbringing they had, to review the boundaries of their choices that are limiting their freedom. In that matter, the writing of autobiography can stimulate us, according to evaluation of the past to build the theory of our experience and to initiate the change in our future.

This kind of approach, in the context of the education and the research of teacher's education, was explained previously by Griffiths (1995). She points to validity of the personal experience "in thinking about theories or reflecting on their own practice" (Griffiths, 1995: 76). The teaching method and research method at the same time results with the new knowledge that has to take into consideration a few factors: personal experience, theory, time needed for the process of reflection and reconstruction and perspectives of different politically oriented groups. Autobiography, believes this author, is technique and method at the same time, which enables that kind of study and research. "In autobiography, theory may be reinterpreted in the light of experience, and experience in the light of theory" (Griffiths, 1995: 87). It cannot however, be considered that every autobiography is a source of knowledge in that matter. Besides the named author, Bruner (1987) also thinks that autobiography in which the author just makes series of information is of limited usability in the research. What makes autobiography epistemologically valuable is the time as the topic as well as the theory about our own past and experience.

Therefore, writing autobiographies can be very valuable – it spurs the development of self esteem, authenticity, cognitive consciousness, professional development, freedom of choices and procedures; will to start over the evaluation of the starting assumptions, prejudice and complete truth (Michelson, 2011).

Conclusion

With its dual role in the field of educational researches, autobiography shows how difficult it is to strictly divide qualitative and quantitative research, empirical and theoretical. An autobiography can be seen both as a document about the past, the method of research, technique or kind of research, as well as the teaching method. No matter the difference in approach, autobiography is the "means" which helps a human to solve specific theoretical and practical problems, and with all right can be included in the treasury of human knowledge (Šušnjić, 1999). Autobiographies have their own pedagogical dimension; their authors wish to share their experiences with their readers, so we can learn on their examples (Schlumbohm, 1998). Autobiography is rich in information about the process of education in the past, the school system, teaching process and the roles of their actors in these processes. But that is not all. From autobiography as a document we can move to autobiography as a process. The writing of autobiography can be seen as self reflective process, reconstruction of the past experiences, or transformative learning respectively. In the field of social sciences reflective analysis threatens to take over the place that objectivity had in the previous times (Pavlović, 2008). The beginning of the 21st century is marked with aspiration towards individuality, towards diversity, towards self actualisation. On this road, the writing of the life story can be the step worth taking.

References:

Adams, H. (1918). *The Education of Henry Adams (e-book)*. Retrieved from http://www.gutenberg.org/files/2044/old/eduha10h.htm. October, 8th, 2013.

Aurell, J. (2006). Autobiography as Unconventional History: Constructing the Author. *Rethinking History*. Vol. 10, No. 3, 433 – 449.

Banđur, V. i N. Potkonjak (1999). *Metodologija pedagogije*. Beograd: Savez pedagoških društava Jugoslavije.

Brajović, J. (2006). *Autobiografska fikcija i detinjstvo*. Beograd: Zadužbina Andrejević.

Bruner, J. (1993). The Autobiographycal process; in R. Folkenflik (ed.): *The Culture of Autobiography* (38–56). Stanford: Stanford University Press.

Bruner, J. (1987). *Life as Narrative. Social Research*. Vol 54, No.1,11–32.

Burnett, J. (1982a). Autobiographies of Childhood – the Experience of Education. *History Today*. Vol. 32, No. 9, 8–13.

Burnett, J. (1982b). Autobiographies of Childhood – the Experience of Education. *History Today*. Vol. 32, No. 10, 23–31.

Cohen, L., L. Manion, i K. Morrison (2004). *Metode istraživanja u obrazovanju*. Zagreb: Naklada Slap.

Duvnjak Radić, Ž. (2011). *Autobiografija, fikcija i ja*. Beograd: Službeni glasnik.

Fajgelj, S. (2004). *Metode istraživanja ponašanja*. Beograd: Centar za primenjenu psihologiju.

Folkenflik, R. (ed.) (1993). *The Culture of Autobiography*. Stanford: Stanford University Press.

Fortna, B. C. (2001). Education and Autobiography at the End of the Ottoman Empire. *Die Welt des Islams*. Vol. 41, No. 1, 1–31.

Good, C. V. i D. E. Scates (1967). *Metode istraživanja u pedagogiji, psihologiji i sociologiji*. Rijeka: Otokar Keršovani.

Grdinić, N. (2003). Autobiografija – problemi proučavanja. *Zbornik Matice srpske za književnost i jezik*. Vol. 51, br. 3, 665–674.

Griffits, M. & G. MacLeod (2008). Personal Narratives and Policy: Never the Twain? *Journal of Philosophy of Education*. Vol. 42, No. S1, 2008, 121–143.

Griffits, M. (1995). (Auto)biography and epistemology. *Educational Review*. Vol. 47, No. 1, 75–89.

Gusdorf, G. (1980). Conditions and limits of autobiography; in J. Olney (ed.): *Autobiography: Essays theoretical and critical* (28–48). Princeton: Princeton University Press.

Halmi, A. (2005). *Strategije kvalitativnih istraživanja u primijenjenim društvenim znanostima*. Jastrebarsko: Naklada Slap.

Havelka, N., B. Kuzmanović i D. Popadić (1998). *Metode i tehnike socijalnopsiholoških istraživanja*. Beograd: Centar za primenjenu psihologiju Društva za psihologiju Srbije.

Howarth, W. L. (1974). Some Principles of Autobiography. *New Literary History*. Vol. 5, No. 2, 363–381.

Karpiak, I. (2010). After life review: autobiography as 'art of the future'. *Studies in Continuing Education*. Vol. 32, No. 1, 47–60.

King, N. (2009). Uses of the past: Hindsight and the representation of childhood in some recent British academic autobiography. *Rethinking History*. Vol. 13, No. 1, March 2009, 95–108.

Ležen, F. (2009). Autobiografski sporazum, dvadeset pet godina kasnije. *Polja – časopis sa književnost i teoriju*. Vol. LIV, br. 459, 44–54.

Michelson, E. (2011). Autobiography and Selfhood in the Practice of Adult Learning. *Adult Education Quarterly*. Vol. 61, No. 1, 3–21.

Milas, G. (2005). *Istraživačke metode u psihologiji i drugim društvenim znanostima*. Jastrebarsko: Naklada Slap.

Mužić, V. (1981). *Metodologija pedagoškog istraživanja*. Sarajevo: Zavod za izdavanje udžbenika.

Olney, J. (1980). Autobiography and the Cultural Moment: A Thematic, Historical, and Bibliographic Introduction; in J. Olney (ed.): *Autobiography: Essays theoretical and critical* (4–27). Princeton: Princeton University Press.

Pavlović, J. (2008). Istraživač kao sagovornik: uvažavanjem priča ka transformaciji praksi; u D. Stojnov (ur.): **Metateorijske osnove kvalitativnih istraživanja** (219–237). Beograd: Zepter Book World.

Pavlović, J., V. Džinović i N. Milošević (2006). Teorijske pretpostavke diskurzivnih i narativnih pristupa u psihologiji. *Psihologija*. Vol. 39, No.4, 365–381.

Renza, L. A. (1977). The Veto of the Imagination: A Theory of Autobiography. *New Literary History*. Vol. 9, No. 1, 1–26.

Savićević, D. (2011). *Uvod u metodologiju andragogije*. Vršac: Visoka škola strukovnih studija za obrazovanje vaspitača „Mihailo Palov“.

Schlumbohm, J. (1998). Constructing Individuality: Childhood Memories in Late Eighteenth-century 'Empirical Psychology' and Autobiography. *German History*. Vol. 16 No. 1, 29–42.

Šušnjić, Đ. (1999). *Metodologija*. Beograd: Čigoja štampa.

Branka Aleksendrić, Mirjana Senić-Ružić[*]

Self-Assessment Serving the Purpose of Improving the Quality of Education

In this paper self-assessment is considered in the context of the latest findings in the field of assessment, and as one of the elements for considering the quality of education. At first, different conceptualizations of self-assessment are described, and in that context its relation to the processes of self-evaluation, self-monitoring, self-reflection and self-regulation. Next, we described two models of self-assessment which are developed under the influence of some ideas of critical pedagogy in terms of the purpose, subject and function of assessment. The techniques of self-assessment that have found their use in the teaching practice are presented separately. In the end, the overview of different research about students' and teachers' understandings and experiences of self-assessment is provided. Those data present the inner evaluation of self-assessment practices and show that the main purpose of self-assessment is still not fully recognized and understandable to teachers and students.

Key words: self-assessment, concepts, models and techniques of self-assessment, students' and teachers' understandings and experiences of self-assessment.

Introduction

There is a dynamic discussion being led worldwide about education and the quality of education at all levels. The main purpose of the reform processes is to improve the quality of education and to adjust it to the con-

---

[*]   University of Belgrade, Faculty of Philosophy, Belgrade, Serbia

temporary requirements for the development of the society and individuals. Instead of the narrow, partial changes at different levels and in different segments of educational process, the tendency towards global and holistic solutions puts the assessment in the centre of educational policy. Assessment is seen not only as one of the areas of evaluation of education quality, but also as a developmental component of educational system, as a way of reforming education and insuring the quality of educational process (Carless et al., 2006; Mitrović, 2012; Shay, Jawits, 2005); as a lens through which all the significant educational questions are being reflected. The action of participants in the process of evaluation, power relations in education and respective students' position and role in the process of teaching, sharing responsibility for the achieved quality of learning, are just some of the themes that dominate all the discussions about the quality of education and educational reforms.

The formation and the development of different understandings of assessment, as well as the development and the implementation of different specific models of students involvement in the process of assessment, points to the continuing need for reviewing the theoretical approaches to education and learning, which are their basis. The constant need for improving the quality of education and learning resulted in a multiplication of educational conceptions, learning theories and teaching models. With that reference, during 20th century, appeared a wide spectrum of ideas about assessment and different visions about what it should be like. Some approaches and assessment models appeared in this period and they are still present today in many educational practices; on the other hand there is a tendency to use other approaches in the form of reform processes, while examining their effectiveness.

Some of the old ideas about the nature of assessment are still present and actual today. While planning the teaching process, assessment is usually neglected. Assessment is planned in the end, after the goals, teaching methods, activities of teachers and students have been elaborated. The most common practice is to list the ways of assessment which should later be rethought and elaborated. Assessment is understood only as an activity of a teacher who individually decides about what, how and when he/she will make the assessment. The review of long-term orientation only towards assessing the learning outcomes and the dominant role of the teacher in the process of assessment, resulted in reopening some key questions like: why the assessment is made, what should be assessed, how and when to assess, who should assess, what are the effects of assessment in terms of the process and the quality of students learning. Some of the answers to these questions, among others, are reflected in advocating the develop-

ment of authentic assessment, involving students in the assessment process and enhancing his/her position as a subject in that process, developing autonomy and self-directivity in learning, taking responsibility for his/her own learning and development. In creating and promoting such a culture of assessment, the key role is given to self-assessment.

In this paper we wish to enlighten some of the actual perspectives and beliefs about the role that self-assessment can have in everyday teaching practice. In trying to provide the integrated and holistic view on self-assessment, we will firstly describe several different authentic concepts and practices of self-assessment. Then we will direct our attention towards experiences, ideas, concerns and expectations of students and teachers regarding self-assessment.

Conceptualizations, models and techniques of self-assessment

Under the influence of some ideas of critical pedagogy and practical attempts of changing practice of assessment in a way that it basically serves every student and his/her learning, self-assessment is put in the middle of many authors' interests. In contemporary literature in this area, different conceptions, models and techniques can be found. They all reflect specific assumptions about the understanding of quality in education, the nature of knowledge and learning, the goals and objectives that should be reached through education, about power relations and position of students in the teaching process. In practice, the idea of self-assessment has evolved from trying to find different ways of its realization within existing models of teaching, to the extent that being under the influence of new knowledge about learning, new teaching models have been created, within which assessment is seen as a dynamic and authentic process, and involving students in the process of assessment and developing the skill of self-assessment is seen as the ultimate goal.

The word *assessment* comes from the Latin word "*assidere*" which means "to sit by or near to" (Latin Dictionary) and clearly leads us to reconsider the traditional practice of assessment, where the assessment is seen only as an activity that takes place over the students and that is the responsibility of the teachers. For that reason, many authors (Black, Wiliam, 1998; Boud, 1992; Joyce et al., 2009) agree that self-assessment is neither a luxury nor a simple addition to the existing assessment techniques, but rather a basic means for developing autonomy, meta-cognitive skills and self-directivity in students' learning.

Self-assessment is described in similar ways. It is a way of sharing responsibility and power between teachers and students for the process and outcomes of learning; a way of sharing ownership over assessment (Gipps, 1999). Bourke and Mentis (Bourke, Mentis, 2007) describe self-assessment as a way of gaining authorship over our own learning experiences, as making our own story by which we tell others and learn ourselves about our skills, knowledge, needs, beliefs and interactions. Brew (Brew, 1999) sees self-assessment as a main driving force for changing power and authority relations in the classroom.

The defining characteristics of self-assessment are described as: "[...] the involvement of students in identifying standards and/or criteria to apply to their work and making judgements about the extent to which they have met these criteria and standards" (Boud, 1994; cited in: Joyce et al., 2009: 2). The same author adds that in creating criteria for assessment other students and teachers can be involved, but the process of outcomes assessment should remain an individual activity of the student. While considering self-assessment, some authors consider in parallel the processes of self-evaluation, self-monitoring, self-reflection and self-regulation. Brew (Brew, 1999) states that there is a close correlation between reflection and self-assessment, because they are both focused on learning experience, while all self-assessment involves reflection, but not all reflection necessarily leads to self-assessment. In fact, this author associates self-assessment with the formal learning context and evaluation of achievements, which are expressed through predefined learning outcomes. Boud explains the same difference (Boud, 1995; cited in: Brew, 1999) through terms of informal and formal self-assessment. Some authors (Joyce et al., 2009) point out that self-assessment, besides reflection, also contains elements of self-evaluation and self-monitoring. Students think about the ways of approaching learning, they choose the appropriate learning strategies, they observe and adjust the process of learning and estimate their achievements according to given standards and/or criteria. Set in such a way, these authors see self-assessment as a part of a bigger picture i.e. as a part of developing the ability of self-regulation in learning (Table 1.)

Starting from the main ideas of critical pedagogy in regards of purpose, subject and function of assessment, some authors (Brew, 1999; Woodward, Munns, 2003) offer different frameworks for rethinking the self-assessment. It concerns the authentic models of self-assessment within which the main assumptions of self-evaluation as well as the limits and possibilities of its application are being clarified.

Table 1. Elements of self-regulation

	What student do	Reference points for judgements
Self-assessment	Collect evidence of learning and interpret meaning of evidence	Personal goal, external standard
Self-evaluation	Compare their work	Goal, criteria, exemplar, feedback
Self-correction	Make changes or adjustments, set new goals	Goal, criteria, exemplar, feedback
Self-monitorning	Monitor progress towards closing the gap or reaching amended goal	Goal, criteria, exemplar
Self-reflection	Think about progress, thinking dispositions toward tasks	Expressed notions of what learning entails

Source: Joyce et al., 2009.

Self-assessment model developed by Angela Brew (Brew, 1999), is based on Habermas' interpretation of knowledge and knowledge constitutive interests, as a framework for understanding different approaches to self-assessment. Within the technical interest self-assessment takes the simplest form. Students estimate learning outcomes in relation to criteria previously developed by the teacher. This approach to self-assessment Brew interprets more like a traditional way of assessment, because the control and the authority remain within the teacher. When students are involved in the process of assessment in a way that they suggest and negotiate the assessment criteria, which they later apply during evaluation of their learning, we talk about understanding the self-assessment from the viewpoint of practical interest. Within this approach students are encouraged to search for common solutions in terms of desirable outcomes. From the perspective of emancipatory interest, students are encouraged to critically re-examine the assumptions underlying the assessment. Establishing criteria, their review, understanding and application by students are parallel processes. One of the examples of this approach to self-assessment is encouraging students to write about different, individual learning experiences and their evaluation.

Woodward and Munns (Woodward, Munns, 2003) have developed multidimensional reflexive model of self-assessment (Table 2). The main idea for developing this model was that involving students in the process of assessment is not only cognitive, but also affective and operative process. The complete students involvement as „insiders" in the classroom

learning culture shifts the understanding of self-assessment from being a useful assessment technique into main pedagogical activity. Within this model self-assessment is seen as a way of reflecting on content, processes and context of learning. Students' learning experiences are in the centre of classroom interaction. Through carefully selected questions, students are encouraged to share their learning experiences, to create their own meanings on different learning aspects, and, together with teachers, to shape learning context. We wish to note that the model has been developed in practice, as a result of the joint action of students, teachers and researchers, and that, as such, this model is subject to change and further development in the classroom context.

Table 2. Dimensions of Self-assessment

Dimension	Affective	Cognitive	Operative
Conceptual-translating ideas into concepts	What other feelings do you have about this work? How can you generate some specific feelings about your work e.g. empathy, curiosity? Why is it important to acknowledge this feeling in your work?	Why is it important to you to know/ understand/be able to do this?	Why is being able to do this important?
Relational-relating to other areas/ processes	Have you ever felt this way about something else? When, what was it?	How do this process/ content relate to something else you know? When else could you use this information?	Where else could you do this?
Multidimensional-content plus process	Why did you like/dislike this work?	How did you learn this? What else did you learn? How did you arrive at the conclusion/ answer? How do you know when you have learnt something?	How did you do it?
Unidimensional–content – basic	Did you like or dislike this work/unit?	What did you learn? Why is this my best work?	What did you do?

Source: Woodward & Munns, 2003.

In the following text, we will shortly describe several self-assessment techniques. Some authors give an overview of techniques that can be used for assessing learning in all subjects, while Coombe and Canning (Coombe, Canning, 2002) describe the techniques that are successfully being used in teaching foreign languages. These techniques are:

Student progress cards: students define short-term learning objectives that are grouped into larger units on different levels of difficulty, and then mark the ones that have been successfully implemented. Both students and teachers can participate in this activity.

Ability	**Student**	**Teacher**
Read and understand texts on a travel theme		
Listen and understand passages on a travel theme		
Talk about past and future trips or holidays		
Write an itinerary for an upcoming vacation		

Rating scales, Check lists and Questionnaires: by using the appropriate symbolic signs students assess the degree to which they have mastered the described levels of achievement.

I understand language as well as a native speaker.	5
	4,5
I understand most of what is said in the language even when spoken by native speakers, but have difficulty in understanding dialects and slang. It is also difficult for me to understand speech in unfavorable conditions (i.e. through bad loudspeakers outdoors etc.)	4
	3,5
I can follow and understand the essential points concerning everyday and general things when spoken normally and clearly, but do not understand native speakers if they speak very quickly or use slang or dialect.	3
I do not understand the language at all.	1

Learner diaries and Dialog journals: during the learning process, students are encouraged to write about what they have learned, to estimate their current level of achievement, as well as about what else they should and they plan to learn (Birenbaum, 2003; Coombe, Canning, 2002).

Traffic Light: simple and effective technique which enables students to assess their own understanding of the learning content as good, par-

tial or bad. According to their estimation students form three groups and explain their estimates to each other. Except for developing the ability of self-assessment, this technique is also suitable for connecting the peer assessment and self-assessment (Black et al., 2004).

Self-assessment schedule: the document, which students prepare when they start learning some content, enables students to plan and assess learning activities in relation to the following parameters: goals (students operationalize individual or group goals in relation to learning content, process and outcomes); criteria (students indicate the criteria based on which they will evaluate the success in achieving the given goals); evidence (for every successfully achieved goal students provide evidence in the form of written learning products, notes, peer comments etc.); judgements (qualitative analysis of achievements in relation to given goals, criteria and enclosed evidence); further action (for every unsuccessfully achieved goal students explain the following learning steps), (Boud, 1992).

Based upon the above descriptions, it is obvious that self-assessment is not a uniform technique, but rather manifested in different modalities. Depending on the function of assessment it can be practised in two ways: as assessment in the end of specific learning cycle, where the planned learning outcomes are transformed into descriptors understandable to students; or as a part of an ongoing learning process. It most commonly occurs as a non-standard assessment in the function of teaching and learning processes, where students create and question their own judgements about the role and responsibility they have in their own learning. Changing assessment practice in this regard some authors describe as a transition from "quantification to a portrayal " (Birenbaum, 1996), or as a transition from „reliability to reflexivity" (Boud, Falchikov, 2007). The same authors add that instead of teachers' carrying for provision of identical judgements about student learning, attention should be focused on continuously reviewing the assumptions underlying the assessment.

Students' and teachers' understandings and experiences of self-assessment

Every activity of assessment sends specific messages to teachers and students, shapes their experiences and understandings of assessment. The examples of the best assessment practices and experiences are always specific and they are a result of understanding and joint life of teachers and students in the classroom. Hence the need, with any attempt to improve the quality of educational process as a whole or a part of that process,

in this case assessment, to hear the voice of those who are directly involved in that process. Teachers' and students' beliefs about the nature of assessment are the result of experience or accepted tradition (Aleksendrić, Mitrović, 2011) within the specific educational practice. Regardless of the different theoretical bases that underlie certain assessment practices, it may be noticed that the research are often focused on comparison of teachers' and students' perspectives on assessment. The titles and objectives of research suggest that the differences in teachers' and students' understandings of assessment are expected, which is later confirmed by the obtained results. The fundamental question that arises is: what is the reason why students and teachers experience the same assessment practice in a variety of ways. One of the answers lie in the fact that "all educational practices, including assessment practice, slowly change" (Mitrović, 2011), that developing autonomy and straightening students' position as subjects through their involvement in the process of assessment are „simple in articulation and very difficult in application" (Earl, 2003). That is why, in the research conclusions and among the recommendations for further development of certain assessment practices, the following statements are usually found: negative learning experiences students usually explain by inappropriate ways of assessing (Ramsden, 1997); students' experiences and perceptions of assessment depend on the ways teachers perceive and shape their own assessment practice (Maclellan, 2001); the need to involve students in the process of assessment, and for better understanding of assessment by students, is recognized (Fletcher et al., 2012); if we want to make assessment an integral part of learning, then we have to accept and/or uncover the hidden teachers' and students' beliefs about these processes (Shepard, 2000).

In research about students' and teachers' understandings of self-assessment, the situation is the same. Establishing a practice of self-assessment depends on students' and teachers' understandings of self-assessment. Researchers agree that the teachers' and students' need adequate theoretical and practical training on self-assessment. In research conclusions the following is usually emphasized: developing skills of self-assessment does not happen by itself, but rather through continuous and systematic encouragement and practice of assessing their own learning (Brew, 1999; Joyce et al., 2009); teachers are not willing to give up control in the process of assessment, and students do not recognize the value and purpose of self-assessment, since assessment is seen primarily as teacher's activity (Ross, 2006); without changing the culture of teaching, learning and assessment in the classroom, self-assessment can become disingenuous practice, and not a valid activity of assessment (Yoce et al., 2009; Harris, Brown, 2010).

Even in those educational contexts where teachers have completed certain training on formative assessment, it has been noted that accepting and practising self-assessment, by both teachers and students, is slower than the application of other techniques of formative assessment (Poskitt, Taylor, 2008). For self-assessment to become an integral part of assessment culture in the classroom, teachers should re-examine their beliefs about:

- The role they have in the process of assessment
- Learning and students' understandings of learning;
- The nature of classroom dialogue;
- The way of shaping and using feedback in assessment (Black, William, 2005; cited in: Poskitt, Taylor, 2008).

The above mentioned attitudes are confirmed by the results of some research. As the three most common reasons that hinder the implementation of self-assessment, teachers cite the lack of professional support, the dominant beliefs about the nature of learning and the nature of classroom climate (Joyce et al., 2009). According to the results of this research, teachers' understandings of self-assessment ranges from complete rejection or misunderstanding of the value of self-assessment, through anticipation of its value, to the full acceptance and practice of self-assessment as an integral part of everyday classroom activities. Teachers, who attribute a minor role to self-assessment, perceive learning as a process of knowledge transmission from teacher to students. These teachers are reserved in terms of students' ability to assess and, according to that, they see assessment as a pre-planned and isolated activity that is in a function of the measurement of final learning effects. Teachers, who recognize the importance of self-assessment, perceive learning and assessment as dynamic and interlaced processes, with special emphasis on the importance of student participatory activities in these processes.

According to the results of other research (Harris, Brown, 2010) teachers try to implement self-assessment in everyday teaching practice, and information obtained by the use of different self-assessment techniques, are primarily used for improving the quality of teaching. In the same research, students express scepticism about the validity of self-assessment: self-assessment activities are not perceived as activities of assessment, students are suspicious in terms of respect for their opinions and their own assessment skills, and therefore express apathy and indifference to the activities of self-assessment. The central conclusion of this study is that neither the students nor the teachers see self-assessment as a way for developing students' skills for self-assessment and self-directivity in learning, making it difficult to understand the values and purposes of self-assessment.

Students' experiences and understandings of self-assessment are the subject of research at all levels of educational process. In an extensive study of students' concepts of self-assessment (Bourke, 2000), six ways that elementary school students understand the self-assessment were singled out (Table 3). Students' understanding of self-assessment ranges from assessing whether and how something has been learned by depending and relying on opinions of teachers, parents or grades as the confirmation of their own assessments; through assessing what they have learned and how they have understood the contents of learning, using previous learning activities and pre-defined assessment criteria as a basis for assessment; to the vision of self-assessment as an opportunity to set their own learning goals or to estimate the value of the learning content. According to this author, a small number of students conceptualize self-assessment in the last two described ways. Different techniques of self-assessment are usually practiced on the initiative and under the guidance of teacher, leaving the students without the equal dialogue in the process of assessment.

According to the research conducted in our country at the higher education level (Mitrović, Aleksendrić, 2011), the term self-assessment is not clear to a certain number of surveyed students, nor it is recognized as an activity of assessment. In this regard, students have the need to learn what the self-assessment is, what its purpose is, how to respect and develop criteria for self-assessment, how to self-assess the work process and how to control subjectivity, as well as to learn about the different techniques of self assessment. The results of this research indicate that students do not have a split role with teachers in the assessment process and that it is necessary to prepare students for self-assessment.

Table 3. Categories of description for students' conceptions of self-assessment

Seeking an opinion	Self-assessment is receiving an opinion from an „expert". Students are dependent on others to confirm that learning has occurred. Teachers and parents are the predominant source of confirmation. This category is characterized by a common question: *Have I learned?*
Getting marks and grades	Self-assessment is dependent on a symbol (grade, star, stamp, sticker) to confirm learning. For students, these marks and grades identify how well they had learned in relation to peers. This category is characterized by a common question: *How much have I learned?*
Performing	Self-assessment is viewed as the ability to perform a task. Students use the ability to perform or complete a task as an indicator of learning. There is the use of peers and adults to model the desired performance in order to assess own performance. This category is characterized by a common question: *What did I learn?*

Using criteria	Self-assessment involves the use of pre-established criteria to indicate learning. Students are most likely to view teaching their peers as an indicator of their own learning. Generally these students have a belief that their learning will improve. This category is characterized by a common question: *Do I understand what I have learned?*
Setting learning goals	Self-assessment is based on setting learning goals. Students are able to set criteria, goals, and evaluate tasks before assessing their own learning in relation to their goals. Students individually self-assess their own learning and use grades and benchmarks for monitoring performance. This category is characterized by a common question: *What do I want to learn?*
Evaluating learning content	Self-assessment is part of determining the worth of the learning. Students evaluate the value of the content and the learning goal before assessing their own learning. They are prepared to persevere in learning if the goal is considered important and valuable. This category is characterized by a common question: *Is this worth learning?*

Source: Bourke, 2000.

The above described research results present the inner evaluation of self-assessment practices and, indirectly, a way of understanding the quality in education. From this overview, we can notice, on the one hand, that the basis of understanding and practising self-assessment in formal education are different theoretical approaches to education, school learning, assessment and quality in education. On the other hand, students' and teachers' ideas, dilemmas and experiences of self-assessment, allow us to follow the development of self-assessment, its purpose and meaning for educational practice.

Conclusion

In this paper, we have tried to present some of the actual conceptualizations, models and techniques of self-assessment, as well as the ways of their understanding and realization in educational practice. Along with the development of various scientific starting points as a basis for considering the major pedagogical issues of education, new views on self-assessment and its purpose in the process of education were developed. Viewed from this angle, self-assessment can now be regarded as fairly developed and explored area. Some data from this paper show that the self-assessment is approached mechanistically, that it is treated as an activity of a technical character or as a fad in the application of techniques of

formative assessment, without the real understanding of its purpose and value for students' development. The encouraging fact is that the authentic models of self-assessment are being created and developed in practice. These authentic models of self-evaluation serve as a means for changing power relations and students' role in the teaching process; for strengthening students' position as a subject in the process of assessment, for developing self-directivity and autonomy in learning, which are, according to some authors (Mitrovic, Radulovic, 2011), considered today as some of modern tendencies in understanding the quality of education.

References:

Aleksendrić, B., Mitrović, M. (2011). Načelo individualizacije u praćenju i ocenjivanju učenika u nastavi; u K. Skubic Ermenc (ur.): *Zbornik mednarodnega posveta: Udejanjanje načela individualizacije v vzgojnoizobraževalni praksi: ali smo na pravi poti?* (81–86). Ljubljana: Znanstvena založba Filozofske fakultete Univerze v Ljubljani.

Birenbaum, M. (1996). Assessment 2000: Towards a pluralistic approach to assessment; in M. Birenbaum, F. J. R. C. Dochy (Ed.): *Alternatives in assessment of achievement, learning processes and prior knowledge.* (3–29). Boston, MA: Kluwer.

Birenbaum, M. (2003). *New Insights Into Learning and Teaching and Their Implications for Assessment;* in M. Segers, F. Dochy, E. Cascallar (Ed.): Optimising New Models of Assessment: In Search of Qualities and Standards (13–36). Dordrecht,The Netherlands: Kluwer.

Black, P., Wiliam, D. (1998). Assessment and Classroom Learning. *Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy & Practice,* 5(1), 7–74.

Black, P., Harrison, C., Lee, C., Marshall, B., Wiliam, D. (2004). Working Inside the Black Box: Assessment for learning in the classrooom, *Phi Delta Kappan*, 86(1), 9–21. (Retrieved from: http://web.uvic.ca/~gtreloar/Assessment/Periodical%20Items/Working%20Inside%20the%20Black%20Box-Assessment%20for%20Learning%20in%20the%20Classroom.pdf)

Boud, D. (1992). The Use of Self-assessment Schedules in Negotiated learning. *Studies in Higher Education,* 17(2), 185–200.

Boud, D., Falchikov, N. (2007). *Rethinking Assessment in Higher Education: Learning for the Longer Term.* London: Routledge.

Bourke, R. (2000). *Students' conception of learning and self-assessment in context.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Massey University, New Zealand. (Retrieved from: http://muir.massey.ac.nz/bitstream/handle/10179/2153/02_whole.pdf?sequence=1ealend.)

Bourke, R., Mentis, M. (2007). Self-assessment as a lens for learning; in L. Florian (Ed.): *The SAGE Handbook of Special Education* (320–332).

London: SAGE Publication Ltd. (Retrieved from: http://www.dx.doi. org/10.4135/9781848607989.n25).

Brew, A. (1999). Towards Autonomus Assessment: Using Self-assessment and Peer Assessment; in S. Brown, A. Glasner (Ed.): *Assessment Matters in Higher Education: Choosing and Using Diverse Approaches* (159–171). Buckingham: SRHE & Open University Press.

Carless, D., Joughin, G., Liu, N. F. & Associates (2006). *How Assessment Supports Learning: Learning-oriented Assessment in Action.* Hong Kong: University Press Aberdeen.

Coombe, C., Canning, C. (2002). *Using self-assessment in the classroom: Rationale and Suggested Techniques.* (Retrieved from: http://www3.telus.net/ linguisticsissues/selfassess2.html).

Earl, L. M. (2003). *Assessment as Learning: Using Classroom Assessment to Maximize Student Learning.* Thousand Oask, California: Corwin Press, Inc.

Fletcher, R. B., Meyer, L. H., Anderson, H., Johnston, P., & Ress, M. (2012). Faculty and Students Conceptions of Assessment in Higher Education. *Higher Education*, 64(1), 119–133.

Gipps, C. (1999). Socio-Cultural Aspects of Assessment. *Review of Research in Education,* 24, 355–392.

Harris, L., Brown, G. T. L. (2010). *"My teacher's judgement matters more than mine." Comparing Teachers and Student Perspectives on Self-assessment*; Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association Annual Meeting, Denver, Colorado. (Retrieved from: http://libir1.ied.edu.hk/ pubdata/ir/link/pub/2010_Harris_and_Brown_AERA.pdf).

Joyce, C., Spiller, L., Twist, J. (2009). Self-assessment: What Teachers Think. Wellington: New Zealand Council for Educational Research. NZCER. (Retrieved from: http://www.nzcer.org.nz/system/files/self-assessment.pdf).

Latin Dictionary. (Retrieved from: http://www.latin-dictionary.net/ definition/5140/assido-assidere-assedi).

Maclellan, E. (2001). Assessment for Learning: Differing Perception of Tutors and Students. *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education,* 26(4), 307–318.

Mitrović, M. (2012). Promene u teoriji i praksi ocenjivanja u nastavi i njihova značenja za istraživanje kvaliteta u obrazovanju. У: Vujisič-Živković, Nataša (ur.), Mitrović, Milica (ur.), Ovesni, Kristinka (ur.). *Posebna pitanja kvaliteta u obrazovanju.* Beograd: Filozofski fakultet Univerziteta, Institut za pedagogiju i andragogiju, str. 155–172.

Mitrović, M., Aleksendrć, B. (2011). Students in the process of faculty monitoring and evaluation: a student perspective; in: A. Pejatović (ed.): *XIV International Conference: Evaluation in Education in the Balkan Countries,*(661–665). Belgrade: Faculty of Philosophy, Institute for Pedagogy and Andragogy.

Mitrović, M., Radulović, L. (2011). Načini konceptualizovanja i razumevanja kvaliteta obrazovanja u nastavi; u N. Kačaveda Radić, D. Pavlović-

Breneselović, R. Antonijević (ur.): *Kvalitet u obrazovanju* (135–156). Beograd: Institut za pedagogiju i andragogiju Filozofskog fakulteta.

Poskitt, J., Taylor, K. (2008). *National Education Findgins of Assess to Learn (AtoL) Report.* Wellington: Ministry of Education. (Retrieved from: http://www.educationcounts.govt.nz/publications/schooling/27968/27984).

Ramsden, P. (1997). The Context of Learning in Academic Departments; in F. Marton, D. Hounsell & N. Entwistle (Ed.): *The Experience of Learning: Implications for Teaching and Studying in Higher Education,* (198–217). Edinburgh: Scottish Academic Pres.

Ross, J. A. (2006). The reliability, validity and utility of self-assessment. *Practical Assessment, Research and Evaluation,* 11(10), 1–13.

Shay, S., Jawitz, J. (2005). Assessment and the Quality of Educational Programmes: What Constitutes Evidence?, *Perspectives in Education,* 23(1), 103–114.

Shepard, L. (2000). The Role of Assessment in a Learning Culture. *Educational Researcher,* 29(7), 4–14.

Woodward, H., Munns, G. (2003). Insiders' Voices: Self-assessment and Student Engagement; *Paper presented at New Zeeland Association for research in Education (NZARE) and Australian Association for Research in Education (AARE) Joint Conference.* (Retrieved from: http://publications.aare.edu.au/03pap/mun03451.pdf).

Maša Avramović[*]

Research with Children – Involving Children's Perspectives

Perception of the child as a research object, seen through set of variables, is a dominant approach in most research involving children. Opposed to this approach, based on traditional epistemological grounds, in recent decades a new approach has been developing in which children are respected as social actors that have a central role in the research focused on their experiences and perspectives. Children become active subject in the research process. This paper elaborates conceptual, methodological and ethical issues of the new approach in research with children. It highlights change of the 'image of the child' and children's position, as well as principles of child participation and 'listening to the child' as a base for co-construction of knowledge in the research. Paper further discusses methodological and ethical issues, implied by shifting epistemological paradigm and children's position in the research. It emphasises that appreciating children's perspectives and acting according to them, contribute to active role of children in their own development and education, and bring changes with a deeper meaning and stronger potential to contribute in improving policy and practices concerning children.

Keywords: research with children, conceptual, methodological and ethical issues in research with children

Introduction

As one looks at social scientific research involving children, it is evident that the predominant approach has seen a child as an object rath-

[*]   University of Belgrade, Faculty of Philosophy, Belgrade, Serbia

er than subject of research (Christensen & James, 2008; Greene & Hill, 2005). In most studies, children have been perceived through a number of variables, whereas researchers have been preoccupied with outcomes and implications of their research for behaviour of a large number of children. Children's perspectives have been disregarded, as well as their active role in own development and their environment.

However, as opposed to the traditional epistemological grounds, it is evident that over the last two decades research, in which researchers endeavour to understand children's experiences and perspectives, has been developing on the basis of the 'new sociology of childhood', socio-cultural psychology and the doctrine of child rights. The importance of research that ensures 'hearing voice of the child' has increasingly been emphasised (Clark & Moss, 2001; Alderson & Morrow, 2011; Kellett, 2005).

At first sight, it might seem confusing that children were not listened so far in research involving them (Krnjaja, 2012). The traditional positivist research in which a child is 'measured', and even those studies that use techniques of observation and interviewing children as an attempt to understand their views and concerns, reflect 'researcher expertise on children's experience' (Greene & Hogan, 2005; Krnjaja, 2012). Research questions have been posed, analysed and interpreted, in relation to the views and priorities of researchers, rather than children themselves. Children have not been recognised as active participants in the research process and construction of knowledge. Their participation was usually limited to the phase of data collection and conditioned by their age and researcher assumptions about their cognitive and social competences.

In contrast to research *on* children where child is an object of the research and interests of the researcher, in research *with* children they are active participants in research process based on 'listening to children'. This paper is an attempt to highlight some of the most important conceptual, methodological and ethical issues that are the basis of research with children.

Conceptual framework of research with children

Changing the image of the child

Traditional perceptions of the child are related to children as 'becomings' and highlights their immaturity and incompetence in comparison to adults. To a large extent, these perceptions are based on the standpoints in developmental psychology developed under the influence of Piaget's constructivist theory. Child development has seen as a universal, natural

process that progressed linearly through a sequence of stages that child reach at a certain age, regardless of the context within which he/she grows up. Scientific bases of this theory are considerably weaker than it is commonly thought, and it have been strongly criticised since '70s of the last century (Vudhed, 2012). However, despite this, the attitude of many adults that children should be protected and guided, without necessarily being consulted about issues of importance for their own development, is the consequence of the image of the child as a vulnerable and incompetent being, that is still significantly present.

Contrary to this view of the child, researchers involved in child development have been increasingly referring to an alternative theoretical framework developed under the influence of social constructivism, shaped by insights of L.S. Vygotsky. This theoretical framework takes into account social and cultural dimensions of child development, pointing to the importance of the environment and relationships that child builds within it. Precisely, these relationships give meaning and direct children's experience, and also introduce them to cultural practices – acquiring skills and methods of communication, cooperation and negotiation in joint activities.

Child competences, therefore, should be considered as dynamic constructs. They depend on the context and quality of children's experiences in interactions with others, but also on the children themselves, who find their own ways of dealing with possibilities and difficulties they face in the environment (Bayden, 1998 in Dejanović, 1999). Children's competences are evolving[1]. At any point of their development, children have abilities and competences enabling them to be active agents and partners to adults and their peers, not only in their own development but in development of the community. It is up to the adults to understand and act in accordance with the fact that these capacities are in the process of development and that the child is both 'being and becoming'. Evolving capacities of the child 'make a demand on education policy and practice for considering children's perspectives on their childhood and its practices' (Vudhed, 2012:6), while the growing body of research confirms that even very young children are competent to express their views and participate in decision making about important matters to their lives (Sinclair, 2004).

Changing the position of the child

New paradigms in social sciences, especially those within 'the new sociology of childhood' have contributed to the understanding and ac-

---

1   The concept of the evolving capacities of the child was formulated by the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child in Article 5 which defines responsibilities of parents/carers to direct children in exercising their rights according to their growing competences.

ceptance of children as social agents who have an active role in shaping their environment. Children are recognized as a particular social group with its own distinctive features and values and are considered as part of the entire social structure (Dejanović, 1999). They are in constant interaction with other parts of the system (with particular emphasis on the family, education and childcare systems). During these interactions child construct his/her own world and attitude towards it, build their own identity and relationships with others (O'Kane, 2006). The opportunities that children have to actively construct and reconstruct their role in various social settings are essential for their own development but also for the development of communities they belong to (Vudhed, 2012).

'Listening to children' emerges as part of 'the new sociology of childhood' and it is based on the conception of the child as citizen with own rights, a competent partner in decision making on important issues in his/her life and development. Children are seen as 'subjects to be listened to, not objects to be observed' (James & Prout, 1997:10). This standpoint has been supported by the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989), an international legal document, by which, the rights of children are universally accepted[2]. The Convention recognises children as holders of their rights formally and explicitly. One of its ground principles is child right to participation in implementing his/her own rights. In that sense, special focus is on the Article 12, according to which children have the right to express their views in all matters affecting them and have those views taken into account. Many authors point out that children's active participation is a key factor in initiating change and improvement of the conditions for their development and education, hence children should be involved in planning, implementation and reconsideration of such initiatives (Clark, McQuail & Moss, 2003).

Underlying assumptions in research with children

The perception of children as competent beings, inherently worthy for who they are and evolving capacities they have, persons with rights to active participation, has led to the change in the approach to research involving children.

Research with children bases on assumptions that children are:

- *'Experts in their own lives'* (Lansdown, 2005). Children are competent human beings with their own perspectives. Children's perspectives are often different than adult's ones. This does not mean

---

2   The Convention on the Rights of the Child was ratified by all but two countries of the world which thereby committed to its implementation, due to which the children's rights are considered universally accepted.

that adult's perspectives are unimportant, but that children can help adults to understand their experience, perspectives and priorities better.

- *Capable communicators, including very young children.* All children are capable of forming and expressing their views in all matters affecting them (Lansdown, 2001), using a range of verbal and non-verbal tools, 'the hundred languages of children' (Edwards et al, 1998). Adults can and should encourage and support children's communication capacities by affording them more opportunities for self-expression.
- *Active participants in their development and environment* and therefore can and should play an active role in research.
- *Researchers by their nature.* Children learn by being actively engaged in searching and construction of meaning. They have own theories and interpretations of the world and their place within it, which they share, understand, and develop in collaboration with other children and adults. Adults need to know how children perceive the world in order to understand their actions. Children's perspectives could be the frame for the dialogue of meanings between children, professionals and researchers (Clark McQuail & Moss, 2003; Davies & Thurston, 2006).

'Listening to children' as co-construction of knowledge

The basis of research with children is 'listening to children' as a crucial precondition for understanding of their experiences and perspectives (Clark & Moss 2001; Dalli & Stephenson, 2010; Te One, 2010). Listening refers to an active role of the researcher who accepts and respects the child as a competent partner in meaning making.

Clark and Moss define listening as:

- active communication that involves all senses and emotions and cannot be limited to spoken words only
- a process that involves dialogue, cooperative interpreting and construction of meanings
- adjusted to the child's everyday life
- part of consulting with children about their experiences, rights and choices, everyday situations and events (Clark & Moss, 2001).

This definition of 'listening' indicates several important starting points in research with children. One of them is the sociocultural theory that understands knowledge as a collaborative process of meaning mak-

ing (Krnjaja, 2012; Slunjski, 2006). This process of collaborative 'search' for meanings involves dialogue, continual interpretation and re-consideration of the views of children and adults. Knowledge is co-construction of meaning through an exchange that implies active participation of all participants. Listening assumes that researchers are willing to accept and respect children as co-researchers and enable them to participate in various ways. Developing partnership between children and researchers is one of the crucial issues raised in research with children.

The subject of research with children relates to issues of vital importance for children. Therefore, it is important that the research process is 'adjusted to the child' (Pavlović Breneselović, 2010). The question that arises is how to provide the context within which children feel comfortable and safe to express their experience and perspectives, encouraged to raise important issues and questions and take part in a dialogue. Children participation in research can and should be the experience that encourages them to reflect upon their own position and to take an active role in their surroundings.

Many researchers emphasise that listening to children in order to understand their views should not be the ultimate goal, but a starting point for change of practice (Clark &Moss 2001; Punch, 2002; Vudhed, 2012). They also point to the *egalitarism of theory, practice, and research* (Krnjaja, 2012) which is crucial for changes in education. Now days communities of theoreticians, researchers and practitioners, involved in collaborative research process aimed to create changes in education, have been increasingly developing. This egalitarism implies awareness of the difference between 'listening to' children and 'to hear' them and act accordingly.

Methodological approach to research with children

Shifting the focus from research on children to research with children carries a number of methodological implications. Since research with children is qualitative by its nature, most of these implications also implies to qualitative research with adults. Particular specifics arise from the standpoint that, in certain points, research with children differs from research with adults.

Although there are some differences between the theoretical grounds of research with children, we can identify several common characteristics of its methodological approach:

- Research with children involves appreciation of *multiple perspectives and contexts* as opposed to objectivity and generalisation that

characterises research on children. It focuses on the child as a subject viewed holistically in his/her totality within a specific context. Research aims to understand different perspectives of children (Christensen James, 2008; Hill, 2005).

- The role of the child has moved from the object of research to the *co-researcher* in the research process. With their perspectives, children contribute to framing the research process through dialogue with researcher. They can participate in identifying and deepening research questions, choosing methods and techniques, data collecting and analysis, reporting on research findings (Kellet, 2005).

- The focus is on the *research process,* rather than on its particular stages. Research on children, directed towards detecting causal relations, focuses on data collection and analysis. On the other hand, research with children emphasises the importance of the whole research process – from forming the research team, selecting the topic and developing research strategy, building relationships with children, to engaging with them in a dialogue about the research at all its stages (Krnjaja, 2012).

- Research with children requires *reflexivity* from researchers, as opposed to neutrality that stands out in research on children. Research with children emphasises the need for the researchers continual reconsideration not only of the pre-assumptions with which they enter the research, but also of their roles and relationships they build with children, the choice of research methods, etc. (Punch, 2002).

Besides these general principles, researchers point to a number of methodological issues and dilemmas raised in research with children, while many of them have a strong ethical dimension. Most significant of them will be discussed further.

Selection of children to participate in research

Qualitative research with children rarely aims at statistical representativeness. Nevertheless, researchers often tend to involve 'typical' children in the research, so that they could provide some kind of generalisation about childhood or particular group of children (Hill, 2005). The question that arises in such cases is how to ensure hearing as many different perspectives as possible. In the research practice, it is common to involve children who are 'easily accessible'. Involving children, who are available, may lead to overlooking or neglecting views of certain groups of children. That often happens in cases of children with disabilities, children from

ethnic minorities, etc. This ethical issue requires that researchers reconsider the criteria for selecting children who will take part in the research from the aspect of relevance and equality.

Child-researcher relationship

Many authors start from the premise that the relationship between researchers and children is characterised by unequal power that children have in relation to adults, determined by their age, status, competences or experience (Einarsdottir, 2007). The imbalance of power and status between children and adults often stands out as the biggest challenge in research with children (Thomas & O'Kane, 1998; Mayall, 2000). In practice, researchers might encounter some children unaccustomed to adults who are interested in their experiences and opinions. They might see adults as authority and seek to provide desirable answers in order to meet the supposed their expectations (Punch, 2002; Hill, 2005). Children may also feel uncomfortable in situations when they are "required" to express their opinion. All this indicates children's potential vulnerability in circumstances in which they have unequal power compared to adults.

However, a question that arises is whether the researcher is always the one who has more power over the child. Some authors state that such point of view is over-simplified. They refer to the instances in which children showed resistance to engage in the research in a way the researcher had predicted (Loveridge, 2010), suggesting that children may have the power over the researcher as well. According to them, the concept of power can not be understood as a static construct, but a dynamic process in which the distribution of power between the researcher and the child has continually negotiated through the established relationships and co-participation in the research process (Gallagher & Gallagher, 2008).

The key question that arises is how to eliminate or reduce the imbalance that exists in power relations between children and adults, in other words to establish a relationship in which researcher shares power with children. Considering this issue, researchers suggest a number of strategies that can contribute to establishing power balance between researchers and children. These strategies include:

- building relationships between researchers and children that are based on trust and mutual respect
- encouraging children's active participation in research (applying participatory research techniques that take into account children's competences and interests, involving children in all research stages...)

- the necessity of reflection (continuous integrating, interpreting and reconsidering viewpoints of children and adults and their roles in the research process, critical reflection on the research methodology...)

Children's participation in the research

„The question is about the status we accord the child through the methodologies we adopt and the conclusions we draw; and about whether we allow children the space to alter our agenda of presuppositions"(Woodhead, 1999 in Dalli & Stephenson, 2010:10).

The cited questions suggest the starting points on which to build the participatory approach to research with children. Notion that research methods should be adjusted to children – their diverse competences, experience and interests, but also the contexts in which research is conducted, is of crucial importance.

Most authors think this could be achieved by combining different methods and techniques (Dalli & Stephenson, 2010; Punch, 2002), including traditional techniques used in research with adults, such as observations and interviews, as well as innovative techniques designed to be 'fit for children'. Thereby researchers are required to integrate and interpret data, as well as to continuously review selected research strategies, to identify the advantages and disadvantages of specific techniques and to modify them on the basis of 'listening to children'.

Mosaic Approach

Mosaic approach to research with children developed by Clark and Moss (Clark & Moss, 2001) has been particularly emphasised in the literature. The term 'mosaic' implies using a range of various techniques in research with children on the basis of which researcher gets 'fragments' of the mosaic to create a complete picture of children's perspectives. Authors describe this approach as a 'framework for listening to children' that does not rely only on verbal communication, but also on symbolic ways of communication, allowing young children to fully express their experiences and perspectives. Mosaic can encompass a broad spectrum of methods and techniques:

- participant observation
- photography and video recording by children
- individual and group interviews, focus groups with children about issues that are important to them and related to their everyday experience

- children's narratives
- guided tours, map-making
- drawing, role-play, multiple-choice games, etc.

The selection and combination of diverse techniques is based upon the research purpose. Different techniques allow adults to 'receive a message' from a child in a variety of ways which increase the probability that his/her message will be appropriately understood.

Beside applying multi-method approach in participatory research process, mosaic approach is based on principles of *reflexivity* – involving children and adults to continual interpretation and reconsideration of meanings; *focus on children's everyday experiences*, their authentic and complex realities, *adaptability* in different settings and *embedment into practice* as a tool in everyday pedagogical practice (Clark & Moss, 2001).

Mosaic approach comprises of three interrelated stages and dimension. In the first stage children and adults collect data and prepare necessary documentation, in the second phase they participate in a dialogue, reflect on and interpret data together, and in the third phase they discuss what could be done as a result of the previous process and plan joint action (Clark, McQuail & Moss, 2003).

Ethical issues in research with children

In recent years, there has been a growing interest in the ethical aspects of research with children, which results in a number of papers on this issue (Alderson & Morrow, 2011; Hill, 2005; Loveridge, 2010). The raised questions mostly relate to the research context in which children actively participate by sharing their experiences and perspectives.

Research ethics in the broadest sense refers to the values and beliefs that influence the approach to research (Graham & Fitzgerald, 2010 in Te Ono, 2010). It includes a set of ethical principles and rules for the researcher to follow in conducting the research. They permeate every aspect of the research process and influence both the choice of methodology and research results.

When it comes to the ethical aspects of research with children, it is always closely connected to the concepts of child and childhood (Farrel, 2005). The ontological and epistemological assumptions of the researchers affect the ethical standpoint he/she adopts in research with children. As already mentioned, over the last two decades research in the 'new sociology of childhood' has contributed to the building of a discourse within

which children have been seen as competent social actors and the importance of 'hearing' their perspectives has been emphasised. Nevertheless, there has still been certain tension between the new and 'old' discourse that has long been (pre)dominant within the positivist paradigm, in which children were seen as vulnerable and incompetent. The existing tension has been reflected in the discussion on the ethical issues in research with children.

The literature on these issues mostly supports the viewpoint that research ethics cannot be reduced to a set of principles to be consistently applied in order to ensure 'being ethical'. Instead, researchers have suggested that the question of ethics in research with children should be seen as a continuous process of reconsidering research postulates and actions (Gallaghter & Gallaghter, 2008). According to Alderson 'ethics is intended to help researchers to become aware of the hidden problems and questions, as well as the ways it is possible to overcome them, not to provide simple answers" (Alderson, 2005: 29). The researchers writing about their own research practices with children point to a number of ethical dilemmas that occur in the 'actual context' that is often unpredictable and within which it is sometimes difficult to translate the ethical ideals into practice.

Key ethical issues in research with children

In the research in which she interviewed a number of researchers, Alderson has identified ten ethical issues arising in research with children (Alderson, 2005; Hill, 2005). For each of the topics she has formulated a series of questions that may serve as guidelines for research planning and ethical reconsideration during its conduction.

The topics that Alderson opens up relate to:

- *The purpose of the research with children* – question is whether the research is in accordance with children's interests and priorities. In research with children, the children's right to raise questions of importance to their lives and to participate in their resolving should be prioritised over the researcher's interests and hypotheses.
- *Potential risks and benefits from the research* – research with children requires constant reconsideration of potential risks to which children may be exposed during a research process, in all its stages. Research should be aimed at children's wellbeing, so the arising question is – what are the potential benefits to children from their participation in the research.

- *Privacy and confidentiality* – The ethical approach to research with children emphasise respect for children's privacy, as well as data confidentiality. The question that arises concerns the ways and procedures for ensuring compliance with this principle.

- *Children inclusion in vs. exclusion from research* – how to choose which children will be included in and which will be excluded from the research? What steps are taken to ensure inclusion of children from particularly marginalized groups? These are ethical questions related to ensuring equal participation of different groups of children, for whom research is relevant.

- *Resources and research funding* – researchers point out that the question of resources intended for research with children is relevant in terms of ethics, because different interest groups have different priorities when it comes to the research purpose and dynamics, which may be a barrier to achieving prerequisites for children's genuine participation in the research.

- *Children's participation in research and researcher's responsibility* – Ethical dimension of research with children involves a question of implementation of children's rights in the research context, as well as the responsibility of adults to provide a supportive environment for children's participation, but also safety and protection.

- *Informing children* – Children and their carers have the right to be informed about the research aims and process in a clear and understandable way.

- *Children's consent for participation in research* – One of the ethical principles in research with children is voluntary participation in research which implies the researcher's responsibility to obtain consent for participation in research from children and their carers, as well as the child's right to withdraw from participation at any stage of the research.

- *Dissemination of research results* – The question that arises here is whether the children who participated in the research received feedback on their participation, whether they had insight into the research findings and the opportunity to comment on them. To whom research results would be presented, will children have the opportunity to present their views on the research process and results, etc.?

- *The impact of research on children* – From the ethical point of view, the impact that research has on children is a very relevant question – whether and to what extent research can contribute to

changes in policy and practice concerning children and enhance their position. (Alderson & Morrow, 2011; Hill, 2005; Thomas & O'Cane, 1998)

Mentioned issues indicate a strong connection between child rights and the ethical principles in research with children. Child rights perspective provides a universal basis for considering these ethical dilemmas (Loveridge, 2010). The principles of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child can serve as guidelines to researchers in research planning and reconsideration of the research process.

On the other hand, the raised ethical issues highlight the complexity of research with children. It is demanding to apply the established principles in practice, especially if one bears in mind that the researcher is often conditioned by external factors and interests of those who provide the funds for the research, which may affect the research purpose, time management and the dissemination of research findings. However, this does not mean that one should give up. Every researcher's responsibility that arises from the children's rights is to constantly reconsider research projects in terms of ethics, and find ways to apply these principles in the actual research context.

Conclusion

Research with children relies on the notion that children are competent social actors with their own perspectives on the issues that are important for their lives and development. Children's perspectives differ from adult's ones. Throughout research with children, researchers have tried to understand them better, to support their interests, competences and originality, to look upon children's lives in the context of a particular community. They 'listen' to the child in order to comprehend his/her experience and perception of the world, understand his/her own perspective. By doing so, the researchers encounter a number of methodological and ethical questions. The most significant ones relate to overcoming power imbalance between children and researchers, involving children in different stages of the research process, selecting and combining different techniques, and ensuring implementation of child rights in the research context.

Appreciating children's experience and perspectives may significantly contribute to their wellbeing. Research with children has the potential for affecting both the change of the child image, and the improvement of the policies and practices concerning children. That, in fact, is their most important goal.

References:

Alderson, P. (2005). Designing ethical research with children; in: Farrell, A. (Ed.) *Ethical research with children,* 27–36, Berkshire: Open University Press.

Alderson, P. & V. Morrow (2011). *The ethics of research with children and young people,* London: Sage Publications.

Christensen, P. & A. James (2008). *Research with children: Perspectives and practices,* London: Falmer Press.

Clark, A. & P. Moss (2001). *Listening to young children. The Mosaic approach*, London: National Children's Bureau.

Clark, A., McQuail, S. & P. Moss (2003). *Exploring the field of listening to and consulting with young children*, Nottingham: DfES Publications.

Dalli, C. & A. Stephenson (2010). Involving children in research in early childhood education settings: Opening up the issues; in: Loveridge, J. (Ed.) *Involving Children and Young People in Research in Educational Settings,* 11–41, Victoria University of Wellington: Jessie Hetherington Centre for Educational Research.

Davies, S., Thurston, M. (2006). *Consulting with children under five – A literature review*, The University of Chester.

Dejanović, V. (1999). Participacija mladih – uvodna razmatranja; u: Pešić, M., Branković, B., Tomanović-Mihajlović, S., Dejanović, V. (ured.) *Participacija mladih pod lupom*, 9–39, Beograd: Jugoslovenski centar za prava deteta.

Edwards, C. et al. (1998). *The Hundred Languages of Children: the Reggio Emilia approach to early childhood education,* US New Jersey: Ablex Publishing Corporation.

Einarsdottir, J. (2007). Research with children: methodological and ethical challenges – *European Early Childhood Research Journal*, *15(2):* 197–211.

Farrell, A. (2005). *Ethical research with children,* Berkshire: Open University Press.

Gallagher, L. & M. Gallagher (2008). Methodological immaturity in childhood research? Thinking through "participatory methods", *Childhood, 15(4):*499–516.

Greene, S. & M. Hill (2005). Researching children's experience: methods and methodological issues; in: Green, S., Hogan, D. (Eds.) *Researching children's experience, 1–21,* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Green, S. & D. Hogan (2005). *Researching children's experience,* London: Sage Publications.

Hill, M. (2005). Ethical considerations in researching children's experiences; in: Greene,S.& Hogan D. (Eds). *Researching children's experience,*61–86, London: Sage Publications.

Kellett, M. (2005). *Children as active researchers: a new research paradigm for the 21st century?,* London: Centre for Childhood, Development and Learning, The Open University.

Krnjaja, Ž. (2012). Istraživanje sa decom: nova paradigma vaspitne prakse, *Zbornik radova sa međunardne konferencije Horizonti obrazovanja*, 80–86,Subotica: Visoka škola za obrazovanje vaspitača i trenera.

James, A. & A. Prout (1997). *Constructing and Reconstructing Childhood*, London: Falmer Press.

Lansdown, G. (2001). *Promoting Children's Participation in Democratic Decision-Making*, Florence: UNICEF Innocenti Insight.

Lansdown, G. (2005). *The Evolving Capacities of the Child*, Florence: UNICEF Innocenti Insight.

Loveridge, J. (2010). *Involving Children and Young People in Research in Educational Settings,* Victoria University of Wellington: Jessie Hetherington Centre for Educational Research.

Mayall, B. (2000). Conversations with children. Working with generational issues; in: Christensen, P. and James A. (Eds.) *Research with children: Perspectives and practices*, 120–135, London: Routledge Falmer.

O'Kane, C. (2000). The Development of Participatory Techniques: FacilitatinChildren's Views about Decisions which Affect Them; in; Christensen, P., James, A**.** *Research with Children: Perspectives and Practices*, 136–160, London and New York**:** Falmer Press.

Pavlović Breneselović, D. (2010). Dobrobit deteta u programu naspram program za dobrobit deteta, *Nastava i vaspitanje 59(2)*: 251–264.

Prava deteta i Konvencija o pravima deteta (2001). Beograd: Jugoslovenski centar za prava deteta.

Punch, S. (2002). Research with children: the same or different research with adults?, *Childhood,* 9 (3): 321–341.

Sinclair, R. (2004). Participation in practice: Making it meaningful, effective and Sustainable, *Children and Society, 18(2)*: 106–118.

Slunjski, E. (2006). *Stvaranje predškolskog kurikulma u vrtiću – organizaciji koja uči*, Zagreb: Mali profesor, Visoka učiteljska škola u Čakovcu.

Te One, S. (2010). Involving children in research: Primary school; in: Loveridge, J. (Ed.) *Involving Children and Young People in Research in Educational Settings,* 67–101, Victoria University of Wellington: Jessie Hetherington Centre for Educational Research.

Thomas, N. & C. O'Kane (1998). The ethics of participatory research with children, *Children and Society, 12(5):* 336–348.

Vigotski, L. (1977). *Govor i mišljenje*. Beograd: Nolit.

Vudhed, M. (2012). *Različite perspektive o ranom detinjstvu: teorija, istraživanje i politika*, Beograd: IPA i CIP-Centar za interaktivnu pedagogiju.

Information About the Authors

Branka Aleksendrić is a PhD student at the Faculty of Philosophy in Belgrade, the Department of Pedagogy and Andragogy. She works as an assistant at the Chair for Didactics. Her areas of interest and research activity are: assessment, learning, the relationship between learning and assessment, theories of curriculum, mathematical education, learning and the use of language in formal education. e-mail address: baleksan@f.bg.ac.rs

Šefika Alibabić, PhD of Andragogy, full-time professor at the Department for Pedagogy and Andragogy, Faculty of Philosophy, University of Belgrade. Teaching areas: System and Organization of Adult Education, Management and Marketing in Education, Elementary Adult Education and Key Competences, Development Directions of Adult Educational System. Scientific areas: Adult Education, Management in Education System and Organization of Adult Education, Marketing in Education, Key Competences of Adults, Elementary Adult Education, Education of Leaders. e-mail address: salibabi@f.bg.ac.rs

Slađana Anđelković, PhD of Pedagogy, is a Associate Professor at the Faculty of Geography, University of Belgrade. Her teaching and scientific ares are: General Pedagogy and Didactics. e-mail address: slandjelkovic@gmail.com

Radovan Antonijević, PhD of pedagogy, is a Associate Professor for General Pedagogy at the Department for Pedagogy and Andragogy, Faculty of Philosophy, University of Belgrade. His research areas: in-

tellectual education, problem-oriented education and teaching, evaluation in education. e-mail address: radovan.antonijevic@f.bg.ac.rs

Maša Avramović is a PhD student at the Faculty of Philosophy in Belgrade, the Department of Pedagogy and Andragogy. She works as an assistant at the Chair for Preschool Education. Her scientific field is preschool education. In main focus of her interest are child rights and participation, research with children and context in education. e-mail address: masa.avramovic@f.bg.ac.rs

Gerhild Bachmann, PhD of Philosophy, Assistant Professor at the Department of Educational Science at the University of Graz. Her main research interests are: adult and further education, teacher education, school development, evaluation and quality assurance.

Klára Bajusz, PhD, Associate Professor at the Faculty of Adult Education and HRD in University of Pécs, Hungary. Teaching andragogy and pedagogy. Research topics: second chance adult education, functional illiteracy, gerontology education. e-mail address: bajusz.klara@feek.pte.hu

Gordana Budimir-Ninković, PhD of Pedagogy, is aAssociate Professor at the Faculty of Education in Jagodina. Special topics and field teaching: general educational theory, family education, school education, pedagogy of free time. Areas of research and interest: value orientations of children and parents, family and school collaboration, ethical education, free time in education. e-mail address: budimir-ninkovic@yahoo.com

Aleksandar Bulajić is a teaching assistant at the Faculty of Philosophy – Belgrade University (study group for Andragogy). After finishing his master studies in Psychology and Education at the University of Cambridge, he enrolled PhD studies in andragogy at Faculty of Philosophy in Belgrade and currently works on his doctoral thesis. abulajic@f.bg.ac.rs

Irfan Erdogan, PhD of Pedagogy, is a Professor of Education at the Department of Educational Sciences in Hasan Ali Yucel Faculty of Education of Istanbul University. He is specialized on the area of educational policies and comperative education. He is teaching the courses related to educational theories, Turkish educational system, comparative education, school improvement etc. e-mail address: irfan_erdogan@f.bg.ac.rs

Emina Hebib, Phd of pedagogical sciences, is a Associate professor at the Department for Pedagogy and Andragogy, Faculty of Philosophy, University of Belgrade. She teaches courses from School Pedagogy. Her current academic interests focus on Theory and Practice od School Educatino, Education Reform, School Development and School Improvement. e-mail address: ehebib@f.bg.ac.rs

Aleksandra Ilić-Rajković, PhD of Pedagogy, is an assistant at the Faculty of Philosophy in Belgrade. She teaches undergraduate and MA courses in History of Pedagogy and History of Education. Her research interests are focused on history of pedagogy in Serbia, history of textbooks and school reform movements. e-mail address: avilic@f.bg.ac.rs

Aleksandar Janković, PhD of didactic and methodical science, is a Assistant Professor at the Faculty of Education in Sombor. Special topics and field teaching: Teaching methods of in social studies. Areas of research and interest: ICT, methodological problems of teaching science and humanities in lower grades, learning strategies. e-mail address: aleksjankovic@gmail.com

Nada Kačavenda-Radić, PhD of Andragogy, full-time professor at Depertment of Pedagogy and Andragogy Faculty of Philosophy, University of Belgrade. Field of Academic Expertise: Leisure andragogy and Leisure Pedagogy, Communication and Media Andragogy. Field of research: Educational problems of leisure, communication and media, Educational aspect of tourism, Value and value orientations of adults, Recreation of adults. e-mail address: nkacaven@f.bg.ac.rs

Jana Kalin is an associate professor of didactics at the Faculty of Arts of the University of Ljubljana, Slovenia. She performs seminars for teachers from the field of instruction, efficient learning and the role of the class teacher. Her research work encompasses the field of professional development of teachers, the quality of higher education, ability grouping, and the cooperation between school and parents. e-mail address: jana.kalin@guest.arnes.si

Edisa Kecap, a graduate of Andragogy, Research Assistant at Institute of Pedagogy and Andragogy, Faculty of Philosophy, University of Belgrade. Field of Academic Expertise Andragogy, Andragogy of Work. Field of research: Andragogy of Work, Vocational Education of Adults, Quality in Adult Education. e-mail address: edisa.kecap@f.bg.ac.rs

Teréz Kleisz, Phd of Andragogy, is a Associate Professor at the Faculty of Adult Education and Human Resource Development, University of Pécs, Hungary. She is teaching sociology and cultural studies. She has been involved in the few international research and development projects. Research interests: professionalization in community work/social work; adult education; community development. e-mail address: kleisz.terez@feek.pte.hu

Branislava Knežić is a professor at the Department of Pedagogy and Andragogy, Faculty of Philosophy, University of Belgrade, and a research fellow at the Institute for for Criminological and Sociological Research in Belgrade. Her professional interests are in adult education, resocialization of prison inmates, theoretical-methodological issues. e-mail address: branislava.knezic@f.bg.ac.rs

Daniel Kober is a lecturer and researcher at the Faculty of Educational Science at the University of Duisburg-Essen (Germany) with an educational background in adult education, human resources and intercultural training. He coordinates an international network of European universities focused on adult education and delivers trainings for the dvv international e.g. in Kyrgistan and Usbekistan. His research interests include Intercultural Learning, Quality Management, Professionalization and Human Resource Development. e-mail address: daniel.kober@uni-due.de

Živka Krnjaja, PhD of Pedagogy, is a Associate professor of Early Childhood Education on the Faculty of Philosophy, Belgrade University. Her areas of scholarship include curriculum development and evaluation, child play, learning in early childhood, research with children, practitioners research. e-mail address: zivka.krnjaja@f.bg.ac.rs

Ivana Luković is assistant at the Faculty of Philosophy in Belgrade. She teaches undergraduate courses in Introduction to Educational Research and Methods and Techniques of Research in Education. Her research interests are focused on theoretical and methodological problems of pedagogy. e-mail address: ilukovic@f.bg.ac.rs

Bojan Ljujić, research assistant at Institute of Pedagogy and Andragogy, Faculty of Philosophy, University of Belgrade. Field of Academic Experti: Leisure Andragogy and Communication and Media Andragogy. His areas of interest and research activity are: Educational problems of leisure, communication and media, Online education, Play

in education of adults, Games-based Learning, Application of ICT in adult education. e-mail address:

Maja Maksimović is a teaching assistant, Andragogy, History of adult education, Comparative andragogy, Transformative learning. Research interests: Power relations in adult education, Epistemological assumptions in education, Postmodernism, Feminist epistemology, Embodied learning, Transformative learning, Art in education, Discourse analysis, Counselling. e-mail address: mmaksimo@f.bg.ac.rs

Matti Meri, PhD, is the professor emeritus at the University of Helsinki, Department of Teacher Education. He implements his student-centered teaching in Master's thesis guidance and in Teacher as a Researcher seminar within the Subject Teacher Education Programme (STEP). He has researched and helped in developing school systems and teacher education in Germany, Netherlands, Austria, Serbia, Switzerland, etc. His main research interests are curriculum development, latent curriculum and pedagogical tact. e-mail address: matti.mari@helsinki.fi

Dubravka Mihajlović, M.A., research-assistant at Institute of Pedagogy and Andragogy, Faculty of Philosophy, University of Belgrade. Field of Academic Expertise: Andragogy, Andragogy of Work. Field of research and interest: Andragogy of Work, Vocational Education of Adults, Quality in Education, Career Management. e-mail address: dubravka.mihajlovic@f.bg.ac.rs

Kristina Pekeč is a graduate andragogist, working as an assistant in the Department of Andragogy at the Faculty of Philosophy, University of Belgrade. Durring her professional career she was involved in teaching different subjects: Adult learning, Adult education and work, Vocational adult education, General andragogy and Didactics of adult learning. Her field of interest is research on the relation between education and work. e-mail address: kpekec@f.bg.ac.rs

Radmila Milovanović, PhD of psychology, is a Assistant Professor at the Faculty of Education in Jagodina. Special topics and field teaching: Medical and psychological science. Areas of research and interest: communication and interaction in educational work, mental health, life crisis. e-mail address: andjeloo@beotel.net

Milica Mitrović, PhD of Pedagogy, is an assistant professor at the Department for Pedagogy and Andragogy, Faculty of Philosophy, University

in Belgrade. She teaches courses from didactics and has experience in qualitative research educational practice. Published papers in the areas of language, literacy and teaching/learning in the postmodern tradition. e-mail address: mimitrov@f.bg.ac.rs

Lidija Miškeljin, Phd of pedagogical sciences, is a Assistant professor in the field of Preschool pedagogy at the Department for Pedagogy and Andragogy, Faculty of Philosophy, University of Belgrade. Main field of interest are the Theory and Practice of Kindergarten, Action Research and Narrative-Discursive Analysis. e-mail address: lidija.miskeljin@f.bg.ac.rs

Balázs Németh is an associate professor in Adult and Lifelong Learning at the University of Pécs and head of Institute of Adult Education. Dr. Németh is a teacher and researcher on adult and lifelong learning policy development and comparative adult education, and has participated several comparative surveys on adult learning policies, quality development of adult learning (in partnership with Panteia) and on roles and missions of higher education to open towards adult learners (in partnership with DIE-Bonn). e-mail address: balazs@feek.pte.hu

Tamara Nikolić-Maksić is a teaching assistant, Andragogy, Leisure Andragogy, Andragogy of Communication and Media, Online Learning. Research interests: Adult education and leisure, Media literacy and education, Communication skills, Counseling skills, Human relations in education, Educational aspects of play, improvisation and creativity, Online learning, Transformative learning. e-mail address: tamara.nikolic@f.bg.ac.rs

Tatjana Novović, Phd of pedagogical sciences, is a Assistant professor in the field of Pre-school pedagogy at the Faculty of Philosophy, Nikšić, University of Montenegro. Field of her research work and professional interest: Preschool Pedagogy, Intercultural Pedagogy, and Inclusive education. e-mail address: tabo@t-com.me

Violeta Orlović-Lovren is a Assistant Professor, ⬚Department for Andragogy. Teaching in the field of strategy and methods of adult teaching, professional development of teachers in adult education. Research interests in instructional design, teacher training methodology, environmental education of adults, sustainability. e-mail address: violeta.orlovic@f.bg.ac.rs

Kristinka Ovesni, PhD of Andragogy, is a assistant professor at the Department for Pedagogy and Andragogy, Faculty of Philosophy, University of Belgrade. Her teaching areas: Planning of Adult Education, Human Resource Development, Learning Organization. Scientific areas: Adult Learning, Human Resource Development, Human Resource Management, Organizational Development, Learning Organization, Organizational Learning, Knowledge Management, Professionalization. e-mail address: kovesni@f.bg.ac.rs

Dragana Pavlovic-Breneselović, PhD of Pedagogy, is a Associate professor of Early Childhood Education on the Faculty of Philosophy, Belgrade University. Her areas of scholarship include early childhood education, family-school partnership, research with children, systemic change in education, teacher professional development. e-mail address: dbrenese@f.bg.ac.rs

Aleksandra Pejatović is an assistant professor at the Faculty of Philosophy University of Belgrade (Serbia), at the Department for Pedagogy and Andragogy. At the Study group for Andragogy she teaches on the following courses: Andragogy of Work; Vocational Adult Education and Training; Quality in Adult Education, Career Counseling and Guidance etc. As an expert she has worked on a number of EU project mostly related to vocational adult education. e-mail address: apejatov@f.bg.ac.rs

Lidija Radulovic, PhD of pedagogy, is an assistant professor in Teacher Education Center at Faculty of Philosophy in Belgrade. She is experienced in teaching and researching in the field of teacher education, professional development and reflective practice of teachers. She is an author and co-author of several educational programs, as well as 3 books, 4 teacher's handbooks and several articles in books and journals. e-mail address: liradulo@f.bg.ac.rs

Maja Savić is an assistant professor at the Faculty of Philology, University of Belgrade, and a research associate at the Institute for Criminological and Sociological Research in Belgrade. Her professional interests are in educational and developmental psychology. e-mail address: smaya@eunet.rs

Mirjana Senić Ružić is a PhD student at the Faculty of Philosophy in Belgrade, the Department of Pedagogy and Andragogy. She works as an assistant at the Chair for General Pedagogy, Methodology and History of Pedagogy. Her areas of interest and research activity are: infor-

mation technology in education, e-learning, contemporary conceptions of education, systems of education, foreign language teaching methodology. e-mail address: mirjana.senic@f.bg.ac.rs

Nataša Simić is currently at the fourth year of her Ph.D. studies and works as a Research assistant at the Faculty of Philosophy. Her main field of interest is teacher education and professional counselling. e-mail address: nsimic@f.bg.ac.rs

Vera Spasenović, Phd of pedagogical sciences, is a Associate professor at the Department for Pedagogy and Andragogy, Faculty of Philosophy, University of Belgrade. She teaches courses from School Pedagogy. Her current academic interests focus on Comparative Analyses of National Education Systems, Comparative Perspectives of International Education Reform, and Education System in Serbia. e-mail address: vspaseno@f.bg.ac.rs

Milan Stančić, PhD candidate of pedagogy at Faculty of Philosophy in Belgrade. Works as a research assistant at Institute for pedagogy and andragogy and is engaged in teaching pedagogical courses at Faculty's Teacher Education Centre. His main fields of interest are teacher profession and teacher education, evaluation and quality in education. e-mail address: mstancic@f.bg.ac.rs

Zorica Stanisavljević Petrović, PhD of Pedagogy, is a Associate Professor at the Department for Pedagogy, Faculty of Philosophy, University of Ni[. Her teaching and scientific ares are: Preshool Pedagogy, School Pedagogy.

Milena Valenčič-Zuljan is a full professor of didactics at the Faculty of Education of the University in Ljubljana, Slovenia. She is active in researching students' conceptions of teaching and knowledge, differentiation and individualization of the lessons; her interest is in didactic innovation and cognitive constructivist teaching model, factors and models of a teacher's professional development as well as the mentoring process. e-mail address: milena.valencic-zuljan@guest.arnes.si

Lidija Vujičić, Ph.D. is an associate professor at the Faculty of Teacher Education of the University of Rijeka. She teaches at both the undergraduate and graduate levels of the university study of Early and Preschool Care and Education. Her research interests encompass early and preschool care and education, the new childhood paradigm, kin

dergarten culture, curricula and the initial training and professional development of teachers. e-mail address: lidija@ufri.hr

Nataša Vujisić – Živković, Ph.D. in Pedagogy, is a Associate Professor at the Faculty of Philosophy in Belgrade. She teaches several subjects from the field of History of Education and Teacher Education. Her main areas of research and interests are History and Epistemology of Pedagogy and Comparative, Historical and Ethical Aspects of Teacher Education. e-mail address: nvujisic@f.bg.ac.rs