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EDUCATIONAL ISSUES

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Uvodna riječ urednika

Dragi autori, suradnici i svi ljubitelji znanstvene riječi,

prije svega želimo zahvaliti autorima što prepoznaju ovaj časopis kao vrijedan prezentacije uloženog truda pri provedbi svojih znanstvenih istraživanja te čitateljima koji ga prepoznaju kao kvalitetno znanstveno štivo za proučavanje. Kako je broj pristiglih radova na uredništvo svakim danom sve veći, vjerujemo da je časopis *Educational issues / Odgojno-obrazovne teme* pronašao svoje mjesto u znanstvenoj zajednici i da koračamo u smjeru kvalitete.

Četvrtu godinu redovitog objavljivanja znanstvenih članaka zaključujemo ovim drugim sveskom časopisa. Pred vama je broj nešto drugačiji od ostalih – opusom obilniji, a autorski doprinosi ukazuju na raznovrsnost potreba za problematiziranjem odgojnih i obrazovnih tema u najširem smislu. Istraženo je kako videoigre utječu na učenje hrvatskog jezika, zatim su istražene kreativne vještine osnovnoškolaca pa procjene učitelja i logopeda/audiorehabilitatora o funkcioniranju učenika s govorno-jezičnim poremećajima i učenika s oštećenjem sluha s obzirom na utjecaj socijalne podrške roditelja. Istraženi su i izazovi stimuliranja autorefleksivnosti u sveučilišnoj nastavi, kao i stavovi odgajatelja prema suradnji s roditeljima te mišljenja učenika sportaša o dvojnoj karijeri u hrvatskim srednjim školama i kako krvožilni sustav reagira na sjedilačke navike studenata.

Nadamo se da će kvaliteta objavljenih znanstvenih članaka zadovoljiti vaša očekivanja te da će vam se svidjeti bogata praksa istraživanja i promišljanja.

Uredništvo

Vilko i Lucija

Editors' Preface

Dear authors, associates and all lovers of the scientific word,

First of all, we would like to thank the authors for recognizing this journal as valuable for the presentation of their efforts in conducting their scientific research, as well as all others who recognize it as a quality scientific reading material. As the number of papers submitted to the Editorial Board is growing every day, it gives us the right to believe that the journal *Educational Issues* has found its place in the scientific community and that we are moving in the direction of quality.

We conclude the fourth year of publication of scientific articles with this second issue of the journal this year. The issue in front of you is somewhat different from the others, more abundant in its oeuvre, and the author's contributions indicate the diversity of needs for problematizing educational topics in the broadest sense. Some of the topics that have been investigated are: how video games affect the learning of the Croatian language; the creative skills of primary school students; assessments of teachers and speech therapists / audio-rehabilitators on the functioning of students with speech and language disorders and students with hearing impairment with regard to the impact of parental social support; challenges of stimulating autoreflexivity in tertiary teaching; educators' attitudes towards cooperation with parents; the opinion of student athletes on dual careers in Croatian secondary schools; and how the circulatory system responds to students' sedentary habits.

We hope that the quality of the published scientific articles will meet your expectations, and that you will enjoy the rich practice of research and reflection.

*Editors,
Vilko & Lucija*

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EDUKATIVNE RAČUNALNE IGRE U NASTAVI HRVATSKOGA JEZIKA

Sažetak

Igra je čovjeku urođena, ugodna i slobodna aktivnost, te je stoga jedna od metoda i strategija suvremenoga nastavnog procesa. Igra čini nastavu zanimljivijom, motivira učenike, povećava njihovu pažnju i koncentraciju te lakše i brže usvajanje obrazovnoga sadržaja, osobito apstraktnoga sadržaja kao što je jezik. Iako već ranije započeto, pandemijsko je vrijeme doprinijelo sve većoj uporabi računala i računalnih igara u nastavi. Upravo zato željeli smo istražiti povećava li uspjeh u učenju jezičnih sadržaja uporaba motivacijske računalne igre te ispitati stavove učenika i učitelja o igri u nastavi te o uporabi edukativnih računalnih igara (N = 47). Kako smo i očekivali, dobiveni su rezultati pokazali kako učenici imaju pozitivan stav o igri u nastavi te o računalnoj igri, ali da se u nastavi Hrvatskoga jezika igraju tek ponekad iako se u igri osjećaju uzbuđeno, dobro i ugodno te tako lakše uče. Ipak, provedba motivacijske igre nije pokazala značajan uspjeh u jezičnome znanju učenika.

Ključne riječi: didaktička igra; Hrvatski jezik; računalna igra; učenje

EDUCATIONAL COMPUTER GAMES IN CROATIAN LANGUAGE TEACHING

Katarina Aladrović Slovaček, Iva Tomić

Summary:

Play is innate to human beings, it is both a pleasurable and a free activity and therefore it is one of the methods and strategies of the modern teaching process. Play makes teaching more interesting, motivates students, increases their attention and concentration, and makes acquiring teaching content easier and faster, especially if we consider abstract content, such as language. Even though using computers in teaching had already been a common practice before the pandemic, using computers and computer games has become even more common since the start of the pandemic. For this reason, it was the goal of this research to examine if there is a correlation between success in learning language content and using a motivational computer game, and also, to examine students' and teachers' attitudes towards play in class and using educational computer games. As expected, the obtained results showed that students have a positive attitude towards play in class and towards computer games, but, that they only rarely play in Croatian language classes even though, while playing, they feel excited, well and comfortable and learn more easily. However, implementing a motivational game did not result in a significant success when it comes to students' language knowledge.

Key words: computer game, Croatian, educational game; learning

1. Uvod

Igra je prva aktivnost kojom se dijete uvodi u svijet odraslih, u igri se dijete socijalizira, uči se prvim aktivnostima i radnjama, ali i vrijednostima. Čovjek je *homo ludens*, biće koje se igra, odnosno, ne možemo odvojiti igru od djeteta jer mu je ona prirodna aktivnost i koristi se njome gotovo cijeli život, samo u različitim dobnim i životnim fazama na različite načine. U vrtićkoj dobi djeca se uz pomoć igre uče prikladno ponašati, u igri doživljavaju svijet i uspostavljaju odnose s drugima. U školi se nastavlja taj vid učenja, ali igra poprima i oblik učenja novih obrazovnih sadržaja. Istraživanja uporabe igre u nastavi (Pavličević-Franić, 2005; Velički i Peti Stantić, 2009; Aladrović Slovaček, 2018) pokazala su kako igra povećava motivaciju, omogućuje ugodnije okruženje, uz igru brže prolazi vrijeme te je učenici vole jer zapravo nisu svjesni da istovremeno uče. Danas su sve popularnije računalne igre s kojima se djeca susreću još u predškolskoj dobi. Budući da prosječno predškolsko dijete pred ekranom provede dnevno tijekom tjedna oko dva sata, a vikendom i više, može se reći da su djeca itekako upoznata sa svijetom računalnih igara, no postavlja se pitanje koliko su sve te igre, kojima se djeca koriste u toj dobi, zapravo i edukativne. U vrijeme pandemije koronavirusa koja traje već gotovo jednu i pol godinu, djeca su još i više okrenuta ekranima i njihovoj uporabi u svakodnevnom životu, ali i u obrazovanju jer je i nastava, čak i u mlađim razredima osnovne škole, nekoliko mjeseci bila isključivo u *online* obliku. Stečene računalne kompetencije svakako su u tome razdoblju svakome djetetu bile dobrodošle. No, iako se prividno čini da digitalni urođenici (Spitzer, 1997; Aladrović Slovaček i Čosić, 2020) bez poteškoća ovladavaju računalnim sadržajima, to često nije baš tako, odnosno ne snalaze se svi učenici jednako dobro na računalu i igranje igara ili gledanje YouTubea ne znači znatno bolju računalnu kompetenciju. S obzirom na sve navedeno, željeli smo ovim istraživanjem ispitati stavove učenika i učitelja o igri kao nastavnoj strategiji, ali i ispitati povećava li uporaba motivacijske računalne jezične igre uspjeh u obrazovnome sadržaju, odnosno utječe li na konkretno jezično znanje učenika. Upravo se igra nameće kao važna tema koja može učiniti učenje svrsishodnijim, zanimljivijim i ugodnijim, što u cjelokupnoj situaciji kada se škola doživljava u vrlo negativnome kontekstu, itekako ima svoju svrhu i smisao.

2. O igrama

Fenomenom igre bavili su se brojni autori i teoretičari: Nizozemac J. Huizinga (20. stoljeće) smatrao je da je potreba za igrom jedna od važnijih osobina čovjeka i društva, a ispunjena je ritmom i harmonijom; socijalni darvinist H. Spencer (19. stoljeće) smatrao je da čovjek troši energiju na igru jer je ima mnogo pa ju ne može potrošiti na zadovoljenje primarnih potreba; francuski psiholog J. Piaget smatrao je da je igra u međuzavisnom odnosu s intelektualnim razvojem djeteta. J. A. Komensky, čovjek koji se smatra utemeljiteljem didaktike, granom pedagogije koja se bavi teorijom obrazovanja, smatrao je da igru što prije treba afirmirati u obrazovne svrhe (osobito kao natjecateljsku djelatnost) (Pavličević-Franić i dr., 2011). M. Duran (1997) i K. Aladrović Slovaček (2018) smatraju da je igra određena kulturom te M. Duran daje pregled igara svojstvenih djeci hrvatske i novozelandske kulture.

Pojam igre široko se primjenjuje u društvenim i humanističkim znanostima, no ne postoji jedinstvena definicija igre. Ipak, svaki se čovjek zna igrati i zna igru prepoznati jer ona je jedna od osnovnih ljudskih aktivnosti. Ona je čovjeku urođena aktivnost, prati ga od rođenja, a u djetinjstvu mu je najvažnija i najpotrebnija jer dijete u igri uči sve ono što mu je potrebno za život. Od hodanja i govorenja, različitih društvenih normi i obrazaca do toga kako savladati emocionalne probleme, i to sve u spontanoj igri, u kojoj je učenje neosviješteno, ali trajno prisutno. Na taj mu način pomaže da se lakše uklopi u društvo (Britton, 2000). Dakle, igra čovjeku pruža intelektualni, duhovni, tjelesni, emocionalni i socijalni razvoj. Prema tome, u literaturi se igra obično dijeli na funkcionalnu, simboličku i formalnu. Funkcionalna igra podrazumijeva ovladavanje određenim motoričkim, osjetnim i perceptivnim sposobnostima (npr. bacanje lopte), simbolička igra uči budućim ulogama (npr. djevojčice se igraju lutkama čime se pripremaju za buduću ulogu majke), a formalna igra regulirana je pravilima i u njoj se pojedinci natječu (npr. *Čovječe, ne ljuti se*).

Svaka je igra strukturirana aktivnost – ima svoja pravila i zakonitosti, samo što u svim onim „neformalnim“ igrama pravila dolaze iznutra, iz umova igrača, pa na taj način igra ostavlja prostora za razvoj kreativnosti i fleksibilnosti, ali i zahtijeva rješavanje problema, poput dogovora oko pravila ako igrača ima više.

Osim što dijete uči u igri, važno je naglasiti da je ona za dijete „ugodna, dobrovoljna, smisljena i spontano odabrana aktivnost“ (Britton, 2000, 19). Njome do izražaja dolazi urođena dječja radoznalost, ali i osjetljivost, fizička aktivnost i potreba za suradnjom i zajedništvom među sudionicima, čime dijete stječe nove spoznaje o sebi i ljudima općenito, prerađivanjem, predstavljanjem ili zamišljanjem (Aladrović Slovaček i dr., 2013). U skladu s izrečenim, igra je pogodan medij za prezentiranje različitih sadržaja primjerenih djeci, a osobito edukativnih sadržaja primjerenih djeci rane školske dobi.

2.1. Računalne igre

S pojavom i napretkom tehnologije, pojavljuje se i računalna igra (videoigra), čija povijest započinje u petom desetljeću 20. stoljeća u istraživačkim laboratorijima američkih, a kasnije i britanskih sveučilišta. Neke su od poznatijih prvih računalnih igara: *Nim* iz 1940. godine; prva verzija igre križić kružić iz 1952.; *Tennis for Two*, prva računalna igra dostupna javnosti, iz 1958. godine; *Spacewar!*, prva utjecajna računalna igra, iz 1962. godine te *Pong* iz 1972. godine¹. Sve ove igre, kao i ostale računalne igre, u svojim počecima bile su namijenjene zabavi. Međutim, kako su se sve brže nastavile razvijati i bivale sve popularnije, a time i dostupnije široj javnosti, pojavljuju se i računalne igre i programi, kojima je uz zabavu, glavna namjena učenje. Takvi programi nazivaju se edukativni softveri, a za njihovu je izradu potrebno okupiti tim od najmanje troje ljudi: metodičara, predmetnoga stručnjaka i programera. Pedagog također ima veliku ulogu u stvaranju edukativnoga softvera (Vučković i dr., 2004). Svi oni „zajedno moraju integrirati i uskladiti sve načine na koje učenik može učiti, sve načine na koje se materija može izložiti i sve mogućnosti koje tehnologija može ponuditi, a u svrhu izrade pristupačne i ‘izazovne’ obrazovne okoline“ (Vučković i dr., 2004; str. 6–7, Aladrović Slovaček, 2018).

S pojavom interneta interes za njima raste sve više pa danas postoji velik broj različitih edukativnih softvera i računalnih igara, a sami učenici provode puno vremena igrajući računalne igre. Iako se računalna igra razlikuje od igre u interakciji s drugim vršnjacima, ono što im je zajedničko jest koncentriranost, sabranost i kreativnost djeteta (Đurić, 2009). Dakle, kada se igra, dijete

¹ <https://www.museumofplay.org/about/icheg/video-gamehistory/timeline>

nema poteškoća s koncentracijom, kao što je to danas čest slučaj u nastavi zbog užurbanoga načina života. Osim toga, današnji su učenici digitalni urođenici i računalne su igre medij koji dobro poznaju i u kojem stvarno uživaju, a „obrazovanje pomoću modernih interaktivnih medija znatno (je) kvalitetnije u odnosu na klasične metode obrazovanja“ jer se „digitalizirane informacije mogu lakše montirati potpomognute slikom, animacijom i zvukom“ pa „istovremeno djeluju na više osjetila dajući potpunu informaciju“ (Nadrljanski i dr., 2007, str. 528). Iz tih razloga škola ne bi trebala izostaviti takve aktivnosti, već ih iskoristiti i time interes učenika za računalnim igrama usmjeriti k usvajanju novih sadržaja ili ponavljanju i uvježbavanju već naučenih.

Zadatak je edukativnih računalnih igara učenicima olakšati usvajanje obrazovnih sadržaja te učiniti učenje što zanimljivijim i bržim, ali i omogućiti aktivno sudjelovanje učenika u nastavnom procesu, čime je zadovoljeno načelo interaktivnosti, te uvijek dati učeniku povratnu informaciju povezanu s njegovim radom i napretkom. „Učenje putem računalne igre otkriva nove načine dizajna nastave pomoću informatičke i komunikacijske tehnologije i istovremeno pruža učenicima mogućnost stjecanja vještina i sposobnosti potrebnih za budućnost.“ (Mirković, 2012). U nastavi se računalne igre, kao i bilo koje druge, mogu rabiti pri ponavljanju, uvježbavanju ili usvajanju novoga sadržaja, i to u bilo kojem dijelu sata, a kod učenika moraju poticati aktivnost, razmišljanje, pamćenje i brzinu te pozitivno utjecati na sposobnost mišljenja, zaključivanja, rješavanja problema te na sposobnost snalaženja u novim situacijama. Istraživanja (European Schoolnet, 2009 i Bernik, Bubaš, 2018 prema Bediou i dr., 2018, Roje Đapić i sur., 2020) potvrđuju pozitivne učinke igranja videoigara na području percepcije, pozornosti i prostornoga opažanja te uporabu računalnih igara u nastavi kao vrlo motivirajuće.

Osim gotovih edukativnih softvera i igara, postoje internetski portali za izradu različitih edukativnih igara koje nastavnici mogu koristiti za kreiranje vlastitih računalnih igara za spoznavanje, vježbanje ili ponavljanje određenoga obrazovnog sadržaja i time upotpuniti svoj nastavni sat. Oni nude razne gotove predloške nekih igara i kvizova u koje samo treba implementirati odgojno-obrazovni sadržaj koji učitelj poučava. Primjeri takvih portala su *Kahoot!*, *Quizlet*, *Padlet*, *Quizizz* te *Wordwall*, koji je korišten i za potrebe ovoga rada, u istraživanju.

2.2. Didaktičke igre

Igra koja za cilj ima poučiti nečemu naziva se didaktičkom igrom i jedna je od važnih elemenata suvremene pedagogije. Osim što je oblikovana svim didaktičkim elementima i strategijama, ona povećava motivaciju, zahtijeva aktivno sudjelovanje sudionika, čime povećava njihovu pažnju i koncentraciju te čini učenje zanimljivijim. Kako je igra djeci ugodna aktivnost, poželjno je i važno rabiti je u nastavnome procesu, i to u obliku didaktičke igre, osobito kod djece mlađe školske dobi, kada se njihovo učenje odvija od konkretnih spoznaja k apstraktnima, od poznatoga k nepoznatom. U tome slučaju upravo je igra ta poznata, konkretna, ali i za njih korisna situacija. Ako je učenik motiviran da nauči nešto korisno, upotrebljavat će više kognitivne procese, a time će znanje biti i dugoročnije, te će usvojiti puno više sadržaja nego učenik koji je manje motiviran (Aladrović i dr., 2013). Na taj način didaktička igra rezultira uspjehom, praćena je zadovoljstvom, osjećajem ugode, ispunjena je ritmom i harmonijom te tako olakšava učenje većega broja informacija (Pavličević-Franić, 2005, Aladrović Slovaček, 2018). Za djecu je to svakako najzabavniji oblik učenja jer imaju dojam da se igraju, a ne uče, pa tako ujedno i razvijaju pozitivan stav o sadržaju koji usvajaju, a koji, sam za sebe, često za njih može biti apstraktan i nezanimljiv.

Dodatan je značaj igre što olakšava frustracijske situacije, rješava konflikte i oslobađa od napetosti. U igri učenici mogu slobodno isprobavati, istraživati i pokušavati nešto novo pa su tako slobodni i pogriješiti, a time i eksperimentirati bez da ih itko osuđuje zbog grešaka. Stoga je u didaktičkoj igri proces važniji od produkta igre.

Vrlo je jednostavno gotovo bilo koju igru pretvoriti u didaktičku. Potrebno je samo implementirati ili preoblikovati odgojno-obrazovni sadržaj u određenu igru, pritom imajući u vidu što se želi postići igrom. Tako u nastavi učiteljice i učitelji moraju znati za što igru rabe, a mogu ju upotrijebiti za usvajanje novoga sadržaja, ponavljanje, uvježbavanje ili kao uvod u novi obrazovni sadržaj, te u bilo kojem dijelu sata (Aladrović Slovaček, 2018).

2.3. Jezične igre

Učenje jezika kao apstraktnoga sustava znakova i pravila kojim djeca trebaju ovladati kako bi mogla dalje usvajati znanja, slati i primati misli, poruke i ideje, iskazivati osjećaje i socijalizirati se (Šego, 2009), iziskuje igru. Već od svojega rođenja djeca u spontanoj igri uče jezik i govor, kao i ostale vještine, sposobnosti i znanja. U takvoj je spontanoj igri učenje neosviješteno, bilo da dijete usvaja nove pojmove ili razvija maštu, osjećajnost ili razumijevanje međuljudskih odnosa. Ta spontanost i neosviještenost ono je što treba zadržati u svim igrama koje se provode u nastavi jer bez toga igra prestaje biti igrom (Aladrović Slovaček i dr., 2013).

U ranome je poučavanju jezika osobito važno provoditi igru kako bi djeca na temelju konkretnih primjera usvojila jezične sadržaje. Kao djeci imanentna i prirodna aktivnost, igra se pokazuje kao dobra metoda za učenje jezičnih sadržaja, što potvrđuju provedena istraživanja (Pavličević-Franić i dr., 2011. prema Pavličević, 1996, Miljević-Ridički i dr., 2004, Velički i Peti-Stantić, 2009, Pavličević-Franić i Aladrović Slovaček, 2011): učenici se u nastavi jezika vole igrati, a obrazovni sadržaj usvajaju brže i lakše učeći u igri. Igra jezikom, koji je jedan od načina sporazumijevanja, prenošenja informacija, ideja, želja i osjećaja, također je prirodna ljudska aktivnost. Ona pruža uživanje u igranju samome, u kretanju, izgovaranju i sporazumijevanju s drugima pa je zato važan segment u procesu socijalizacije djeteta, čime ima multifunkcionalnu ulogu u odrastanju (Aladrović Slovaček, 2011).

Autorice Peti-Stantić i Velički (2009) jezične igre definiraju kao prostor u kojemu se i odrasli i djeca oslobađaju u vlastitome jeziku, u kojemu uživaju intuitivno ovladavajući pravilima i stječući sposobnost kako postupiti u skladu s pravilima ili ih prekršiti. Cilj je jezičnih igara ovladavanje jezikom i njegovim sadržajima u različitim igrama koje potiču pisano i usmeno izražavanje te pomažu djeci ovladati sadržajima iz gramatike i pravopisa, koji su djeci u toj dobi apstraktni i, izvan konteksta, neshvatljivi. Jezične su igre iznimno dobar način razvijanja jezično-komunikacijske kompetencije, a to i jest temeljni cilj nastave Hrvatskoga jezika jer djeca igrajući se uče i oponašajući situacije iz života razvijaju svoje jezične sposobnosti i na taj način razvijaju svijest o dobrome govorenju, pisanju, čitanju i razumijevanju. Upravo je zbog toga potrebno djecu poučavati u igri, osobito u ranome poučavanju materinskoga jezika, kako bi na

lakši, jednostavniji i zanimljiviji način učili jezične sadržaje koji im predstavljaju problem ili su zahtjevni i suhoparni (Pavličević-Franić i dr., 2011).

Bilo koja funkcionalna, simbolička i formalna igra, ili pak njihova kombinacija, mogu poslužiti kao predložak za jezičnu igru koja se može rabiti za motivaciju učenika za učenje jezika, obradu ili ponavljanje i uvježbavanje određenih jezičnih sadržaja. Učenici se tako istovremeno igraju i nesvjesno uče, što stvara pozitivno razredno ozračje. Jezična se igra može rabiti u svim dijelovima sata jer će uvijek u nastavu unijeti dinamiku i učiniti je zanimljivijom, poticati natjecateljski duh i razvijati različite sposobnosti, a učenici će biti aktivni sudionici nastavnoga procesa (Aladrović Slovaček, 2018). Na učiteljima je da odaberu određenu igru i dio sata u kojem se provodi, imajući u vidu što njome treba postići te prilagođujući je dobi i intelektualnim sposobnostima svojih učenika. S obzirom na to da su u 21. stoljeću vrlo zastupljene digitalne igre te je vrlo jednostavno napraviti digitalne jezične igre, poželjno je da se i učitelji njima koriste u nastavi jer njihovom primjenom mogu lakše doprijeti do novih generacija učenika koji se služe digitalnim igrama od rođenja.

3. Istraživanje

Primjena igre u nastavi poznata je već gotovo cijelo stoljeće te je njezina važnost u obrazovnome sustavu istaknuta u velikome broju istraživanja (Duran, 1997; Pavličević-Franić, 2005; Aladrović Slovaček, 2018). Ipak, promjene u obrazovnome sustavu te pandemijska situacija koja prati dvije prošle školske godine i premještanje dijela nastave u *online* oblik, pokazuju sve veću potrebu za uporabom računalnih igara kao načina učenja, ponavljanja ili motiviranja učenika na svim razinama obrazovanja, a osobito u mlađim razredima osnovne škole. S obzirom na to da se često raspravlja o korisnosti i štetnosti uporabe ekrana, u pitanje se dovodi i sve veća upotreba računala u nastavi. Naime, generacije digitalnih urođenika s ekranima se upoznaju već u vrlo ranoj dobi jer na pametnim telefonima, tabletima, računalima i televizorima gledaju crtane filmove, igraju računalne igrice, prate različite *youtubere*, uz pomoć aplikacija uče strane jezike pa čak i u ranoj školskoj dobi prate društvene mreže. Sve navedeno pokazuje kako je rad na računalu blizak mlađim generacijama, te se očekuje da u školskoj dobi započnu s ozbiljnijim upoznavanjem rada na

računalu te naravno uporabom resursa koje pružaju različite aplikacije, mreže i alati.

3.1. Opis uzorka i instrumenta istraživanja

Kako bi se ispitano jesu li računalne igre dobar način motiviranja učenja za učenje Hrvatskoga jezika te jesu li svrhovite i polučuje li njihova uporaba uspjeh učenika, napravljeno je istraživanje u drugome razredu osnovne škole u trima odjeljenjima jedne zagrebačke osnovne škole. U istraživanju je sudjelovalo 47 učenika, od toga 49 % djevojčica i 51 % dječaka. Ispitanici su podijeljeni u dvije skupine, eksperimentalnu i kontrolnu. U eksperimentalnoj skupini proveden je sat ponavljanja i vježbanja glasovne analize i sinteze, te rastavljanje riječi na slogove u obliku računalne igre osmišljene za tu skupinu učenika. U kontrolnoj skupini također je napravljen sat ponavljanja, no bez uporabe računala. U eksperimentalnoj skupini sudjelovalo je od ukupnoga broja 43 %, a u kontrolnoj skupini 57 % ispitanika. Računalna jezična igra napravljena je u ranije spomenutom alatu za izradu nastavnih materijala i igara – Wordwallu kako bi se usustavilo znanje o slovima i glasovima hrvatskoga jezika. U igri je zadatak bio fotografije ili slike s riječima rasporediti u određenu skupinu, ovisno o tome je li riječ koju prikazuje fotografija ili slika jednosložna, dvosložna, trosložna ili višesložna. U gornjem lijevom kutu učenici su mogli pratiti vrijeme, a nakon što su poslali svoje odgovore, dobili su povratnu informaciju o točnosti te ljestvicu poretka s imenima onih koji su igrali. Nakon provedene igre učenici su odgovorili na pet pitanja iz Upitnika o stavovima koji je kreiran za potrebe ovoga istraživanja, a njime se željelo ispitati koliko učenici vole igru, koliko vole igrati računalne i jezične igre te su trebali vrednovati provedenu igru. Također, s objema skupinama proveden je kratki test znanja od pet zadataka čiji bi rezultati trebali pokazati koja je motivacija bila uspješnija. U istraživanju je *Kolmogorov-Smirnovim z-testom* utvrđeno da je riječ o nepravilnoj raspodjeli podataka ($p < 0,05$) te su zbog toga upotrijebljeni testovi neparametrijske statistike (*Mann Whitneyev U- test*).

3.2. Ciljevi i hipoteze istraživanja

Glavni je cilj ovoga istraživanja bio ispitati utječe li računalna jezična igra kao motivacija na usvojenost sadržaja nastavnoga predmeta Hrvatski jezik kod učenika mlađih razreda osnovne škole.

U skladu s temeljnim ciljem postavljene su sljedeći problemi:

1. Ispitati stavove učenika o uporabi didaktičke igre u nastavi, osobito nastavi Hrvatskoga jezika.
2. Ispitati stavove učenika o uporabi edukativnih računalnih igara u nastavi.
3. Ispitati povezanost provedbe računalne motivacijske igre sa znanjem učenika.
4. Ispitati postoji li značajna razlika u stavovima i uspjehu s obzirom na spol.
5. Ispitati stavove učitelja o igri u nastavi.

S postavljenim ciljem i problemima istraživanja povezane su sljedeće hipoteze istraživanja:

1. Očekuje se da će učenici imati pozitivan stav o igri u nastavi jer je igra, kao djetetu prirodna aktivnost, i ugodna, dobrovoljna i spontano odabrana aktivnost. Također se očekuje da su učenici mlađih razreda osnovne škole otvoreni za igru u svim predmetima, pa tako i Hrvatskome jeziku.
2. Očekuje se da će učenici imati pozitivan stav o igranju edukativnih računalnih igara u nastavi jer su danas djeca od rođenja izložena računalnim igrama te su im one poznato okruženje.
3. Očekuje se da će motivacijska igra biti povezana s rezultatima učenika u poznavanju sadržaja. Naime, očekuje se da će ispitanici eksperimentalne skupine imati bolje rezultate testa znanja u odnosu na ispitanike kontrolne skupine. Rezultati eksperimentalne skupine bit će bolji od rezultata kontrolne skupine jer se uz pomoć računalne igre koja je učenicima bliska povećava motivacija, učenici aktivno sudjeluju te se povećava njihova koncentracija i pažnja.

4. Očekuje se da će djevojčice imati bolje rezultate testa znanja od dječaka te da će se dječacima više sviđati igra nego djevojčicima jer su dječaci općenito razvojno mlađi od djevojčica.
5. Očekuje se da učitelji prepoznaju dobrobiti igre u nastavi, no i da ističu kako je za pripremu igre potrebno dosta vremena te je stoga nerijetko rabe u svojoj nastavnoj praksi, kako u svim drugim predmetima, tako i u Hrvatskome jeziku.

3.3. Rezultati

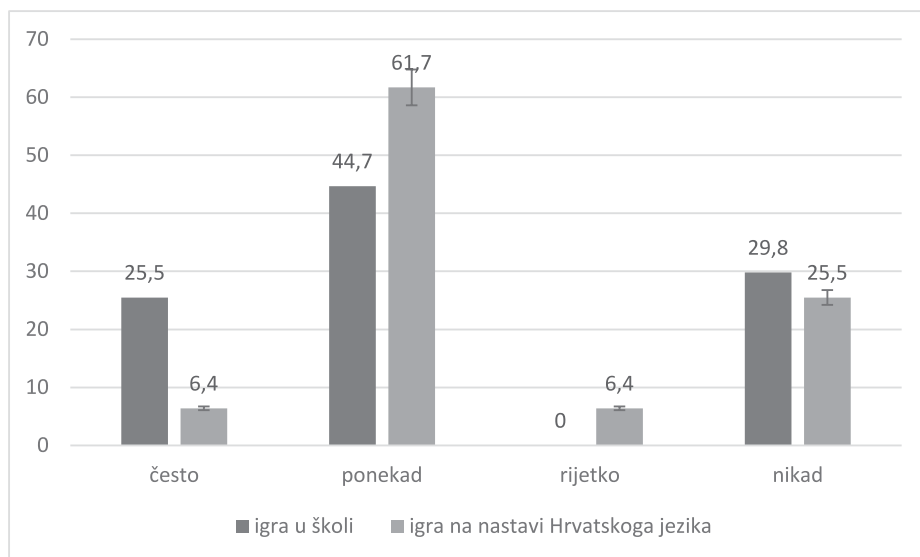
Prvi cilj istraživanja bio je ispitati stavove učenika o uporabi igre u nastavi s posebnim fokusom na nastavu Hrvatskoga jezika. Kako je i očekivano, rezultati su pokazali da se 95,7 % učenika voli igrati, dok se ostali ponekad vole igrati.

Ipak, zanimljiviji je drugi rezultat koji je pokazao da se u nastavi često igra samo 25,5 % učenika, 44,7 % izjavilo je da se igra ponekad, a 29,8 % da se u nastavi uopće ne igra. Budući da je riječ o učenicima drugoga razreda osnovne škole koji su u školskoj godini 2020./2021. radili prema programu Škole za život, koja povezuje obrazovne sadržaje, ima drugačiji pristup poučavanju, rabi različite nastavne strategije, rasterećuje učenika „učenja napamet“ i traži kreativna i inovativna rješenja u izazovima i problemima, ovaj podatak da 30 % djece izjavljuje kako se u školi u nastavi ne rabi igra zapravo jako iznenađuje. Igra je djeci imanentna aktivnost i upravo u ovako ranome razdoblju pogodna je kao strategija za ovladavanje svih obrazovnih sadržaja, a osobito apstraktnoga obrazovnog sadržaja kao što je jezik.

Učenicima je postavljeno i jedno pitanje otvorenoga tipa u kojemu su trebali zabilježiti koje igre najčešće igraju kod kuće. Zanimljivo je da učenici ističu kako kod kuće najčešće igraju igre koje zahtijevaju fizičku aktivnost, kao što su: *igra skrivača*, *lovce i nogomet*, potom igre poput *slaganja lego kocaka* te društvene igre, poput: *Čovječe, ne ljuti se* i *Monopoly*. Oko 68 % učenika izjavilo je kako kod kuće najčešće igraju *PlayStation*, što potvrđuje da veliki broj učenika u slobodno vrijeme igra računalne i digitalne igre.

Također se željelo ispitati kakav stav učenici imaju prema Hrvatskome jeziku kao nastavnome predmetu te koliko se često igraju u nastavi hrvatskoga

jezika. Rezultati pokazuju da 53,2 % ispitanika jako voli Hrvatski jezik kao predmet, 40,4 % ga voli, 2,1 % niti voli niti ne voli, a 4,3 % ga uopće ne voli, što mu daje prosječnu ocjenu od 4,38. S druge strane, samo 6,4 % potvrđuje da se igra na satu Hrvatskoga jezika, njih 61,7 % da se igra ponekad, a 25,5 % da se ne igra, dok ih 6,4 % nije odgovorilo (Grafikon 1).



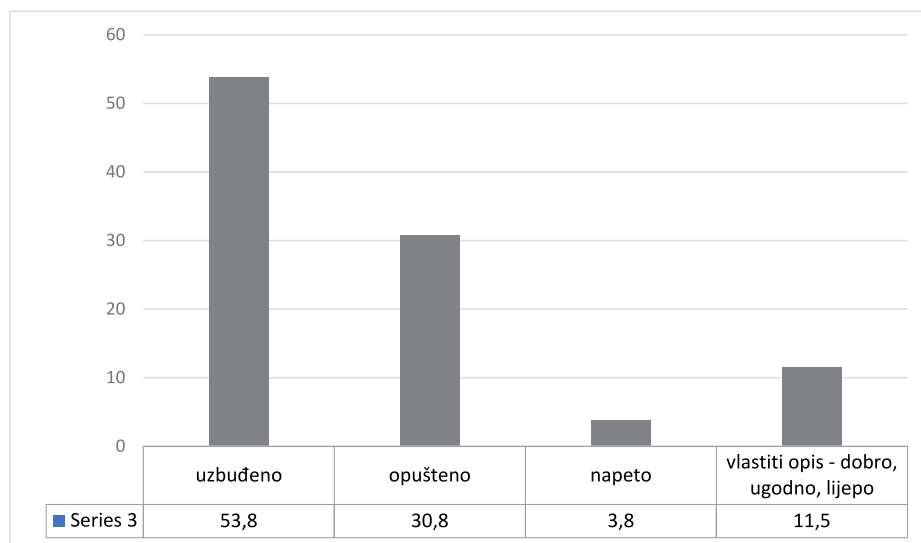
Grafikon 1. Stavovi ispitanika o igri u školi i u nastavi Hrvatskoga jezika

Navedeni rezultati potvrđuju da se izmjenama u nastavnome planu i programu, odnosno donošenjem Kurikuluma nastavnoga predmeta Hrvatski jezik (2019) situacija u načinu učenja i poučavanja nije bitno promijenila jer su slični rezultati samo na nešto većem broju ispitanika zabilježeni i u istraživanjima Aladrović Slovaček i Pavličević-Franić (2012, 2017, 2018, 2019). Svi navedeni rezultati upućuju na prihvaćanje prve postavljene hipoteze koja je pretpostavljala da će učenici imati pozitivan stav o igri u nastavi jer je igra djetetu urođena aktivnost, odnosno čovjek je *homo ludens*, biće koje se igra. Također je potvrđeno da su učenici mlađih razreda osnovne škole otvoreni za igru u svim predmetima, pa tako i Hrvatskome jeziku.

Budući da se sada već jednu i pol godinu nalazimo u razdoblju pandemije koronavirusa i u dosta se izmijenjenim okolnostima održava nastava, odnosno,

jedno vrijeme nastava je čak i u mlađim razredima osnovne škole bila u *online* obliku, željelo se ispitati stavove učenika o uporabi edukativnih računalnih igara u nastavi. Naime, tijekom *online* nastave učitelji su rabili različite digitalne alate kako bi sadržaje što bolje približili svojim učenicima. Da bi učenici mogli razumjeti i pratiti obrazovne sadržaje, morali su imati određenu razinu računalne kompetencije. Jedan je od načina poučavanja i još više uvježbavanja obrazovnoga sadržaja računalna edukativna igra. Osim što postoje digitalni alati u kojima učitelji mogu sami osmišljavati igre, učiteljima i učenicima takve su igre omogućene i na platformama nakladničkih kuća udžbeničkih materijala koje rabe i u ovome pandemijskom razdoblju. Takvi su se sadržaji pokazali dosta zanimljivima i korisnima, čak i za roditelje koji su na taj način mogli također vježbati određeni sadržaj sa svojim djetetom jer bi odmah dobili povratnu informaciju o njegovu znanju. Rezultati provedenoga istraživanja pokazuju da 76,6 % ispitanika često voli igrati računalne igre, 17 % ih voli igrati ponekad, a 4,3 % ih ne voli igrati te se 2,1 % ispitanika nije opredijelilo niti za jedan odgovor. Ispitanici se najčešće igraju na platformi *Roblox*, zatim igraju sljedeće igre: *Minecraft*, *Fortnite*, *Brawl Stars*, slagalice te, ono što je već spomenuto, igre na *PlayStationu*. Na pitanje koriste li se računalom u nastavi, 38,3 % ispitanika odgovorilo je potvrdno, 51,1 % odgovorilo je da ih koriste ponekad, a 10,6 % da ih ne koriste. Kada i koriste računalno u nastavi, ispitanici ga koriste za učenje (53,2 %), za nastavu Informatike (8,5 %), za vježbanje (10,6 %), za gledanje animiranih filmova tijekom odmora (6,4 %), ni za što (4,3 %) te da saznaju nešto novo, za pisanje, za nastavu Prirode i društva i za prezentacije (sve po 2,1 %). Njih 8,5 % nije odgovorilo na ovo pitanje.

Kako bi se dodatno ispitano kakvi su stavovi učenika o edukativnim računalnim igrama u nastavi, ispitanici eksperimentalne skupine igrali su računalnu jezičnu igru te ispunili upitnik čija su se pitanja odnosila upravo na tu provedenu igru (učenici su trebali povezati fotografije s točnom skupinom riječi prema broju slogova, opisano u instrumentu istraživanja). Da im je provedena igra bila zanimljiva reklo je 68,2 % ispitanika, da im je bila laka njih 27,3 %, a 4,5 % na svoj je način opisalo igru kao: tešku, dosadnu te zabavnu. Tijekom igre najviše se ispitanika osjećalo uzbuđeno, njih 53,8 %, opušteno njih 30,8 %, napeto njih 3,8 %, a 11,5 % opisalo je da se osjećalo: dobro, ugodno i lijepo.



Grafikon 2. Opis osjećaja ispitanika nakon provedene računalne edukativne igre

To što su jezičnu igru igrali na računalu, posebno se sviđjelo 85,2 % ispitanika, 3,7 % to se nije sviđjelo, a 11,1 % ispitanika izjasnilo se da im je zapravo svejedno u kojem obliku se igraju: na računalu ili bez njega. Ipak, čak 74,1 % ispitanika u budućnosti bi voljelo igrati više jezičnih igara na računalu. Navedeni rezultati potvrđuju činjenicu da je računalo djetetu već u prvome razredu, dakle na početku školovanja blisko i da se djeca njime rado koriste u nastavi. Ono što upućuje na uporabu edukativnih računalnih igara u nastavi Hrvatskoga jezika jest činjenica da se tijekom ove igre većina učenika ispitanika osjećala uzbuđeno, tj. da su željeli što bolje riješiti zadatak pa su vjerojatno ulagali i dosta truda, ali i opušteno, ugodno i dobro. Kada dijete uči u okruženju koje mu je opušteno i u kojemu se osjeća ugodno, zasigurno će i njegovi rezultati biti znatno bolji (Pavličević-Franić, 2005). Time se potvrđuje druga postavljena hipoteza koja je pretpostavljala da će učenici imati pozitivan stav o računalnim igrama upravo zato što su njima izloženi od vrlo ranoga djetinjstva te su im zbog toga i vrlo bliske.

Treći cilj ovoga istraživanja bio je ispitati povezanost provedbe motivacijske računalne igre sa znanjem učenika. U tu svrhu u eksperimentalnoj je skupini, kako je već navedeno, provedena motivacijska računalna igra u kojoj su učenici

trebali na računalu povezati fotografije koje su označavale jednosložne, dvo-složne i trosložne riječi s navedenim skupinama. U isto vrijeme u kontrolnoj je skupini proveden isti zadatak na sličan način, ali bez uporabe računala. Nakon provedene igre učenici su ispitani kratkim testom znanja koji je provjeravao poznavanje rastavljanja riječi na slogove, što je bio i sadržaj motivacijske igre. Test se sastojao od pet zadataka u kojima su učenici na različite načine dolazili do točnoga odgovora: zaokruživanjem, izbacivanjem uljeza, dopunjavanjem, uparivanjem. Budući da je svaki zadatak imao drugačiji broj bodova, u Tablici 1. prikazane su aritmetičke sredine za svaki zadatak za kontrolnu i eksperimentalnu skupinu. Iako učenici eksperimentalne skupine pokazuju nešto bolje rezultate od učenika kontrolne skupine, provedeni *Man Whitneyjev U- test* za nezavisne varijable pokazuje da ta razlika nije statistički značajna na razini značajnosti od 5 % ($p > 0,05$).

Tablica 1. Prikaz rezultata ispitanika na provedenom testu znanja u kontrolnoj i eksperimentalnoj skupini

	EKSPERIMENTALNA SKUPINA	KONTROLNA SKUPNA
PRVI ZADATAK	0,93	0,89
DRUGI ZADATAK	1,68	1,57
TREĆI ZADATAK	0,57	0,53
ČETVRTI ZADATAK	3,14	3,01
PETI ZADATAK	3,74	3,67
UKUPNO	10,12	10,01

Iako se očekivalo da će ispitanici eksperimentalne skupine postići značajno bolje rezultate od ispitanika kontrolne skupine, to se nije dogodilo te se treća postavljena hipoteza odbacuje. Naime, iako učenici rado uče uz pomoć igre, osobito koristeći se računalom u tome procesu, u ovome se istraživanju razlika u uspjehu nije pokazala. Slični su rezultati dobiveni i u istraživanju koje je provela autorica Aladrović Slovaček 2018. godine. Naime, pokazuje se da je uporaba računala u nastavi dobra motivacija za učenike, ali ona ne jamči i bolji uspjeh u poznavanju određenoga obrazovnog sadržaja. Valjalo bi ovdje naglasiti i ograničenja ovoga istraživanja koje je provedeno na relativno malome i prigodnome uzorku te se ovi rezultati mogu uzeti kao dobar poticaj za

svеobuhvatnija istraživanja o uporabi računalnih igara u nastavi općenito te posebice u nastavi Hrvatskoga jezika.

Četvrti je cilj istraživanja bio ispitati postoji li statistički značajna razlika u stavovima i uspjehu ispitanika s obzirom na spol. Provedeni *Mann Whitneyjev U - test* za testiranje razlike dviju nezavisnih varijabli pokazao je da ne postoji statistički značajna razlika u stavovima ispitanika s obzirom na spol ($p > 0,05$) te također da razlika s obzirom na spol ne postoji niti u uspjehu ispitanika u testu znanja ($p > 0,05$). Iako se očekivalo da će djevojčice pokazati značajno bolje rezultate od dječaka jer su u tome razdoblju sklonije jezičnim zadacima nego dječaci, jer su obično verbalno aktivnije, ta razlika nije vidljiva. Ipak, valja imati na umu da istraživanja (PIRLS, 2011; PISA, 2015; Roje Đapić i dr., 2020) pokazuju kako su dječaci skloniji uporabi računala i računalnih igara od djevojčica, pa bi se i s obzirom na to moglo očekivati da će njihovi rezultati biti nešto bolji, no to se ipak nije dogodilo. Drugim riječima, djevojčice i dječaci pokazuju vrlo slične rezultate na provedenom testu znanja. Sve navedeno pokazuje da se ne prihvaća četvrta postavljena hipoteza koja je pretpostavljala da će djevojčice postići značajno bolje rezultate na testu znanja od dječaka.

Peti je cilj istraživanja bio ispitati stavove učitelja o igri u nastavi. 59 % učitelja često se igra na satu Hrvatskoga jezika, 38 % ponekad, a samo 3 % se igra rijetko. Osim što smo pitali učitelje o njihovim stavovima o igri, pitali smo ih i rabe li digitalne alate u nastavi. Njih 38 % ih rabi često, 55 % ponekad, 5 % vrlo rijetko, a 2 % ih uopće ne rabi. Učitelji navode kako najčešće koriste WorldWall, Kahoot, Kvizlet, Linoit, Canvu te mogućnosti Officea 365. Učitelji smatraju kako je igra izrazito korisna u nastavi, no također i da zahtijeva dosta vremena za pripremu te se upravo zato ne uspijevaju koristiti njome koliko bi željeli. Većina učitelja smatra korisnom uporabu unaprijed pripremljenih računalnih igara koje mogu učenici rabiti osobito za rad i učenje kod kuće, a koji su dio njihovih udžbeničkih materijala. S obzirom na iznesene rezultate može se potvrditi peta postavljena hipoteza koja je pretpostavljala da učitelji prepoznaju dobrobiti igre u nastavi, no i da ističu kako je za pripremu igre potrebno dosta vremena. Ipak, odbacuje se drugi dio pete postavljene hipoteze koji je pretpostavljao da će zbog navedenih razloga učitelji nerijetko u svojoj nastavnoj praksi koristiti računalne igre jer gotovo 60 % učitelja kaže kako se sa svojim

učenicima često igra u nastavi Hrvatskoga jezika. Ipak, s obzirom na to da tek 25 % učenika kaže kako se igra često u nastavi Hrvatskoga jezika, valjalo bi napraviti istraživanje na što raznolikijoj skupini učitelja kako bi se utvrdilo daju li učitelji očekivane i poželjne odgovore ili zaista gotovo 60 % učitelja u nastavi Hrvatskoga jezika rabi jezične igre kao dobru nastavnu strategiju za ovladavanje apstraktnih jezičnih sadržaja.

4. Rasprava i zaključak

Igra kao jedna od nastavnih metoda i strategija sastavni je dio suvremene nastave i potrebno ju je implementirati u sve nastavne predmete. Kao djeci immanentna aktivnost, igra im je i poznato okruženje u kojem su slobodna i opuštene te motivirana jer putem igre ulaze u svijet znanja na drugačiji i zanimljiv način. Ovo istraživanje, kao i već spomenuta prije provedena istraživanja, potvrdilo je prvu hipotezu, da je učenicima igra poželjna u nastavi te da vole učiti uz pomoć igre, ali pokazuje i da se u nastavi uglavnom igraju samo ponekad. Učenici vole Hrvatski jezik kao nastavni predmet, ali i na satu Hrvatskoga jezika se, nažalost, igraju samo ponekad.

Kako živimo u dobu digitalne tehnologije pa su učenici od malih nogu okruženi digitalnim uređajima te su im računalne igre također poznato okruženje, sljedeći je cilj ovoga istraživanja bio ispitati stav učenika o provođenju računalnih igara u nastavi. Potvrđena je i hipoteza da će učenici imati pozitivan stav o jezičnoj igri provedenoj na računalu. Kako bi bili ukorak s vremenom, bilo bi poželjno da učitelji/učiteljice ponekad one igre koje primjenjuju u nastavi preoblikuju u računalne igre jer su učenici radom na računalu još motiviraniji. To je svakako izvedivo s obzirom da je novom reformom školstva u Republici Hrvatskoj, započetoj eksperimentalno 2017., a od 2020./2021. provedenoj horizontalno u cijeloj osnovnoj školi te nazvanoj *Škola za život*, Ministarstvo znanosti i obrazovanja propisalo i podijelilo osnovnim školama tablete. Iako brojna, već spomenuta i provedena istraživanja (Pavličević-Franić, 2005, 2011; Velički i Peti Stantić, 2009 te Aladrović Slovaček, 2012, 2017, 2018, 2019) dokazuju da primjena jezičnih igara u nastavi dovodi do boljšega ovladavanja sadržajem, ovim je istraživanjem odbačena hipoteza da će primjena motivacijske računalne igre dovesti do boljših rezultata, odnosno pokazalo se da su ispitanici

eksperimentalne skupine pokazali bolje rezultate, ali oni nisu statistički značajno bolji te je time odbačena treća postavljena hipoteza. Ovakvi rezultati mogli su se očekivati i zato što je riječ o relativno malome uzorku ispitanika, ali i u dobrom radu učiteljica koje rade na drugačiji i zanimljiv način te je jedna ovaj sadržaj obradila podrobnije od druge ili zato što učenici imaju različite predispozicije, a skupine nismo oblikovali s obzirom na taj kriterij. No, ono što je važno istaknuti jest da učenici, podjednako dječaci i djevojčice, vole igru, i to onu u razredu i uživo, jednako kao i računalnu igru te se u tome, kao i u postignutim rezultatima nakon provedene igre, ne razlikuju statistički značajno čime se odbacuje četvrta postavljena hipoteza. Iako se očekivalo da učitelji igru smatraju važnom strategijom učenja, da je zbog zahtjevnosti njezine pripreme, ne provode često, ta je – peta hipoteza – odbačena jer su rezultati pokazali kako gotovo 60 % učitelja često u nastavi Hrvatskoga jezika rabi igru kao nastavnu strategiju. Ipak, riječ je o većemu broju učitelja (oko 300 ispitanika), ali je uzorak prigodan i u njemu su sudjelovali visokomotivirani učitelji pa je moguće da njihov rezultat nije odraz cjelokupne populacije učitelja, osobito zato što tek 25 % učenika izražava stav kako se u nastavi Hrvatskoga jezika igra često. Navedeni rezultati upućuju na potrebu provođenja daljnjih istraživanja, kako primjene igara, tako i stavova učitelja o igri u nastavi, a osobito u nastavi Hrvatskoga jezika.

Zaključno, valja imati na umu da su učenici sretni kad se igraju, osjećaju se uzbuđeno, opušteno i ugodno, što je važna pretpostavka kvalitetnoga učenja i prenošenja informacija. Također je važno naglasiti kako oni igrajući se istovremeno uče uz puno manje zamora te zato svakako treba istaknuti da je nužno u nastavi rabiti igru kako bi dijete, koje je u mlađim razredima osnovne škole u fazi konkretnih misaonih operacija, moglo što lakše ovladati velikim brojem informacija koje se nalaze pred njim. Upravo tome u prilog govore i rezultati ovoga istraživanja – uporaba računalnih igara u nastavi Hrvatskoga jezika motivirat će učenike i olakšati usvajanja, ovladavanje ili usustavljanje određenih sadržaja nastave Hrvatskoga jezika. Budući da je cilj učenja hrvatskoga kao materinskoga jezika stvoriti kompetentnoga govornika hrvatskoga jezika, osobe visokoga jezičnog znanja i pouzdanja, igra se nameće kao izvrsna nastavna strategija kojom je to itekako moguće ostvariti.

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RAZLIKE U PARAMETRIMA KARDIOVASKULARNOG SUSTAVA SVEUČILIŠNIH STUDENATA U ODNOSU NA SJEDILAČKI NAČIN ŽIVOTA

Sažetak

Cilj ovog istraživanja bio je istražiti razlike između dviju skupina studenata, onih koji dnevno provode do tri sata i onih koji provode više od tri sata u sjedilačkom načinu, u odnosu na vrijednosti krvnog tlaka, frekvenciju srca i indeks tjelesne mase. U ovom istraživanju sudjelovalo je 129 nasumično odabranih studenata Ekonomskog fakulteta Sveučilišta u Zagrebu. Sjedilački način života procijenjen je na temelju pitanja iz Međunarodnog upitnika o tjelesnoj aktivnosti. Postavljeno je sljedeće pitanje: *Unazad 7 dana, koliko ste vremena provodili sjedeći tijekom jednog radnog dana?* Odgovori su razvrstali ispitanike u dvije kategorije sjedilačkog načina života, „do tri sata“ i „više od tri sata“. Krvni tlak (dijastolički i sistolički), kao i broj otkucaja srca mjereni su OMRON-ovim digitalnim tlakomjerom. Studenti koji su izjavili da provode više od tri sata sjedeći statistički su imali veće vrijednosti sistoličkog krvnog tlaka ($p < 0,010$), dijastoličkog krvnog tlaka ($p < 0,001$) i frekvencije otkucaja srca ($p < 0,024$). Rezultati pokazuju da sjedilački način života utječe na broj otkucaja srca u mirovanju i krvni tlak, što se odražava na druge organske sustave i u konačnici utječe na kvalitetu života i opće zdravlje.

Ključne riječi: mlade odrasle osobe; studenti; sjedilački način života; krvni tlak; frekvencija otkucaja srca

DIFFERENCES IN SOME CARDIOVASCULAR SYSTEM PARAMETERS IN UNIVERSITY STUDENTS ACCORDING TO SEDENTARY LIFESTYLE

Abstract

The aim of this research was to examine the differences between two groups of students, with the first group typically spending nearly three hours sitting, and the second group spending more than three hours, in their blood pressure values, heart rate and body mass index. In this study, the participants were 129 university students randomly selected from Faculty of Economics and Business of the University of Zagreb. Sedentary lifestyle was assessed based on questions from International Physical Activity Questionnaire. The following question was asked: “During the last 7 days, how much time did you spend sitting during weekdays?” The answers sorted the students in two sedentary lifestyle categories, “ up to three hours“ and “more than three hours“. Blood pressure (diastolic and systolic), as well as the heart rate were measured using the OMRON digital sphygmomanometer. The student group that reported spending more than three hours sitting statistically had much higher values of systolic blood pressure ($p < 0,010$), diastolic blood pressure ($p < 0,001$) and heart rate ($p < 0,024$). The results indicate that a sedentary lifestyle affects resting heart rate and blood pressure, which reflect on other organic systems and ultimately affect the quality of life and overall health.

Keywords: young adults; students; sedentary lifestyle; blood pressure; heart rate

Uvod

Zdravlje je stanje potpunog fizičkog, mentalnog i društvenog blagostanja, a ne samo odsustvo bolesti (World Health Organization, 1946). Neaktivan način života uzrokovao je sve slabije motoričke i funkcionalne sposobnosti, pa se tako studenti sve manje bave sportom u slobodno vrijeme, a sve više provode svoje aktivnosti u sjedilačkom načinu. Sjedilačko ponašanje definira se kao svaka aktivnost u budnom stanju tijekom koje se sjedi, sjedi naslonjen ili u ležećem stavu, trošeći nisku razinu energije (Ainsworth i dr., 2000; Tremblay i dr., 2017). Osim tjelesne neaktivnosti, sjedilački način života također je ozbiljan problem. Odlaskom na fakultet obveze postaju sve brojnije i složenije pa se sve manje vremena odvaja za tjelesnu aktivnost. Brojni autori navode da u tom razdoblju dolazi do opadanja razine tjelesne aktivnosti (Gyurcsik, Bray i Brittain, 2004; Keating i dr., 2005; Nelson i dr., 2007; Allender, Hutghinson i Foster, 2008; McArthur, Raedeke, 2009). Na primjer, Amerikanci 55 % svojeg slobodnog vremena (7,7 sati dnevno) provode sjedeći, dok Europljani 40 % slobodnog vremena (2,7 sata dnevno) provode gledajući televiziju (Patterson i dr., 2018). U Južnoj Koreji stopa tjelesne aktivnosti opada među odraslim osobama u dobi od 19 i više godina, bez obzira na vrstu aktivnosti, uključujući aerobne vježbe, hodanje i trening mišića (Park i dr., 2020). Izvješća o tjelesnoj aktivnosti ukazuju na veliku prevalenciju nedovoljne tjelesne aktivnosti djece i mladih u Hrvatskoj (Currie i dr., 2012). Studentska populacija pripada mlađoj odrasloj populaciji, što je važan period za donošenje odluka i stvaranje životnih navika (Bell, Lee, 2005). U tom periodu važno je steći zdrave životne navike (Tirodimos i dr., 2009), a time i zadovoljiti preporučenu razinu tjelesne aktivnosti koju propisuje Svjetska zdravstvena organizacija. Sjedilački ili sedentarni način života postao je dominantan među studentima (Gošnik i dr., 2002), pa tako minimalnu preporuku za tjelesnu aktivnost koja utječe na zdravstveno stanje nisu mogli ispuniti ni studenti medicinskih znanosti (Teczely, Tolnai, i Angyan, 2003). Prema istraživanju provedenom na Agronomskom fakultetu (Caput-Jogunica, Čurković, 2007), 74 % sveučilišnih studenata nije bilo uključeno ni u jedan oblik tjelesne aktivnosti, 20 % ih je bilo uključeno u rekreativno vježbanje (dva do tri puta tjedno), dok ih je samo 0,6 % uključeno u aktivno vježbanje. Keating i dr. (2010) iznose podatke da je 40 – 50 % studenata neaktivno (Keating i dr., 2010). Pedišić (2011) je izvijestio kako se

udio nedovoljno aktivnih u populaciji hrvatskih studenata kreće između 39,1 % i 44,9 % (Pedišić, 2011). Mudronja, Petračić i Pedišić (2011) izvijestili su da su studenticama zagrebačkog Filozofskog fakulteta razlozi neprovođenja tjelesne aktivnosti: lijenost, previše obveza, nedostatak vremena i preklapanje tjelesne aktivnosti sa studijskim obvezama (Mudronja, Petračić i Pedišić, 2011). Jednim istraživanjem (Adams, Brynteson, 1992) pokazalo se da visoki zahtjevi sveučilišnog načina života, u pogledu redovitog sudjelovanja u sportskim događanjima, rezultiraju pozitivnim navikama vježbanja u trajanju od dvije do jedanaest godina nakon diplome. Drugi autori navode kako 84,7 % studenata koji su bili tjelesno aktivni za vrijeme studija zadržavaju tu naviku čak 5 – 10 godina nakon studija (Sparling, Snow, 2002). U jednom istraživanju u koje su bili uključeni studenti zagrebačkog Arhitektonskog i Geodetskog fakulteta ustanovljeno je da 57 % studenata ne obraća pozornost ni na kakav sport ili bilo koji oblik rekreacije (Milanović i dr., 2013). Istraživanje među studentima zagrebačkog Kineziološkog i Ekonomskog fakulteta pokazalo je da ih je 73,76 % svjesno da sudjelovanje u tjelesnim aktivnostima pozitivno djeluje na njihovo zdravlje, međutim njihov interes za rekreativne aktivnosti bio je izrazito nizak (Andrijašević, Ciliga i Jurakić, 2009). Općenito, neki od kratkoročnih efekata tjelesne aktivnosti povezani su s poboljšanjem krvnog tlaka, indeksom tjelesne mase, emocionalnim stanjem i funkcioniranjem u ponašanju (Biddle, Asare, 2011; Janssen, Leblanc, 2010). Američko udruženje za srce nedavno je objavilo znanstveni savjet koji je istaknuo štetnu povezanost između sjedilačkog načina života i morbiditeta smrtnosti od kardiovaskularnih bolesti (Young i dr., 2016). Neke zemlje, poput Australije i Velike Britanije, također su počele objavljivati smjernice za sjedilački način života uz svoje smjernice za tjelesnu aktivnost (UK Department of Health, 2011; Australian Government Department of Health, 2014). Zdravstvene posljedice povezane sa sjedilačkim načinom života istražene su u nizu pretkliničkih studija provedenih početkom 2000-ih (Hamilton, M. T., Hamilton, D. G., i Zderic, 2004; Hamilton, M. T., Hamilton, D. G., i Zderic, 2007). Kardiovaskularno zdravlje neovisno je povezano s tjelesnom aktivnošću, pri čemu je tjelesna neaktivnost povezana s najvećim rizikom od razvoja kardiovaskularnih bolesti (Lee i dr., 2012; Lee i dr., 2014). Prevalencija tjelesne neaktivnosti povećala se posljednjih godina, možda kao rezultat većeg prihvaćanja zapadnog načina života, karakteriziranog

dužim sjedenjem, slabijim sudjelovanjem u aktivnom prijevozu i vremenu provedenom u tjelesnoj aktivnosti u slobodno vrijeme (WHO, 2010; Dumith i dr., 2011; Oggioni i dr., 2014). Iz svih dosadašnjih istraživanja vidljivo je da sjedilački način života odnosno tjelesna neaktivnost povećava rizik od kardiovaskularnih bolesti. S obzirom na to da je studentska populacija zadnja stepenica u obrazovanju idealno je vrijeme da se pokuša utjecati na njihovu svijest o važnosti tjelesne aktivnosti i o dugoročnim posljedicama sjedilačkog načina života.

Svrha ovog istraživanja bila je istražiti razlike između dviju skupina studenata, onih koji dnevno provode do tri sata i onih koje provode više od tri sata u sjedilačkom načinu, u odnosu na vrijednosti krvnog tlaka, frekvenciju srca i indeks tjelesne mase.

Metode

U ovom istraživanju sudjelovalo je 129 nasumično odabranih studenata (91 studentica i 38 studenata) Ekonomskog fakulteta Sveučilišta u Zagrebu, Hrvatska, u prosjeku starosti $19,58 \pm 0,71$ godina, prosječne visine $170,87 \pm 10,33$ centimetara i prosječne tjelesne mase $71,63 \pm 15,93$ kilograma. Sjedilački način života procijenjen je na temelju pitanja iz Međunarodnog upitnika o tjelesnoj aktivnosti, odnosno *International physical activity questionnaire* ili skraćeno IPAQ-SF (Craig i dr., 2003). Visok koeficijent pouzdanosti ovog upitnika dobiven je brojnim međunarodnim (Macfarlane i dr., 2007; Deng i dr., 2008) i hrvatskim istraživanjima (Pedišić i dr., 2011; Ajman, Đapić-Štriga i Novak, 2015). Postavljeno je sljedeće pitanje: *Unazad 7 dana, koliko ste vremena provodili sjedeći tijekom jednog radnog dana?*. Odgovori su razvrstali ispitanike u dvije kategorije sjedilačkog načina života, „na tri sata“ i „više od tri sata“. Tjelesna visina izmjerena je pomoću antropometra SECA u centimetrima, a tjelesna težina pomoću kalibrirane elektroničke vage SECA. Indeks tjelesne mase izračunat je prema formuli: tjelesna masa u kilogramima podijeljena je s tjelesnom visinom u m². Krvni tlak (dijastolički i sistolički), kao i frekvencija otkucaja srca mjereni su OMRON-ovim digitalnim tlakomjerom, na lijevoj ruci, nakon 5 minuta odmora sjedeći. Mjerenje je provedeno u redovnoj nastavi Tjelesne i zdravstvene kulture u jutarnjim satima. Mjerioci su bili diplomirani

kineziolozi koji poznaju standardni postupak mjerenja. Svaki je ispitanik sa svojim upitnikom dolazio do mjerilaca koji su im upisivali izmjerene mjere. Razlike među skupinama analizirane su pomoću Studentova t-testa i Mann-Whitneyjeva U-testa. Značajnost je postavljena na $p < 0,05$. Podatci su obrađeni pomoću programskog paketa Statistica 13.0.

Rezultati i rasprava

Indeks tjelesne mase (engl. Body mass index, BMI) ili Quetletov indeks služi za okvirnu procjenu stanja uhranjenosti. Utvrđuje se kao omjer vrijednosti tjelesne mase, izražene u kilogramima i kvadrata vrijednosti tjelesne visine, izražene u metrima. Najvažniji su čimbenici koji utječu na ITM djece i mladih stanje uhranjenosti, tjelesna aktivnost, sjedilački način života, kao i pojedine determinante kao što su gojaznost roditelja, njihova dob, obrazovanje, zanimanje, broj članova u obitelji, dužina dojenja, tjelesna masa pri rođenju, način života (Plachta-Danielzik, i dr., 2009).

U Tablici 1 prikazani su deskriptivni parametri ispitanika. Evidentno je da je aritmetička sredina ispitanika u ITM varijabli 24,40 što dovodi studente u poželjnu kategoriju tjelesne mase. Prema klasifikaciji Svjetske zdravstvene organizacije (World Health Organization, 2000), indeksi niži od 18,5 ukazuju na pothranjenost, između 18,5 i 24,9 označavaju idealnu težinu, od 25,0 do 29,9 bodova prekomjernu tjelesnu težinu, a više od 30 signalizira pretilost. Raspon je izmjerenih vrijednosti od 16,95 do 34,67. Povećanje indeksa tjelesne mase u ovoj osobitoj populaciji može se objasniti činjenicom da većina studenata doživljava određene promjene načina života, poput napuštanja kuće, odlaska na sveučilište (Butler i dr., 2004), što u našem istraživanju nije bio slučaj.

Povišeni je krvni tlak (hipertenzija) glavni čimbenik rizika za moždani udar, infarkt miokarda, zatajenje srca, kroničnu bolest bubrega, perifernu vaskularnu bolest, kognitivni pad i preranu smrt (National Clinical Guideline Centre, 2011). Visoki krvni tlak kod djece i adolescenata sve je veći zdravstveni problem, zajedno sa svjetskim epidemijama pretilosti i tjelesne neaktivnosti. Povišen krvni tlak kod djece povezan je s povećanim krvnim tlakom i rizikom od kardiovaskularnih bolesti u odrasloj dobi (Chen, Wang, 2008).

U Tablici 1 prikazane su prosječne vrijednosti otkucaja srca, odnosno $86,57 \pm 13,42$ otkucaja u minuti, vrijednosti su dijastoličkog krvnog tlaka $77,14 \pm 9,14$ mm/Hg, a vrijednosti sistoličkog krvnog tlaka $123,21 \pm 13,73$ mm/Hg. Prosječne su vrijednosti sjedenja tijekom jednog radnog dana 279,53 minute, a raspon izmjerenih vrijednosti iznosio je od pola sata do deset sati dnevno u sjedilačkom načinu.

Tablica 1. Deskriptivna statistika sudionika istraživanja

Variable / N= 129	Mean	Min	Max	SD	Skew	Kurt
DOB	19.58	19	22	0.71	1.08	0.76
TV	170.87	155.00	193.00	10.33	0.38	-0.90
TM	71.63	46.90	111.90	15.93	0.43	-0.48
ITM	24.40	16.95	34.67	4.33	0.45	-0.80
SISTOLIČKI TLAK	123.21	92	149	13.73	-0.31	-0.66
DIJASTOLIČKI TLAK	77.14	55	92	9.14	-0.18	-0.85
FREKVENCIJA SRCA	86.74	63	133	13.43	0.73	0.65
SJEDILAČKI NAČIN	279,53	30,00	600,00	136,81	-0,03	-0,76

Legenda: broj ispitanika (N), aritmetička sredina (Mean), standardna devijacija (SD), Skew (mjera aritmetičnosti distribucije), mjera spljoštenosti i izduženosti distribucije (Kurt), Minimum (Min), Maksimum (Max), tjelesna visina (TV), tjelesna masa (TM), indeks tjelesne mase (ITM), kronološka dob (DOB).

Tablica 2 sadrži rezultate analize dviju skupina, kategoriziranih prema odgovorima na pitanje *Unazad 7 dana, koliko ste vremena provodili sjedeći tijekom jednog radnog dana?*. Vidljivo je da čak 66,67 % ispitanika izjavilo da dnevno provode više od tri sata sjedeći. Rabeći Studentov t-test i Mann-Whitneyjev U-test, vidljivo je da je studentska skupina koja je izjavila da dnevno provodi više od tri sata sjedeći imala statistički veće vrijednosti sistoličkog krvnog tlaka ($p < 0,010$), dijastoličkog krvnog tlaka ($p < 0,001$) (ne uzimajući u obzir osobitu fazu ciklusa kod sudionica) i frekvenciju otkucaja srca ($p < 0,024$). Vrijednosti indeksa tjelesne mase također su nešto veće kod studenata koji sjede više od tri sata dnevno, nego kod studenata koji sjede manje od tri sata, ali te vrijednosti nisu statistički značajne ($p < 0,067$).

Tablica 2. Razlike između skupina utvrđene Studentovim t-testom i Mann-Whitneyjevim U-testom

Varijable	VIŠE OD 3 SATA (N=86)	DO 3 SATA (N=43)	p-value
	Mean±SD	Mean±SD	
ITM	24.89±4.41	23.41±4.02	0.067
SISTOLIČKI TLAK	125.41±13.36	118.81±13.54	<0.010
DIJASTOLIČKI TLAK	78.95±8.65	73.51±9.11	<0.001
FREKVENCIJA SRCA*	88.45±13.14	82.81±13.33	<0.024

Legenda: indeks tjelesne mase (ITM), statistička značajnost (p-value), aritmetička sredina (Mean), standardna devijacija (SD) *Mann-Whitneyev -U test

Rezultati pokazuju da sjedilački način života utječe na frekvenciju otkucaja srca i krvni tlak (sistolički i dijastolički) u mirovanju, što se odražava na druge organske sustave i u konačnici utječe na kvalitetu života i opće zdravlje. Empirijski dokazi pokazuju kako ljudi, zbog razvoja tehnologije i različitih sadržaja na internetu i televiziji, provode više vremena sjedeći nego fizički aktivni. U jednom velikom istraživanju (metaanalizi) Pattesson i dr. (2018) došli su do zaključka da je ukupno vrijeme sjedenja i gledanja televizije povezano s većim rizikom nekoliko velikih ishoda kroničnih bolesti. Tako je za smrtnost od kardiovaskularnih bolesti određen prag od šest do osam sati ukupnog sjedenja na dan i od tri do četiri sata gledanja televizije na dan, a prekoračenjem tog praga bitno se povećava rizik za razvoj bolesti. Također, u još nekoliko velikih istraživanja (metaanaliza) pronađena je značajna povezanost izmeđ povećanog sjedilačkog načina života i bolesti kardiovaskularnog sustava (Wilmot i dr., 2012; Biswas i dr., 2015). U najvećoj dosadašnjoj studiji Ekelund i dr. (2016) prikupili su podatke od 1 005 791 sudionika kako bi ispitali kombinirane učinke sjedilačkog načina i tjelesne aktivnosti na smrtnost od kardiovaskularnih bolesti, raka i svih uzroka, pa su pokazali da je umjerena do snažna tjelesna aktivnost bila obrnuto povezana sa smrtnošću od kardiovaskularnih bolesti na svakoj razini sjedenja (< 2, 2 – 5,9, 6 – 8 i > 8 sati dnevno). Suprotno tomu, vrijeme sjedenja povezano je s povećanom smrtnošću (Ekelund i dr., 2016). Nekoliko epidemioloških studija pokazalo je da je produljeno sjedenje povezano s povećanim rizikom od kardiovaskularnih bolesti (Katzmarzyk i dr., 2009; Patel i dr., 2010; Stamatakis, Hamer i Dunstan 2011; Grøntved i Hu., 2011; Matthews

i dr., 2012; Chomistek i dr., 2013; Herber-Gast i dr., 2013; Kim i dr., 2013; Matthews i dr., 2014; Bjørk Petersen i dr., 2014; Borodulin i dr., 2015; Biswas i dr., 2015). Iz dosadašnjih studija vidljivo je da postoji povezanost između sjedilačkog načina života i povećanog rizika od kardiovaskularnih bolesti. Ovo istraživanje u skladu je s brojnim drugim istraživanjima koja pokazuju da aktivniji način života dovodi do boljih vrijednosti u ispitivanim kardiovaskularnim pokazateljima, a također i u pokazateljima indeksa tjelesne mase. Iako ovim istraživanjem nije dokazana značajna razlika u vrijednostima indeksa tjelesne mase, ona se pokazala boljom kod aktivnijih studenata.

Zaključak

Studenti provode dosta vremena sjedeći, zbog čega njihovo fizičko stanje slabi. Od ključne je važnosti promijeniti navike studenata i potaknuti ih na aktivniji način života, što će utjecati na poboljšanje kvalitete života. Stoga je neupitno da je studentima tjelesna aktivnost prijeko potrebna prije svega zbog njihova zdravlja, ali i ostalih dobrobiti koje nosi tjelesna aktivnost. Prema sve-
mu navedenom, nužno bi bilo produžiti obavezno tjelesno vježbanje na svim godinama studija. Interes studenata za vježbanjem postoji, ali potrebno ga je dodatno osvijestiti raznim teorijskim znanjima o tome zašto vježbati i koje sve dobrobiti nosi tjelesna aktivnost. Zadatak je profesora Tjelesne i zdravstvene kulture educirati ih i uputiti na samostalno vježbanje i po završetku nastavnog procesa. Jedan od nedostataka istraživanja svakako je činjenica da je istraživanje provedeno na samo jednom fakultetu Sveučilišta u Zagrebu te u samo jednom gradu (Zagrebu). Vrijeme provedeno u sjedilačkom načinu procjenjivalo se samoprijavljenim podacima, a ne objektivno izmjerenim procjenama. Također, nedostaju podatci jasnog praga sjedilačkog načina koji smanjuje zdravstvene rizike, stoga je u ovom trenutku teško dati kvantitativnu preporuku. Dakle, potrebna su buduća istraživanja za uporabu uređaja koji objektivno kvantificiraju sjedilački način kako bi se napravili koraci prema identificiranju kritičnih pragova povezanih s povećanim rizikom od kardiovaskularnih bolesti.

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THE ROLE OF GENDER IN MONITORING FINE ARTS CREATIVE SKILLS OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL STUDENTS

ABSTRACT

The following article presents the results of research, whose purpose was the analysis of the artistic creativity level and development of fine arts skills among students in the third cycle of elementary school. We monitored the level of artistic creativity and analysed the differences between artistic creativity from the viewpoint of factors among eighth-grade students of different elementary schools in Maribor, Slovenia. The aim of the research, which included 101 students (n=101), was to highlight the importance of art-oriented educational work on creativity among students finishing elementary school, in comparison to the students of lower grades.

The results revealed that the level of artistic creativity between genders, showed statistically significant differences in only one factor – fluency, with the girls being more successful. There was a tendency of elaboration and flexibility, where girls achieved slightly better results as well. In comparison to previous research, we can conclude that the girls in lower and higher grades were more creative than boys.

Keywords: artistic creativity, factors of artistic creativity, fine arts, gender

ULOGA SPOLA U OPAŽANJU KREATIVNIH VJEŠTINA U OSNOVNIM ŠKOLAMA

Sažetak

U radu se prikazuju rezultati istraživanja čija je svrha bila analizirati razinu likovnih sposobnosti i likovnog razvoja učenika u trećem obrazovnom razdoblju. Pratila se razina likovne kreativnosti i analizirale su se razlike u likovnim sposobnostima u smislu čimbenika kod učenika osmog razreda slovenskih osnovnih škola s mariborskog područja. Cilj istraživanja, koje je obuhvatilo 101 učenika (N = 101), bio je ukazati na važnost likovnopedagoškog rada na kreativnosti kod učenika na kraju osnovne škole u odnosu na mlađe učenike.

Rezultati su pokazali da razina likovne kreativnosti sa stajališta spola pokazuje statistički značajne razlike samo u jednom faktoru – fluentnosti, i to u korist djevojaka. Pokazala se tendencija izrade i fleksibilnosti također u korist djevojaka koje su postigle nešto bolje rezultate. U usporedbi s dosadašnjim istraživanjima, pokazalo se da su učenice, i mlađe i na kraju osnovnog obrazovanja, kreativnije.

Ključne riječi: likovna umjetnost, likovni razvoj, čimbenici likovne umjetnosti, spol.

Introduction

In the educational process of teaching fine arts, students are also co-creators of the learning process. One of the main aspects of fine arts as a school subject is the development of creativity, in which the students obtain skills and techniques of artistic creativity (Duh and Herzog, 2020). Creativity has apparent benefits for individuals and society as a whole, thus it is no surprise that much research has focused on creativity, especially in the last twenty years, Runco notes. Real systematic research of creativity began with Guilford, who compared creativity and divergent thinking, and included convergent mental functions (Trstenjak, 1981). Duh (2004) states that creativity is multi-layered and has multiple meanings, on the other hand, he defines creativity as a product of the creative process. Keong (2008) understands creativity as making connections, where they did not exist before. As an example, he cites Picasso, who created a sculpture by connecting a bicycle's handles and a bull. Trstenjak (1981) defines four aspects, according to which the structure and factors of creativity should be identified: the press (environment), personality, process and product. The first starting point of the study of creativity is the pressure exerted on the creator and creative work by the environment. He defines personality as the second starting point of creativity, which includes the personality characteristics of creative people (Pečjak, 1987). As a third starting point, he analyses the creative process, where the focus is on the gradual preparatory phases from incubation, illumination and verification to creative ideas. The fourth starting point is the product in which the creator is recognized as important: this is the creative result, the achievement of the creative process (Ibid.)

According to Muhovič (1990), creation is conditioned by personality characteristics and theoretical knowledge, while a child's artistic expression is most often a cognitive necessity and a play through which the child plays with artistic theoretical concepts and elements. Tegelj (2008) has a similar opinion, saying that we can talk about creativity when we notice wealth, thoughts or associations, concepts, openness, mental flexibility, freedom and originality. He further explains that creativity is associated with a high level of motivation and certain personality characteristics (unconventionality, nonconformity, persistence, strong will, sensibility, emotionality, sense of aesthetics). However,

these personality characteristics, which are necessary for creativity, can be explored and later developed in children (Hozjan, 2014).

Artistic creativity

In elementary school, students in fine arts classes are focused on developing creativity or creating conditions that enable creativity (Duh, 2004). Creativity is one of the essential aspects of life, however, the question remains whether we know how to detect, support and allow it to progress (Erženičnik Pačnik, 1994). Žagar (1992) believes that a teacher can recognize creative students by their many ideas, problem-solving in various ways and mental criticism. Usually, their ideas are original and different from their classmates'. In drawings, this is seen in the many details and various elements they use (Ibid).

Herzog (2017) says that creative abilities are not only the privilege of gifted children, but are present in all children, that is why the role of the teacher is important. Štemberger (2014) conducted research with preschool teachers, and she found that most agree that all children are creative. However, they do not have a unified answer to the question of whether all people are creative. In practice, such a belief may mean that teachers will not seek to encourage the creativity of all, but only those whom they consider being creative (Ibid.). Einon (2002) argues that children are creative by nature, as the ability to plan activities and avoid external disturbances develops later. In elementary school, students should be allowed to be spontaneous in their artistic expression and gradual transition from a spontaneous to a conscious approach to solving art tasks, taking into account their natural dispositions and abilities, says Herzog (2009). She further explains that, from the point of view of the pedagogical process, children need to develop creative joy (Herzog, 2009). A child does some things because they are necessary for its development, while others attract its attention (Einon, 2002).

Psychologists have long thought that the level of creativity depends only on intelligence. Guilford proved the opposite with his theory of creativity, dividing thinking into convergent and divergent (Jaušovec, 1987). Factors stemming from divergent thinking are fluency, flexibility, originality, and elaboration (Glogovec and Žagar, 1992). A sensibility for artistic problems and redefinition

stem from cognition (Herzog, 2009). Among the subjective factors that enable creativity, we place precise perception, a set of perceptions (visual memory or artistic experience), imagination and motor (technical) skills. Sensitive perception, creative thinking, emotions and motor sensibility are placed among the subjective artistic factors that stimulate creativity (Duh, 2004). Authenticity or originality is the most important factor of divergent thinking (Jurman, 2004). Žagar (1992) established that originality is the ability to discover new, unusual and rare answers. In fine arts, artistic originality is manifested in the ability to discover new and unusual, imaginative ideas, the creation of something new, the ability to observe original details in motifs and finding original connections between details in works of art (Zupančič, 2001). Artistic flexibility is seen in the discovery of new ways of finding an artistic solution, the ability to present several correct solutions, and flexible thinking (Herzog, 2008). Flexibility in artistic activity is manifested in the search for and discovery of new paths, work procedures, the use of means of expression, techniques and different approaches to the depiction of motifs (Zupančič, 2001). Sensibility for artistic problems is expressed in the artistic interpretation of an artistic motif with a sensibility for harmony between artistic components (Herzog, 2008). This factor is encouraged among students by developing sensitive observation, observing the essential visual properties of the observed and by offering evident, illustrative examples, explains Zupančič (2001). Artistic redefinition is the ability to interpret familiar things in a new way (Karlavaris, 1991). We examine the success of artistic transposition among students, which manifests as a conscious redefinition of ideas, material or visual impression in the art structure among students (Herzog, 2009). Fluency is expressed in motor skills in the realization of an idea, according to Herzog (2008). Jurman (2004) adds that fluency, in the individual, is manifested in his unusual connection of ideas. Various fine operations, richer artistic procedures and versions of abilities consistent with the idea are made possible by the factor of artistic fluency, where we monitor the successful mastery of artistic technique (Herzog, 2009). Artistic elaboration is the ability to create a work plan, develop ideas, and structure results (Karlavaris and Berce-Golob, 1991). Zupančič (2001) claims that in artistic activity, elaboration manifests in the rational use of artistic techniques and procedures,

age-appropriate choice of motifs and tools, and the preparation of everything necessary for the artwork.

All factors are of paramount importance for the pedagogical process, as they encourage creativity in students (Duh and Zupančič, 2003). By promoting one factor, we also strengthen all other factors of artistic creativity (Herzog, 2009). Herzog (2008) conducted research where she examined the connection between the factors of artistic creativity and their interaction. She found that artistic creativity is immanent to all, and similarly dispersed among students as other abilities. Artistic creativity is in a strong correlation with general creativity. That is why fine arts class is equivalent to other subjects in the learning process. Matrić and Duh (2015) conducted research using the LV1 test to investigate the average levels of artistic creativity of students and found that girls achieved higher grades than boys. These differences were not detected in the existing studies, which at most they showed that boys were more successful. Gender differences were also examined in our research, and the findings are presented below.

Artistic creativity in the third cycle of elementary school

Children are not filled with prejudice at an early stage and, for this reason, they spontaneously and uncontrollably fill the format with art design elements, even though they have no prior knowledge (Duh and Korošec, 2009). In the third cycle of elementary school, there is less and less spontaneous artistic expression, and students move on to solving artistic problems (Slatinšek-Mlakar, 2009). Under the influence of experience, knowledge and skills, increasing individual differences, which manifest differently in children, begin to appear. They begin to develop their own methods of art design (Duh and Zupančič, 2003). During this period, it is important to bring contemporary art closer to children, explains Berce-Golob (1993). Modern trends tend to promote independence, the formation of a holistic personality and creativity (Herzog, 2017). Kač-Nemanič (2017) also agrees with the use of modern teaching methods. With them, we adapt the process of teaching and learning to the needs and developmental possibilities of an individual student, and at the same time, we encourage their curiosity.

Lowenfeld states that the decline in ability occurs around the age of 11 because children become consciously critical of their artistic expression, their imagination is limited, and they begin to imitate the styles of others (Glogovec and Žagar, 1992). Although imagination, motivation, and emotions decline with age, the ability to concentrate and maintain attention increases with a child's growth. In the higher grades, the ability of accurate and focused observation develops, together with motor skills and memory skills. We can start introducing new techniques, procedures and ways of work to motivate children (Duh and Zupančič, 2003). The right approach to present new material, art tasks and problems can arouse interest in the student and consequently provide good results. We need to keep in mind that students have different interests (Herzog, 2008). Tacol and Šupšáková (2019) believe that a child's abilities of artistic expression develop gradually and in parallel with the development of psychophysical abilities. A child's motor skills, sense of perspective and worldview are different from ours, therefore, it is important not to criticize its works (Keong, 2008). Art-oriented educational work is designed in such a way that children create artistically through imagination, memory and direct observation (Duh and Zupančič, 2009). Pogačnik-Toličič, Vipotnik and Jernejec (1986) emphasize that if we do not impose various forms on children and warn them of the shortcomings in their drawings, they will remain creative in their artistic expression. Sensible artwork is that which allows and develops children's creativity, emphasizes Zupančič (2001), therefore, special attention should be paid to the level of emergence of creative ideas. This level manifests as a consequence of creative thinking and the intertwining of other subjective artistic factors (Herzog, 2008).

Research problem definition and methodology

The main purpose of the research is to analyse the actual situation of artistic creativity of students in the third cycle of elementary school. We are interested in the differences in individual factors of artistic creativity of eighth-grade students from the point of view of gender. The research project includes four elementary schools in Maribor.

It is based on the following questions:

RQ1: Are there differences between the genders in the overall level of artistic creativity?

RQ2: Are there differences between the genders in the factor of flexibility?

RQ3: Are there differences between the genders in the factor of fluency?

RQ4: Are there differences between the genders in the factor of originality?

RQ5: Are there differences between the genders in the factor of sensibility for artistic problems?

RQ6: Are there differences between the genders in the factor of elaboration?

RQ7: Are there differences between the genders in the factor of redefinition?

The results provide an answer to the following research hypothesis:

H1: We assume that, in the overall achievement of the level of artistic creativity, there will be no statistically significant differences between the genders.

A causal non-experimental method of pedagogical research was used in this research. The research sample consisted of a non-random sample of 101 participants of the eighth grade, 52 boys and 49 girls. The research pattern from a gender perspective is therefore fairly balanced. In testing creativity, we used the LV2 test. The tested student made four drawings on different topics over a limited period of time (20 minutes), showing his/her artistic expression and creative abilities. The LV2 test has already proved to be reliable, valid and objective in some previous research (Duh, 2004; Herzog, 2008; Herzog, 2009) and it has also shown to be successful, which is why we also used it in our research to test artistic and creative abilities. Students' artworks were evaluated based on criteria, taking into account their age. We developed a six-level scale with a range of 0 to 5 points in the LV2 test to assess individual factors of artistic creativity. For each factor of creativity, the student could receive a maximum of 5 points. The maximum total number is 30 points.

The students performed the test in suitable testing conditions. The complete students' artworks were, in the end, encoded and evaluated by a panel of judges, which consisted of four evaluators.

The obtained data was processed using the SPSS software and a t-test, which includes the arithmetic mean (\bar{x}), standard deviation (s), the test of homogeneity of variances and the test of differences between the arithmetic means. With these results, we analysed gender differences among students.

Results and discussion

The gender differences in each factor of artistic creativity are presented below in a tabular form (Table 1).

Table 1: Results of t-test and Levene's F-test of homogeneity of variances of results according to gender in each factor of artistic creativity.

Factor	Gender	n	\bar{x}	s	Levene's F-test		t-test	
					F	P	F	P
Sensibility	Boys	52	2.9712	1.15008	1.596	0.209	-1.592	0.115
	Girls	49	3.3571	1.28594				
Elaboration	Boys	52	1.7644	0.77240	7.934	0.006	-1.797	0.079
	Girls	49	2.0969	1.07143				
Flexibility	Boys	52	2.9375	1.19217	2.739	0.101	-1.727	0.087
	Girls	49	3.3929	1.45147				
Fluency	Boys	52	1.6202	0.80057	0.010	0.920	-2.038	0.044
	Girls	49	1.9541	0.84575				
Originality	Boys	52	3.1490	1.41876	0.209	0.648	-1.163	0.248
	Girls	49	3.4949	1.56997				
Redefinition	Boys	52	1.6106	0.81562	0.580	0.448	-0.873	0.385
	Girls	49	1.7602	0.90709				

The results of the F-test (Table 1) indicate that the assumption of homogeneity of variance is justified in all factors except elaboration. In the latter, we used approximation. With the analysis of the t-test, we detected the existence of a

statistically significant difference in only one factor, fluency ($P=0.044$), which is in favour of girls. In this case, the girls achieved a better result than the boys at a statistically significant level. In terms of artistic solutions, the girls were more skilled in motor skills and the realization of the idea.

No statistically significant differences were detected in other factors. The tendency of difference was indicated for two factors, elaboration ($P=0.079$) and flexibility ($P=0.087$). In both cases, the tendency of the difference results in slightly better results in favour of girls. These results show that the girls were slightly better in the monitored planning of aesthetic expression, which is a harmony of the idea and the art material with the art-design principles. The suggestiveness of artistic expression is made possible precisely by the creative use of artistic principles and the coherence between the various components of design. The girls were also slightly better at discovering new paths, finding artistic solutions and a divergent approach to the motif and artistic structure. In these results, we covered the research questions RQ2, RQ3, RQ4, RQ5, RQ6, RQ7, in which we were interested in whether there were differences in each factor of artistic creativity according to gender.

According to previous research (Herzog, 2008; Herzog, 2009; Herzog, 2017), the achievements varied differently, with boys being more successful in some factors and girls in others.

The previous research (Herzog, 2009) conducted among sixth-grade students shows that girls were more successful in most artistic factors, only there were no significant differences in redefinition and fluency. In our research, we have also detected small differences between the genders in redefinition. This means that there are no great differences between the two in redefinition because students perceive art phenomena suitable for art redefinition in a similarly sensitive way and successfully transpose them into artwork.

Compared to research (Herzog, 2017) conducted in 2017, girls mostly achieved better results, except for fluency and redefinition, in which boys were more successful. There were no significant gender differences in flexibility. However, compared to our research, the biggest deviation between genders is in flexibility, meaning that boys had greater difficulties in creative thinking than girls.

In the following table (Table 2), we can see differences between genders in the overall level of artistic creativity.

Table 2: Results of t-test and Levene’s F-test of homogeneity of variances of results of measured differences according to the gender in the total level of artistic creativity.

Factor	Gender	n	\bar{x}	s	Levene’s F-test		t-test	
					F	P	F	P
Overall level of artistic creativity	Boys	52	14.0529	4.59708	0.979	0.325	–	0.041
	Girls	49	16.0561	5.12227			2.071	

The assumption of homogeneity of variance is justified (F=0.979, P=0.325). There is a statistically significant difference (P=0.041) in the overall level of artistic creativity between the genders. Throughout the test of artistic creativity, the girls performed slightly better than the boys.

The average values of the achievements of sixth-grade students from research (Herzog 2009) show that they are higher among girls than boys. The results from research (Herzog, 2017) conducted in 2017 demonstrate the same – girls predominate in the overall level of artistic creativity. These results coincide with ours, meaning that girls are more creative, both in lower and higher grades.

With the help of these results, we answered the research question RQ1. We were interested in finding out whether there are differences in the overall level of artistic creativity based on gender. Thus, we can refute the hypothesis (H1), which presumes that there will be no statistically significant forms in the overall achievements of the level of artistic creativity between the genders. Research has shown that girls perform better in tests measuring creativity, but whether they are indeed more creative or not cannot be said with certainty. The factors we measured in the test (elaboration, fluency and flexibility) indicate greater manageability of the girls, the desire to please and follow the instructions. Most girls at this age are also more inclined to pay attention in class, which makes them more internally motivated. The majority of girls also more often engaged in creative work outside of class, which consequently means their motor skills are better.

Conclusion

We can conclude that statistically significant differences were detected only in fluency favouring girls, which means that they were more skilled in motor skills and the realization of ideas. There were no statistically significant differences in other factors, however, the tendency is evident in elaboration and flexibility. It indicated that the girls performed better in the creative process, the search for new paths and flexible use of means of expression. Girls were slightly better than boys in the overall level of artistic creativity. It indicated that the girls performed better in the creative process, the search for new paths and flexible use of means of expression. Girls were slightly better than boys in the overall level of artistic creativity. Interestingly, research results (Herzog, 2008; Herzog, 2009; Herzog, 2017) also showed slightly better results for girls in most artistic factors. These results coincide with ours, which means that girls are more creative - both among the students of lower grades and students finishing elementary school. All children are inclined to create art because this is the way they explore themselves and the environment in which they live, while looking for solutions to given problems. What matters is how we encourage and motivate them to be creative all the way into adulthood.

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ATHLETES' OPINION OF A DUAL CAREER IN CROATIAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Abstract

The purpose of this article is to present the Croatian dual career system (DC) and observe its implementation in secondary schools that provide DC special conditions and support. The participants of this study are 54 student-athletes (31 female and 23 male), who are representatives of three secondary schools that were partners in the project "Sinergy of Sports Culture, Olympic Value and DC for Young Athletes", supported by the International Olympic Committee (IOC) and the European Olympic Committee (EOC) programs (2019). Despite the mandatory flexibility in education, 55.56% athletes confirmed that they had faced the problem of balancing between school and sports commitments. The majority of athletes (57.41%) trained every day, while 33.33% athletes trained several times a day. This study confirmed that student-athletes got most help and support on DC from family (83.33%) and coaches (9.26%). Monitoring the implementation of DC special conditions and support services designed specifically for athletes could be more successful.

Key words: dual career, professional support services, special conditions

MIŠLJENJE UČENIKA SPORTAŠA O DVOJNOJ KARIJERI U HRVATSKIM SREDNJIM ŠKOLAMA

Sažetak

Cilj je rada predstaviti sustav dvojne karijere u sportu u Republici Hrvatskoj i implementaciju u srednjim školama koji omogućuju posebne uvjete i stručnu podršku mladim sportašima u sustavu obrazovanja. U istraživanju su sudjelovala 54 učenika sportaša (31 sportaš i 23 sportašice), predstavnici triju srednjih škola koje su sudjelovale u projektu „Sinergija sportske kulture, olimpijskih vrijednosti i dual karijere za mlade sportaše“, financiranom iz programa Olimpijske solidarnosti Europskih olimpijskih odbora (2019). Unatoč propisanim fleksibilnim obrazovnim uvjetima, 55,56 % učenika sportaša suočavalo se s problemom usklađivanja školskih i sportskih obveza. Najveći broj učenika sportaša (57,41 %) trenira svaki dan, od čega njih 33,33 % i nekoliko puta dnevno. Analizom rezultata potvrđeno je da je sportašima najveća potpora u dvojnoj karijeri obitelj (83,33 %), a potom trener (9,26 %). Praćenje primjene propisa koji se tiču posebnih uvjeta i stručne podrške u dvojnoj karijeri učenika sportaša moglo bi se provoditi uspješnije.

Ključne riječi: dvojna karijera, posebni uvjeti, stručna podrška

Introduction

The EU dual career background

“The development and promotion of the Dual Career (DC) concept started back in 2004, and was connected to the European Year of Education through Sport (EYES). The experience obtained throughout that year showed the need for more concrete actions in this field. Some of the subsequent policy documents, i.e. the Commission’s White Paper on Sport (2007, p.5-6) and the Communication “Developing the European Dimension in Sport” (2011, p. 6-7) confirmed the importance of sport and education. The documents also highlight that the cooperation between sports organisations and educational institutes is beneficial for both sectors as well as employment. At the highest political level, the European Council in its Declaration on Sport (12/2008, p. 21) called for strengthening the dialogue with the International Olympic Committee (IOC) and with the other representatives of the world of sport, in particular on the matter of young people combining sports training and education.” (Kazandziewa, 2018) “In the past decade, the European Parliament and Commission, the IOC, the European Athlete as Student (EAS) network, and researchers have fostered the development of a balanced combination of sports and education/work commitments (i.e., DC) in elite athletes.” (European Parliament, 2015). Further work on dual careers was the document “EU Guidelines on Dual Careers of Athletes”, which was approved by the European Commission on the 28th of September, 2012. The document focused on the ways of addressing the challenges related to the combination of high-level sports training with general education or work. The Republic of Croatia started with the DC projects in 2007, although at that point Croatia was not an official member of the European Union (it became a member of the EU on the 1st of July 2013). In order to provide a better understanding of DC, we are going to provide a brief description of the Croatian DC system, with an emphasis on secondary school system.

Dual career of athletes in Croatia

In the Republic of Croatia, the Ministry of Tourism and Sports as a GO¹ and the Croatian Olympic Committee as an NGO² present the umbrella organizations that are responsible for the DC policy. According to the EU directives, the Croatian Olympic Committee (COC) proposed the “National Program for the development of Sports Career and Post-Sports Career 2014 – 2020”, which was approved by the National Council of Sport in 2014. Great support in the implementation of the DC actions is given to the COC by the European Olympic Committee (EOC) (financial support for the DC projects) and the International Olympic Committee (IOC) (workshops for athletes, etc.). In Croatia, there are some specific educational regulations, reward mechanisms, as well as assistance and employment programs at universities and in secondary schools. The COC signed the agreement with the Rectors’ Council of the Republic of Croatia and the Croatian Academic Sport Association (2015) regarding the DC for categorized athletes as well as for categorized para-athletes. One of the results of the agreement with the Rectors’ Council is the document “Regulations on the Study of Student-Athletes at Universities in the Republic of Croatia” (May, 2016). Despite the regulations at most universities in Croatia, the adjustments of study and sport obligations depend more or less on informal or individual negotiations of the individual student-athlete. Between 2007 and 2016, the activities of the DC were focused on the university level: round tables at universities, promotional DC days organized by Croatian universities, agreements with the Rectors’ Council, the elective course (Sports Career) for kinesiology students in Zagreb, etc. In this process, attempts were made to promote and strengthen Croatian university sport. Each of the mentioned DC activities have raised awareness in the academic society about the minimum standard of DC (adjustment of the timetable, the possibility of increasing the allowed hours of absence from classes, extension of student status by two years, knowledge test by agreement, etc.). Since the beginning of the DC projects in Croatia (2007), two kinesiology faculties (in Zagreb and Split) have supported the activities of the DC as project partners, as they are the institutions with the majority of athletes who, after their sports career, decide to become PE teachers, coaches

¹ Governmental Organisation

² Non-Governmental Organisation

of a specific sport, conditioning coaches, or sports managers, etc. The actions of these faculties, the regulations prescribed by the University of Dubrovnik, i.e. "Study Regulations for Categorised Athletes in Bachelor's and Master's programmes at the University of Dubrovnik" (2009) and the latest regulations of the University of Pula (2019) are good examples of providing and securing DC services for athletes at universities. Private universities and high schools have special interest in the education of athletes and some of them have signed a special agreement with the COC, which defines the specific conditions and special support for athletes during their studies. Since 2017, according to the Sports Law, every athlete who has won a medal at the Olympic or Paralympic Games and at the Deaflympics is entitled to a scholarship. In addition, Croatian athletes receive financial and material support through four COC support programs (2018: 239 athletes from 32 sports). From program to program (from the cadet category (15 years old) to the promising A and B programs and the program for quality athletes (older than 20 years old), the financial and material support becomes increasingly significant and the possibility to enter some of the COC support programs is open throughout the competition year (according to COC Public Support Program and Financial Plan, 2018). Croatian DC system has been focused mainly on universities and after initial successes more effort should be put in secondary schools.

According to the Croatian Bureau of Statistics (2019), there are 436 secondary schools in Croatia; the majority of which are grammar schools (41.9%), while the rest are industrial and vocational schools (9.9%). There is one public (Sports High School "ŠPOGI") and one private business and sports high school (PEŠG) for athletes, while there are sports classes in 10 secondary schools, which offer many forms of coordination of teaching obligations and sports career, such as a small number of students in the class, distance learning methods, support of teaching and sports coordinators in coordination of obligations, individual assistance, sports holidays, etc. Regarding the DC system, the prevailing mode is individual adaptation of learning obligations formally defined for the student-athlete. In a previous DC study on a sample of 564 young athletes, of which 337 were male athletes and 227 female athletes (ages 15-20), namely the participants of Croatian Sports Secondary Schools Games in Poreč (2013), it was found that 192 student-athletes rarely had problems in primary school,

while 46 stated faced problems "very often". During secondary school, more student-athletes had problems with the teachers' adjustment and understanding: 262 rarely and 62 very often. The majority of student-athletes (252) were absent from school several times per month for up to a few hours, while a small number, 39 students, were absent for the same amount of time during most of the school year (Caput-Jogunica, R., 2013).

Although the majority of Croatian athletes have an overall grade very good or excellent in primary and secondary schools (Caput-Jogunica, 2007), some of them drop out of regular secondary schools due to lack of understanding in schools (problems with some of the teachers, too many school commitments, exhaustion due to preparation for competitions, poor grades and lack of motivation, etc.) and continue their education at secondary level through correspondence courses or give up education for a sports career. The second scenario is the abandonment of a sports career for a successful performance in secondary education and enrollment at university. In reference to the European Commission document: Europe 2020 "A Strategy for Smart, Sustainable and Inclusive growth"(p. 9), one of the priorities was to "tackle the problem of school leavers by reducing the school drop-out rate from the current 15% to 10%, while increasing the share of 30-34 year olds who have completed tertiary education from 31% to at least 40% by 2020. Better educational attainment boosts employability".

An example of the importance of this priority is confirmed on the sample of 73 former and active Croatian top athletes who participated in the Olympic Games or in the World or European competitions and won a medal. The data was collected and presented at Action Day "For and after Sports Career", which was held in Split in 2013. The majority of athletes (42%) had a secondary school degree, 37% had a vocational school degree and 14% had a university degree. During the implementation of this study, 7% of athletes had a student status at the University in Split. The results on employment showed that 5% of the athletes are unemployed (all of them have a secondary school degree), while 6% are still professional athletes and 38% are employed in sports and other services. The majority of the athletes (23%) with secondary education are employed in other services, while the athletes with secondary education

are mainly employed in sports as coaches, or secretaries in various sports organizations (sports clubs, sports federations, etc.). The main conclusion of the study is that athletes with higher education have more opportunities in different services, as well as in the private and public sector.

According to Europe 2020, Croatia, as a member state, must at national level: "...ensure efficient investment in education and training systems at all levels (from pre-primary to tertiary); improve educational outcomes by addressing each segment (pre-primary, primary, secondary, vocational and tertiary) within an integrated approach that includes key competences and aims to reduce school dropouts (p. 15)."

At the end of this introductory part, where the Croatian DC system and documents were presented, it is important to emphasize the lack of monitoring or quality assessment procedures of public policies, which is the subject of this paper. The purpose of this paper is to present the Croatian DC system and its perspective for athletes in secondary schools. In order to achieve this goal we have included the following guiding questions: 1. *Are there differences between student athletes in three secondary schools (one of which is specialized for student athletes, while the other two schools have special classes for athletes) in terms of observed sport variables and prescribed DC special conditions and support for student athletes?*, 2. *What is necessary to improve DC support in secondary schools and how can young athletes be helped in the future?*, and 3. *Is our DC system meeting the needs of student-athletes in secondary schools?*

Methods

Participants

The participants of this study were 54 young athletes - students (31 female and 23 male) with an average age of 17 in 2019 (the majority of the athletes (38, 70.37%) was born in 2002). Most of them are student-athletes in the 3rd grade of secondary school (40, 74.07%), with representatives from three secondary schools: Sports Grammar School (21 athletes), Grammar School Sesvete (16 athletes) from Zagreb, and grammar school from Rijeka (17 athletes), namely "Prva riječka hrvatska gimnazija". All these grammar schools provide the

DC special conditions and support that athletes need in education and sports. The athletes - participants of this study are mostly engaged in: sports games (55.56%), martial arts (14.81%), aquatics (11.11%), racquet sports (7.41%) and field and track (5.6%). The sample for this study includes one student athlete, each from: shooting (1.85%), bowling (1.85%), and skiing (1.85%).

Instrument

The study was conducted in 2019 as part of the project “Sinergy of sports culture, Olympic values and dual careers in sport (“Synergy”).” The instrument used was a 19-item questionnaire, designed to collect information on: demographics (Q 1-5) (gender, age, sport, school, and grade), sport engagement (Q 6-8) (experience in sports, time dedicated to sport, and level of categorization), problems in DC (Q 9-10) (school changes, main problems), DC support athletes receive at personal, sport, and school levels (Q 11-13), DC policy implementation in school (Q 14-15), career transition and interest in future education (Q 16-18). The last question related to the impact of the workshop on DC terminology. Close-ended questions were chosen for data collection (e.g., checklist type with one or more responses). The participants were given an opportunity to additionally explain their answers to some questions (Q-9 - problems, Q10 - changing schools, Q-12 DC - support, Q16 and 17 - transition, and Q18 - interest in future education).

Procedure

The study was conducted following DC workshops held in 2019, in Croatian Sports Museum, as part of the project “Sinergy”, launched by the Olympic solidarity program of European Olympic Committee (EOC). The student-athlete leaders provided signed parental consent forms for all student-athletes who participated in this study. Participation was voluntary and anonymous, and the athletes were informed that incomplete responses would not be considered.

Statistical analysis

Prior to the analysis, the data were checked for missing data and outliers. Descriptive statistics expressed in frequencies and percentages were calculated

for questions for which a single response (Q 1-11, Q 13-15, Q 17-18) or multiple responses (Q 12, 16) were allowed. With the aim of estimating an association between schools, gender, and sport-related variables such as: experience in sports, categorization, training frequency, etc., Chi-squared test (χ^2 test), and the Cochran-Mantel-Haenszel (CMH) test were applied. If the expected cell frequency was <5 , Fisher's exact test was used instead of the χ^2 test. Finally, with the aim of determining if there were differences between the three schools in terms of student – athletes gender and experience in sports, a two-factor analysis of variance with interaction was implemented. The statistical analysis was performed using SAS 9.4.

Results

A large number of studies on a sample of athletes have been conducted using online questionnaires (Adams, Cofee and Lavallee, 2015; Linner, Stambulova, Lindahl and Wylleman, 2019; Condello, Capranica, Doupona, Varga and Burk, 2019) or interviews (Geranosova and Ronkainen, 2015). The unique feature of this study is the implementation of a live anonymous survey with young student-athletes at the end of workshops on: Sports Culture, Fair Play, and Dual Careers organized at the Croatian Sports Museum. Analyzing the categorization of the young athletes who were the participants of this study, it was found that 43.59% of them were categorized athletes: 16.67% were elite athletes (category III), 5.56% were elite athletes (category II), while 14.81% belonged to category IV (excellent athletes), with 3.70% and 1.85% being gifted athletes (categories V and VI respectively), in accordance with the COC register of athlete categorization. According to the analysis of the athletes' responses to the frequency of training, the majority of athletes (57.41%) trained every day, while 33.33% of athletes trained several times a day. Unfortunately, two athletes ended their sports career during secondary school, and 5.56% trained fewer than 3 times a week.

In absence of a study monitoring schools with special conditions for athletes, we asked student-athletes if they had difficulty meeting their commitments to school and sports. Despite mandated flexibility in schedule, time off, deferral of homework, special material to overcome tardiness due to practice

and games, deferral or adjustment of regular exams, mentor, etc., 55.56% of student-athletes confirmed that they face the problem of adjusting to commitments. The reasons given by the student-athletes were lack of time to study due to commitment in sports and socializing with friends. This finding was supported by the athletes' statements: "Sometimes I don't have enough time to study, play a game and hang out with friends, and I usually neglect school"; "Fatigue - it is hard to rest for training after school commitments"; "Most teachers have no understanding for frequent absences due to club and national team commitments"; "I'm thinking about giving up training because I think I won't be admitted to the faculty I want (medicine) because I can't manage to study".

The analysis of student-athletes' responses about absence from school revealed that 38.89% of student-athletes are absent several times a month for several hours of instruction, 16.67% student-athletes are absent 2-3 school days a week, while 14.81% student-athletes are absent up to 2 weeks a month. This study has confirmed that student-athletes got most help and support (83.33%) in the DC from family and from coaches (9.26%) for the first response, while for the second response most athletes obtained support from their coach (27.78%) and friends (22.22%), with the note that 35.19% did not respond. We asked the athletes if there was a defined DC support system in their sports club (meeting with parents, coach's interest in school results and problems, etc.). Only 22.22% of the athletes answered affirmately, with the explanation that support is organized in the form of parent meetings and coaches who care about students' school results or problems.

With the aim of reviewing what kind of DC support is offered to athletes in their school, we asked which of the following specific conditions (mentoring, peer support, exam timetable adjustments, school-sports club collaboration agreements, opportunity to complete compulsory lessons online) applied (Table 1). The students indicated as their first choice that the following special conditions were most common at their school: for 37.04% athletes there was an opportunity for a knowledge test (oral, written); 27.78% received teacher-mentor support; and 18.52% got peer support. The second response option most frequently mentioned was agreements between the sports club and school (24.07%). Only 25.93% indicated that their sports club signed an agreement

with the school, 53.70% answered negatively, and 20.37% had no information about such collaboration.

Table 1 Analysis of the application of the DC special conditions in the secondary schools

DC special conditions in school: athletes 1st answer	f	%	DC special conditions in school: athletes 2nd answer	f	%
adjustment to exam timetable	20	37.4	no answer	21	38.89
mentor – teacher	15	27.78	adjustments to exam timetable	16	29.63
peer support	10	18.52	collaboration between school and sports club	13	24.07
collaboration between school and sports club	3	5.56	peer support	2	3.71
Other	6	11.10	mentor	1	1.85
6 students - athletes (female, handball and volleyball) most of them from Grammar School Sesevete wrote that they were not satisfied with the quality of DC special conditions and support			online education	1	1.85

We calculated Fisher’s exact test with the aim of determining the differences between two nominal variables: school and gender, with variables related to athletes’ training frequency, sports categorization, cooperation between school and sports club, athletes’ absence from school due to sports commitments, and athletes’ perception of DC special conditions in their school. The results were presented in Table 2.

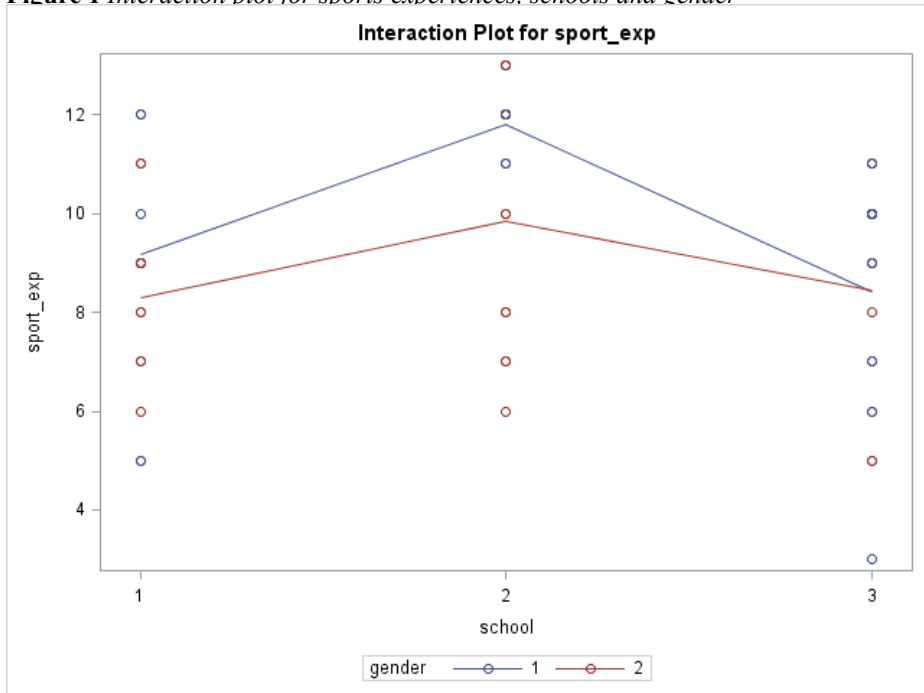
Table 2 Results of χ^2 , Fisher's exact and CMH test

Variables	Fisher's exact test P	3 rd variable	CMH test		
			df	value	prob
Training frequency by school (male)	0.2386				
Training frequency by school (female)	0.6913	gender	6	3.8918	0.6913
Sport categorization by school (male)	0.6894				
Sport categorization by school (female)	0.6009	gender	2	0.3990	0.8191
Collaboration school-club/school (male)	0.5544				
Collaboration school-club/school (female)	0.0987	gender	4	4.3097	0.3657
Absence from school/school (male)	0.5558				
Absence from school/school (female)	0.0869	gender	10	20.6330	0.0238
DC special conditions/school (male)	0.1206				
DC special conditions/school (female)	<0001	gender	8	38.7812	<0.0001

The statistically significant differences were calculated and found for school and female athletes in the interaction of the DC special conditions and school absences. This can be explained by Brandt, Wylleman, Torregrossa, Defruyt, and Rossem's (2017) study, in which they found that female athletes prioritize their academic efforts more often than male athletes. According to Tekave, Wylleman, and Cecić Erpič (2015), male athletes were less serious in organizing their DC than their female counterparts. In order to answer the first question of this paper: *Are there differences between student-athletes in three secondary schools* (one of them is specialized for student-athletes, while the

other two schools have special classes for athletes)?, the results were shown in Figure 1 and presented in the following tables.

Figure 1 Interaction plot for sports experiences, schools and gender



Note: schools: 1. Grammar School Sesvete, 2. First Riječka Croatian Grammar School (Prva riječka hrvatska gimnazija), 3. Sports Gymnasium, Gender: 1 – male, 2 female

The analysis of descriptive statistics showed differences between schools in the athletes’ sports experiences by gender, but not statistically significant (Table 3). Graph 1 shows the interaction between athletes’ experiences in sports with schools and gender. According to this, there are differences between schools from Rijeka (mean± Std Dev 10.41±2.34) and the schools from Zagreb (Sesvete 8.62±2.24 and Sport Gymnasium 8.42±2.31) regarding athletes’ experiences in sports. In general, male student-athletes have a longer experience in sports than female student-athletes from their school (Table 4). Finally, in Table 5, we presented the results of ANOVA for the athletes’ sports experience (years) as the dependent variable and school, gender, and school-gender

interaction as the factors which confirmed that there were no statistically significant differences.

Table 3. Descriptive statistics for secondary school and gender

Secondary School	Gender		Athletes' experiences in sports	
	M-male F-female	N	Mean± Std Dev	
Grammar School Sesvete	M	6	9.16±2.78	8.62±2.24
	F	10	8.3±1.94	
First Riječka Croatian Grammar School	M	5	11.8±0.83	10.41±2.34
	F	12	9.83±2.55	
Sports Grammar School	M	12	8.41±2.57	8.42±2.31
	F	9	8.44±2.06	

Table 4. Descriptive statistics for gender and sports experience

Gender	N	Experience in sports	
		Mean	Std Dev
Male athletes	23	9.34	2.65
Female athletes	31	8.93	2.27

Table 5 Results of ANOVA for experience in sports (years) as the dependent variable and school, gender and interaction between school and gender as factors

	Df	Type III SS	Mean	F values	Pr>F	Tukey-Kramer*
School	2	52.34391172	26.17195586	4.94	0.0112	
Gender	1	10.57317579	10.57317579	1.99	0.1644	(1.3)(2)
School-gender	2	8.34357348	4.17178674	0.79	0.4611	

The last part of the questionnaire was related to career transition and interest in future education (Q16-18). The analysis of these data should help answer the following question: *What do we need to improve DC support in Croatian secondary schools?* The results of many studies showed that secondary school is a sensitive period for young athletes, and some studies confirmed that female student-athletes in particular end their sports careers in large numbers due to school commitments and better preparation for university. This problem was identified in the study of the National Institute for Public finance (2012), where

217.808 athletes and 40.557 female athletes are registered, with the indication that the number of female athletes decreases significantly from cadet to senior category. Therefore, the aim was to find out how many of the participants were thinking about ending their sports career or education. For those who answered affirmatively, we opened the space to write the reasons. Although the participants in this study were students in secondary schools that provide DC special conditions and support for student-athletes, 42.59% athletes responded affirmatively to the question regarding career termination. The main reasons are summarized as follows: "It is hard to balance school and sports commitments", "A two - year break because of sports injury", "Because of poor interaction between the club administration and players", "Lack of time for school commitments because of hard training every day", etc. The analysis of the athletes' responses to the final question about their interest in postsecondary education provided hope and optimism for their future. The students were mostly interested in the study of kinesiology (22.22%), physiotherapy (14.81%), sports psychology (9.26%), and economy and entrepreneurship (5.56%). Other athletes expressed interest in journalism, law, teaching, engineering, nutrition, medicine, pharmacy, and military academy. Only 24.07% athletes responded negatively.

Discussion and conclusion

Based on the current situation, it is important to discuss the following fundamental question: *Does our DC system meet the needs of student-athletes in Croatian secondary schools (grammar schools) that specialize in athletes, as well as in other secondary schools that offer the possibility of post-secondary work?* According to Križelj (2009), we can describe Croatian sports system for young athletes in schools (elementary and secondary schools) as a parallel model in which young athletes compete for the sports club where they train, as well as for their school in school sports competitions at different levels (regional to national). The good sides of this model are the possibility of a quality cooperation between the school and the sports club, the use of school sports infrastructure for training and competitions, and the selection of young athletes. A disadvantage of this model is that the same young athletes participate in competitions, which means that two systems of competitions are

funded for the same athletes and there is no program for the athletes who have not passed the selection in sports.

Based on the current situation, it is important to discuss the following fundamental question: *Does our DC system meet the needs of student-athletes in Croatian secondary schools that specialize in athletes, as well as in other schools that offer the possibility of post-secondary work?* According to Križelj (2009), while considering the results of this study, we can conclude that the cooperation between sports clubs and schools is unsatisfactory. Moreover, the analysis of young athletes' answers revealed that the implementation of DC special conditions and support services in these secondary schools is not satisfactory. In addition, the Croatian law on education in primary and secondary schools is not sufficiently precise regarding DC special conditions and support for young athletes in schools. Schools have some autonomy and opportunities to make their own decisions, which means that the sports sector (sports clubs) must establish cooperation and help athletes, with the aim of avoiding young athletes being left on their own.

To the authors' knowledge, the analysis of Croatian DC services has not been studied. One of the reasons for this could be the lack of a national consensus on the introduction of the National Athletes' Career Program or service (NACP), following the example of IOC Athlete Support Program (2005) or United Kingdom (Performance Lifestyle Program) or Australia (Athlete Career and Education Program), etc. In the EU survey on best practices in the field of athlete DC (2018), the Athlete Career Program or service is described as an integrated and comprehensive combination of educational tools (seminars, workshops), individual counseling or a referral network that provides individualized and/or group-oriented multidisciplinary support services for athletes, from aspiring young athletes to retiring and already retired athletes (Kazandzieva, 2018). Alferman and Stambulova (2007) and Wylleman, Harword, Elbe, Reints and Caluwe (2009) defined a set of principles that need to be implemented in this type of program or service: 'whole career' and 'whole person', developmental and individual approach, multilevel treatment (supporting athletes in transition) and empowerment approach (helping athletes to develop coping resources and strategies, etc.). To sum up, the results of this study show that young athletes

have interest in different courses of study and projections for their post-sport careers in different professions.

The secondary schools that participated in this study have a general program, which means that they do not provide opportunities for employment of athletes with secondary education. It is important to emphasize the quality of education that allows athletes to acquire basic knowledge for successful enrollment at a large number of universities. According to Milas and Ferić (2009) the problem of school leaving is present in the Croatia, with different data: for example, according to the ministry responsible for education in 2005, approximately 30% students dropped out of secondary schools, while 70% of students successfully finish secondary schools in time. The Central State of Statistics counted 12% of people without secondary school education that could be close to the real situation. Unfortunately, we do not have data related to athletes-school dropouts from secondary school, and this is an area that should be monitored in the future. With regard to the improvement of the Croatian DC system in secondary schools they must be reminded to follow the principles prescribed by the Law on Education in Elementary and Secondary Schools (2008), for example, "Educational work in school is based on partnership with all educational partners at the local, regional and national levels". In relation to this topic, this means that the school must open the door to partners and work effectively with them with the goal of supporting and fulfilling the interests of student-athletes. The consequences of young athletes dropping out of secondary school could be detrimental to their post-sport careers. According to Newcomb (1996), dropping out of school is an expression of false maturity that pushes young people to take on adult roles. Geranosova and Ronkainen (2015) found on the sample of Slovak athletes that teachers' prejudices towards athletes because of their roles in sports and the lack of DC structures seem to be significant deficits in DC support. The same problem has been identified in this study, where the student-athletes wrote: "Lack of understanding from teachers", "Lack of flexibility in mandatory attendance in exams", "Frequent absences from school", etc. These reasons were also found in Ferić, Milas and Rihtar's (2010) research. The authors state the following reasons: a wrong choice of school that does not match the students' aspirations or abilities, facing a too demanding school

program, loss of motivation for work and learning, increased absences from school, as well as other, intertwined reasons.

To sum up, the results of this study suggest that student-athletes need better DC support in secondary schools that offer a special program for athletes. In collaboration with the ministries responsible for education and sport. In order to achieve a successful DC in secondary schools and raise the young athletes' interest in different study programs, we should, in collaboration with ministries responsible for education and sport, take into account athletes' responses related to the problems they are dealing with. We can improve the Croatian DC system with establishing a Career Assistance Program or services for athletes supported on the national basis, where all interested athletes would be able find help and support during their sports career. Further research containing data on elementary schools can complete our analysis and show how many athletes drop out of school (elementary, secondary) or sports. This data should be helpful for DC system improvements in the future.

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THE CORRELATION OF STUDENTS' PROGRESS ASSESSED BY VERBOTONAL TEACHERS AND SPEECH AND LANGUAGE PATHOLOGISTS AND SOCIAL SUPPORT REPORTED BY PARENTS

Abstract

The paper examines the differences and similarities in the assessments of verbotonal teachers and speech and language pathologists regarding the activities, educational habits, and progress of children with speech and language disorders and hearing impairments who are enrolled in the program of the elementary school at SUVAG Polyclinic. These assessments were compared with perceived social support reported by students' parents. The research was conducted at the SUVAG Polyclinic Elementary School, Zagreb in 2019. Three groups of participants took part in the research: parents of children with speech and language disorders and hearing impairment, verbotonal teachers and SLPs of those children. The results of the research showed that there is a significant degree of harmonization in the assessment of the child's activity and educational habits and progress by verbotonal teachers and SLPs. Parents' reports regarding received social support differ from the opinion of the experts.

Keywords: social support, functional skills, students with developmental disorders and hearing impairment

PROCJENA VERBOTONALNIH UČITELJA I LOGOPEDA/ AUDIOREHABILITATORA O FUNKCIONIRANJU UČENIKA S GOVORNO-JEZIČNIM POREMEĆAJIMA I UČENIKA S OŠTEĆENJEM SLUHA S OBZIROM NA UTJECAJ SOCIJALNE PODRŠKE RODITELJA

Sažetak

U radu su se ispitale razlike odnosno podudarnosti u procjenama verbotonalnih učitelja i logopeda o aktivnostima, odgojno-obrazovnim navikama i napredovanju djece s govorno-jezičnim poremećajima i oštećenjem sluha Osnovne škole Poliklinike SUVAG. One su povezane sa socijalnom podrškom koju roditelji učenika primaju iz okoline. Istraživanje je provedeno u Osnovnoj školi Poliklinike SUVAG Zagreb tijekom 2019. godine. U istraživanju su sudjelovale tri skupine sudionika: roditelji djece s govorno-jezičnim poremećajima i oštećenjem sluha, verbotonalni učitelji i logopedi. Rezultati istraživanja pokazali su da postoji visok stupanj usklađenosti procjene djetetovih aktivnosti, odgojno-obrazovnih navika i napretka koji su procijenili verbotonalni učitelji i logopedi. No, percepcija roditelja o primljenoj socijalnoj podršci drugačija je u odnosu na percepciju navedenih stručnjaka.

Ključne riječi: socijalna podrška; funkcionalne vještine, učenici s teškoćama u razvoju i oštećenjem sluha

Introduction

Verbotonal teachers¹ and speech and language pathologists (hereinafter SLPs) play a key role in the process of education, assessing a child's language, speech, and communication development. The parents of such children represent an important link in this process. Without their active participation, rehabilitation and education would not be successful. The cooperation of experts of various profiles is an important aspect in the success of rehabilitation (Dulčić, Bakota, & Pavičić Dokoza, 2009), although this relation has not yet been sufficiently explored.

The rationale for this research was the fact that parents who actively participate in rehabilitation and schooling processes on a daily basis do not have the same living conditions and are not able to provide their children with the same quality of support. The project was created to explore the coherence of the interdisciplinary team of SUVAG Polyclinic Elementary School regarding the fact that verbotonal teachers and SLTs collaborate daily. It is a dynamic system based on interdependent and equal interaction between experts. In this context, it was interesting to see whether the social support that parents receive from the environment affected the assessment of verbotonal teachers and SLPs on the quality of students' activities, educational habits and progress.

Research has shown that social support has a positive effect on parental well-being, family functioning and interactions among family members, as well as on parental functioning. Research conducted by Wong et al. (2018) showed that parents may need assistance with managing behavioural problems at home, and teachers should facilitate more opportunities to practice prosocial behaviour at school. Intervention efforts should focus on facilitating good functional listening skills, as this may, in turn, improve the mental health of young DHH children.

Slovik et al. (2020) reported on importance of cooperation between parents, SLTs and the teacher during the rehabilitation. The authors especially emphasize the importance of the role of a hearing-impaired child's parent in the process

¹ Verbotonal teachers and speech and language pathologists in SUVAG Polyclinic work with children with speech, language and hearing impairments using the verbotonal method founded by academician Petar Guberina in the middle of the 20th century (Dulčić et al., 2014).

of rehabilitation. They concluded that parents are the best in assessing their child's hearing, followed by the speech therapist, with the least sensitive being the school teacher.

Sadler (2005) emphasized the partner relationship among students, teachers and parents as an important factor in the process of students' education. Establishing a positive emotional connection in the relation parent – child and child – teacher is a precondition for the healthy development of a child, which is indispensable for emotional and social maturity. This is very noticeable in the educational process of students with developmental difficulties (Sadler, 2005).

Morgan and Haglund (2009) state that the connections of individuals on social networks and in social communities strongly influence their health, well-being, and life expectancy. Also, social support is important for the academic success of students with disabilities. Cheng, Deng and Yang (2020) conducted a study on 225 students with hearing impairment attending schools in mainland China. Those with a higher level of social support scored higher, while those with a lower level of social support had lower grades.

Lu et al. (2015) and Nomagtchi and Milkie (2020) point out that parents who receive more social support from different sources in their environment will have a better quality of life and will cope better with the various challenges and problems they face as their children grow up. Brooks et al. (2015) write that the quality of social relations between the parent and child is related to social support and will affect children's satisfaction, the child's self-esteem and ability to refuse risky health behaviours.

Hemati Alamdarloo et al. (2019) showed that there is a significant difference between perceived social support and its subscales between mothers of children with hearing impairments, mothers of children with visual impairments and mothers of children without disabilities. The observed social support and its subscales in mothers of children with hearing impairment and mothers of children with visual impairment are significantly lower than in mothers of children who develop normally ($p < 0.01$). It should be noted that there was no significant difference in the perception of social support between mothers of children with hearing impairments and mothers of children with visual impairments. Lippold et al. (2018) concluded in their research that children whose parents

have a better quality of life and who spend more time with their children have better health and health-related patterns of behaviour. Parents who have greater social support in their environment are more connected to their children than parents who feel alienated in their community. The research conducted by Aras et al. (2013) showed that parents of children with impaired speech and hearing in preschool age have a lower HRQoL² than parents of healthy children of the same age. The mothers of hearing-impaired children are particularly affected, which shows a negative impact in almost all health domains.

Vasilopoulou and Nisbet (2016) also prove that parenting children with disabilities is extremely challenging and complex. Raising children with disabilities requires a lot of sacrifice, time dedicated only to the child, and there is a greater need for information, advice, and support from various sources. Therefore, a significant role of others is expected, especially their social support, in achieving desirable outcomes (Aras et al., 2013).

Students in the SUVAG Polyclinic Elementary School are educated according to the regular programme, but in special conditions. These special conditions refer to students' participation in daily speech and language rehabilitation, physiotherapy and other verbotonal methodological programs in SUVAG Polyclinic (body and music stimulation) combined with the mainstream education process. In the SUVAG Polyclinic Elementary School, verbotonal teachers and SLPs combine their specific knowledge, competencies and skills with a holistic approach and provide intensive therapy and optimal education to students with hearing and/or speech disorders. Through teamwork and a good organizational structure, they evaluate the therapy and educational goals initially defined and, if necessary, redefine them.

Methodology

Aim and purpose of the research

The intention of this research was to contribute to the existing knowledge on behavioural assessments of children with speech and language disorders by verbotonal teachers and SLPs, as well as to assess if there is a correlation with

² Health-Related Quality of Life

parents' judgement regarding social support. This can be observed as a starting point for decision making regarding education and therapy goals.

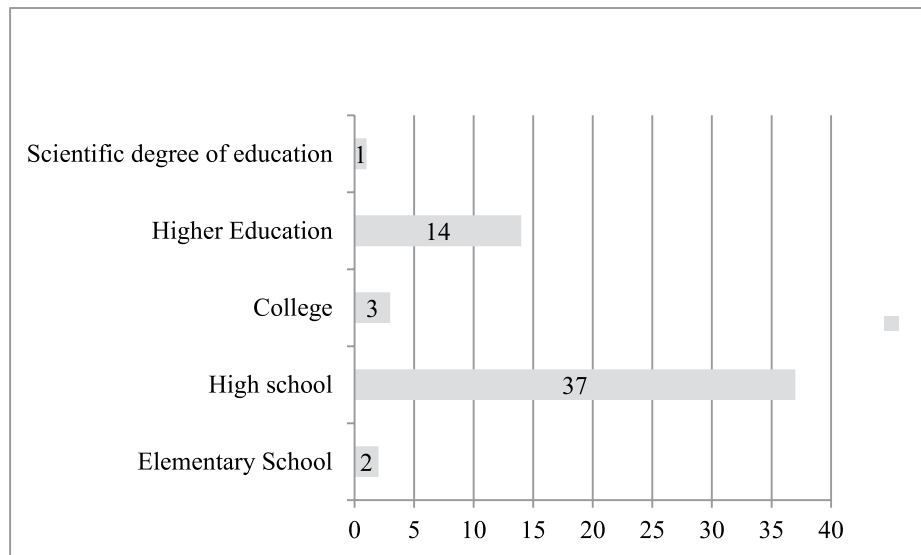
In connection with the aforementioned research intention, the aim of this research was to:

1. Analyse and correlate the factor structure of the questionnaire created for the purpose of this study by having the experts complete the questionnaires (verbotonal teacher vs SLPs).
2. Examine the differences and/or similarities in the assessments of verbotonal teachers and SLPs regarding activities, educational habits, and progress of children with speech and language disorders and hearing impairments measured by questionnaires and to correlate them with parents' assessment of the social support they receive.

Sample

Participants in this research were parents of 1st to 4th grade students enrolled in SUVAG Polyclinic Elementary School. Research was conducted in 2019. Three groups of participants participated in the study. The first group of participants were 57 parents of children enrolled in the study, the second group were verbotonal teachers (16 participants) and the third group included SLPs (16 participants). 84% of the parent group were mothers. In the group of verbotonal teachers and SLPs, all participants were women. Regarding parents' degree of education (Figure 1), the largest number of parents in this study finished high school (65%).

Figure 1. Parental degree of education



Research methods

Parents completed the Croatian version of the Social Support Scale. The original Social Support Scale was constructed by MacDonald in 1998, and the verification of its metric characteristics was also done in Croatia. The scale consists of 56 statements relating to the social support of friends and family. Participants indicate agreement with each individual statement on a scale of 5 degrees, with the number 1 meaning general disagreement and number 5 a complete match. The total result is obtained as a linear combination of responses on all items, and the reverse scored items are considered. The reliability of the internal correlation type (Cronbach alpha) is 0.96 for total social support. All statements in the scale relating to different types of social support have satisfactory factor saturations (from 0.40 to 0.88) (Tucak Janković et al., 2016).

Verbotonal teachers and SLTs independently rated and provided answers to a set of sixteen questions measuring different aspects of a child's progress (related to successful rehabilitation and educational achievements) designed for the purpose of this study. Each question was answered on a 5-point Likert-type scale.

Results

For the analysis in this study, the total score on the Social Support Scale was obtained. The average result (AM) of the total score of the Social Support Scale was 4.43 with a standard deviation (SD) of 0.42.

To determine the constructive and content validity of the questionnaire for assessing the functioning of students by verbotonal teachers and SLPs, a factor analysis was performed. Factor analysis showed that the sphericity condition for factor analysis was met (Bartlett sphericity test $h^2 = 361.38$, $df = 120$, $p < 0.01$), and KMO (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test) was 0.67, which also satisfied the condition for conducting a factor analysis. Extraction was performed by the principal components method with direct oblimin rotation. Kaiser-Gutman criterion factor analysis singles out four factors that have an Eigen value greater than 1. The first factor has an Eigen value of 7.59, the second factor a value of 2.61. The third factor also has an Eigen value above 1 (1.24), and the fourth factor has an Eigen value of 1.05. A total of four factors explains 77.99% of the variance.

Table 2. Factor matrix saturation of questionnaire particles Assessment of student functioning - SLPs - component model with direct oblimin rotation

Particle	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
1. The student cooperates well during rehabilitation.			0.420	
2. The student completes homework regularly.	0.609	0.350		
3. The student has good relationships with peers.				1.008
4. The student treats adults with respect.			0.523	0.419
5. The parents are regularly informed about certain activities during therapy.		0.984		
6. The student participates in extracurricular activities.			-0.413	0.413
7. The parents are proactive about strengthening their role in therapy.		0.835		
8. The student is happy to come to therapy during the school holidays.			0.924	

Particle	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
9. In addition to the parents, other family members are involved in the rehabilitation work with the student.	0.386	0.586		
10. The student is happy to participate in solving tasks in pairs with his peers.				0.628
11. The student is making good progress in the planned activities.	0.926			
12. The assessments of rehabilitators, teachers and parents regarding the student's status are harmonized.	0.728			
13. The assessment of rehabilitators, teachers and parents about the student's activity during therapy is harmonized.	0.585			0.308
14. The parents clearly and accurately inform rehabilitators about the time spent working with the student at home, respecting the instructions given by the experts.		0.913		
15. The student likes to play with his peers during the holidays.				0.957
16. The parents of the student socialize with other parents outside of the rehabilitation environment.				

The first factor called *Students Activity in Rehabilitation* include particles related to the topics of completing rehabilitation materials from home, student progress in planned activities, and the consistency of assessments of rehabilitators, teachers, and parents regarding student status as well as activities during therapy. Two particles saturate on the first and second/fourth factors, respectively, but the saturations are higher in the first factor and the particles are treated as particles of the first factor.

The second factor called *Collaboration with Parents* includes items that thematically address parental involvement in rehabilitation, whether they are regularly informed about therapy activities, how proactive they are in strengthening their role in therapy, whether other family members are involved besides the parents and how and whether parents report to the rehabilitator accurately and

clearly about the time spent by the students on homework while respecting the instructions given by experts.

The third factor called *Collaboration of Student with the Rehabilitator* includes particles of how much a student is progressing in individual rehabilitation, whether he or she treats adults with respect, and whether he or she is happy to come to therapy during the school holidays. The particle "Student treats adults with respect" saturates in the third and fourth factors but has higher saturation in the third and can meaningfully be placed in the third factor, therefore it has been analyzed as a particle of the third factor.

The fourth factor called *Student Activities Outside Rehabilitation* include particles that discuss a student's relationship with peers, participation in extracurricular activities, student participation in solving tasks in pairs with their peers, and students' leisure games with their peers. The particle "Student participates in extracurricular activities" saturated into the third and fourth factors, however, according to saturation, it meaningfully belongs to the fourth factor and is thus analyzed. The last particle "Parents of students socialize with other parents outside the rehabilitation environment" did not saturate into four separate factors and as such was excluded from further analysis.

By reviewing the matrix of correlations between the total score on the questionnaire of the assessment of student functioning by the SLTs and all four factors, satisfactorily high significant correlations were obtained. Factor 1 positively correlates with an overall score of 0.72, the second factor scored 0.77, the third factor 0.80 and the fourth factor 0.89.

Furthermore, the correlations between the first factor and first factor's items also have satisfactorily high correlations with the first factor in the range of 0.79 to 0.85. The reliability of the internal consistency for the first factor is good, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient is 0.81.

The correlations between the second factor and second factor's items are also satisfactory and range from 0.83 to 0.91. The reliability of the internal consistency for the second factor is satisfactory, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient is 0.88.

The correlations between the third factor and third factor' items range from 0.81 to 0.90, which is also satisfactory. The Cronbach alpha coefficient is 0.80.

In the fourth factor, the correlations between the fourth factor and factor's items are satisfactory and range from 0.82 to 0.91. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.90 is also satisfactory.

Also, to determine the constructive and content validity of the questionnaire for assessing the functioning of students by verbotonal teachers, another factor analysis was made. Factor analysis showed that the sphericity condition for factor analysis was met (Bartlett sphericity test $h^2 = 519.14$, $df = 120$, $p < 0.01$), and KMO (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test) was 0.71, which also satisfied the condition for conducting a factor analysis. Extraction was performed by the principal components method with direct oblimin rotation. Kaiser-Gutman criterion factor analysis singles out three factors that have an Eigen value greater than 1. The first factor has an Eigen value of 5.81, the second factor 3.42. The third factor has an Eigen value of 1.34. A total of three factors explains 66.06% of the variance.

Table 3. Factor matrix saturation of questionnaire particles Assessment of student functioning –verbotal teachers - component model with direct oblimin rotation

Particle	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
1. The student cooperates well during class.		0.421	0.603
2. The student completes homework regularly.	0.846		
3. The student has good relationships with peers.		0.844	
4. The student treats adults with respect.	0.361	0.562	
5. The parents are regularly informed about certain activities during the students' education.	0.964		
6. The student participates in extracurricular activities.			
7. Parents are proactive in strengthening their role in upbringing and education.	0.670		0.316
8. The student is happy to come to the workshops during the school holidays.			0.508
9. In addition to the parents, other family members are also involved in the educational work with the student.	0.411		0.399

Particle	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
10. The student is happy to participate in solving tasks in pairs with his peers.		0.840	
11. The student is making good progress in the planned activities.			0.928
12. The assessments of rehabilitators, teachers and parents regarding the student's status are harmonized.			0.726
13. The assessment of rehabilitators, teachers and parents about the student's activity during therapy is harmonized.			0.791
14. Rhents clearly and accurately inform rehabilitators about the time spent working with the student at home, respecting the instructions given by the experts.	0.842		
15. The student likes to play with his peers during the holidays.		0.916	
16. Parents of students socialize with other parents outside of the rehabilitation environment.	0.713		

The first factor called *Collaboration with Parents and Activities from Home* included particles related to parenting activity in educational work and homework writing. Two particles saturate on the first and third fourth factors, but the saturations are higher in the first factor and the particles are analyzed as particles of the first factor.

The second factor called the *Student's Relationship with Peers and toward Adults* included particles that process a student's relationship with peers and how they relate to adults. The first particle also saturated on this factor, but it was later processed in the following way to the level of saturation and meaning in the third factor.

The third factor called *Student Collaboration and Assessment* included particles of how much a student cooperates during class, whether he or she likes to come to workshops during school holidays, how he or she progresses in planned activities, and whether assessments of his or her status are consistent between teachers, parents, and rehabilitators. The particle "Student cooperates well during classes" also saturated in the second factor but was retained as a particle of the third factor.

The particle "Student participates in extracurricular activities" did not saturate in any of the three separate factors.

By reviewing the correlation matrices between the total score on the verbotonal teacher questionnaire and all four factors, satisfactorily significant correlations were obtained. It is slightly lower for the second factor, but still moderately high and significant. Factor 1 positively correlates with an overall score of 0.85, the second factor 0.50, the third factor 0.83.

Furthermore, the correlations between the first factor and first factor's items also have satisfactorily high correlations in the range of 0.68 to 0.92. The reliability of the internal consistency for the first factor is good, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient is 0.90. The correlations of the second factor with the second factor's items are also satisfactory and range from 0.73 to 0.91. The reliability of the internal consistency for the second factor is satisfactory, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient is 0.87. The correlations of the third factor and third factor's items range from 0.63 to 0.88, which is also satisfactory. The Cronbach alpha coefficient is 0.79.

Table 4. Descriptive statistics of total factor scores

	Descriptive Statistics				
	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Student Activity in Rehabilitation	29	6.00	20.0	17.0690	3.39044
Collaboration with Parents	34	4.00	20.0	11.7353	4.54812
Collaboration of Student with the Rehabilitator	49	3.00	15.0	11.2653	2.73690
Student Activities Outside Rehabilitation	41	10.00	20.00	16.9268	3.12562
Collaboration with Parents and Activities from Home	27	35.00	73.00	56.6667	11.26601
Student's Relationship with Peers and toward Adults	50	7.00	29.00	22.3800	6.14747

	Descriptive Statistics				
	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Student Collaboration and Assessment	52	6.00	20.00	17.9231	3.12389
Student Activity in Rehabilitation	49	10	25.00	19.8980	3.42932
Valid N (listwise)	22				

To examine whether there is a statistically significant correlation between the scale of social support and the obtained factors, a Pearson correlation was made. There is a statistically significant positive correlation between student activity during rehabilitation and student collaboration with the SLPs ($r = 0.47$, $p < 0.05$). There is a statistically significant negative correlation between perceived social support by parents and student cooperation with the SLPs ($r = -0.35$, $p < 0.04$). No statistically significant correlation between perceived social support and other factors were found. There is a statistically significant positive correlation between students' cooperation with the SLPs and students' activities outside rehabilitation ($r = 0.68$, $p < 0.01$). Also, there is a statistically significant positive correlation between student activity in rehabilitation and student activity outside rehabilitation ($r = 0.54$, $p < 0.01$). There is a statistically significant positive correlation between the cooperation of students with the SLPs and the cooperation of parents with the rehabilitator ($r = 0.41$, $p < 0.05$).

Teachers score the relationship with peers and adults as better in those students who cooperate better with SLPs ($r = 0.31$, $p < 0.01$). There is a statistically significant positive correlation between a student's rehabilitation activities and teachers' assessments of relationships with peers and adults ($r = 0.62$, $p < 0.01$). There is a statistically significant positive correlation between students' cooperation with SLPs and teachers' assessment of students' cooperation in class and assessment of student status ($r = 0.33$, $p < 0.05$). There is a statistically significant positive correlation between students' activities outside rehabilitation (extracurricular activities and peer relationships) and teachers' assessment of cooperation with parents and work at home ($r = 0.48$, $p < 0.01$). Also, rehabilitators assess non-rehabilitation activities as better in students whose teachers

assess student participation in class as good, as well as assessments of congruence of student status ($r = 0.35$, $p < 0.05$).

There is a statistically significant positive correlation between the teacher's assessment of cooperation with parents and performance of activities at home and the assessment of student cooperation in class and congruence of assessments of student progress status ($r = 0.55$, $p < 0.01$). There is a statistically significant correlation between student participation in class and assessment of status and teacher assessment of students' relationship with peers and towards adults ($r = 0.39$, $p < 0.01$). No statistically significant correlations were found between perceived social support and factors derived from questionnaires completed by the verbotonal teacher.

Discussion

Verbotonal teachers and SLPs have different but complementary skills in encouraging and rehabilitating children's speech-language expression and listening development. SLPs are trained for a language-analytical approach, acquisition of language and speech abilities and skills, while teaching is primarily focused on implementing curricula but encouraging speech-language development and listening in the classroom. The benefits of interdisciplinary collaboration include the transfer and exchange of knowledge and skills between professionals and an approach that meets the requirements of educational curricula and speech-language therapy (Wright & Kersner, 2004).

Wilson, McNeill and Gillon (2016) write about the need to develop and encourage collaborative practice of students, future speech therapists and classroom teachers, emphasizing that acting on the common experiences of SLPs and teachers creates optimal professional conditions.

As a result, at the SUVAG Polyclinic Elementary School and Kindergarten, SLPs and verbotonal teachers work in teams, carry out interdisciplinary work, and develop collaborative competencies such as understanding professional roles and expertise and the skill to make joint professional decisions.

In this study, parents report extremely high scores on the social support scale. Also, the research showed that there is a compatibility regarding the

assessments by verbotonal teachers and SLPs, i.e., that they agree in assessing the functioning of the child. Observed agreement is important because it indicates a high degree of objectivity in the assessment of students by different experts working in the fields of education and rehabilitation. Teachers scored students' work in class as better in the majority of cases when SLPs also positively scored cooperation with a student. So, assessment of student status was consistent.

Those students assessed by their verbotonal teachers to have better cooperation with parents and who completed their homework, were also evaluated by SLPs as scoring higher in activities outside rehabilitation. Also, SLPs assess non-rehabilitation activities higher in students whose verbotonal teachers assess student participation in teaching as good as well as assessments of student status compliance.

Where verbotonal teacher-parent collaboration is better, student-class collaboration is better and these assessments are more consistent.

Verbotonal teachers assess student participation as better in students who maintain good relationships with peers and with adults.

This is in line with the research done by Wilson, McNeill and Gillon (2016) that emphasizes the importance of the connection and influence within the triangle child-parents-experts working with the child, which is the basis of the intervention procedure.

Dulčić et al. (2018) pointed out that it is necessary for both experts who work with the child and parents to objectively assess the child's behaviour in order to have the same expectations. Significant differences between experts and parents in the perception of a child's behaviour cause deviations in expectations of rehabilitation and educational achievements, which has a negative impact on all participants in the process.

It is evident that mothers were significantly more involved in the study, which corresponds to the results of previous research. Research shows that during childhood and adolescence, mothers generally spend more time with their children than fathers (Phares, Fields, & Kamboukos, 2008).

The results of this research show that the lower the social support, the more students of the SUVAG Polyclinic prefer to come for therapy during the school holidays. It is to be expected that students of lower chronological age whose parents do not have social support, achieve in individual rehabilitation, through a stable adult figure, relationships that are lacking in the family. Due to the lack of social support, parents cannot devote as much time to their children as they would like to while performing tasks that ensure the livelihood of the family. This component is not emphasized by the verbotonal teachers because group work has a completely different emotional and social dynamics.

It should be noted that the results indicate that students who cooperate better with the SLPs are eager to participate in rehabilitation and progress well in the planned activities, while the assessment of their status is more consistent. Students whose parents work better together also work better with the SLPs themselves. It is also worth noting that students whose parents work better with the SLPs, maintain better relationships with peers, and participate in extracurricular activities. The resulting different factor structures depending on the assessor (verbotonal teacher vs SLPs) are logical. Those experts have a different scope of practice resulting in different relationship with the student. Also, the student's participation is different (education vs. rehabilitation context).

The quality of support, as well as the attitudes of verbotonal teachers and SLPs, are of great importance for the success of rehabilitation and education.

Conclusion

Collaboration between SLPs and verbotonal teachers is useful to support children's communication skills. SLPs and teachers receive important information about the characteristics of a child's language and speech development through parental assessment. Therefore, speech therapy assessment with parental observation provides a comprehensive description of the child's language, speech, cognitive and emotional development.

A number of studies have confirmed that parents differ both in the interest they show in the student's activities and in the attention, they pay to the child's rehabilitation and schooling. To obtain as relevant information as possible about the child's progress, as well as to equalize instructions on the appropriate form

of schooling and rehabilitation i.e. what parents can do to support the rehabilitation and schooling of their child, it is important that experts' monitoring of the child's achievements is equalized and synchronized. The research showed that there is consistency in the assessment of student activities and educational habits by verbal teachers and SLPs. This can positively affect the planning and implementation of educational and rehabilitation outcomes and provide guidance to parents about the needs of their children. The social support which parents receive from the environment, friends, and family has not been shown to have a statistically significant effect on the assessment of a child's progress by the rehabilitation expert or teacher.

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IZAZOVI STIMULIRANJA AUTOREFLEKSIVNOSTI U NASTAVI KOLEGIJA FOKUSIRANIH NA OBITELJ NA STUDIJU PEDAGOGIJE¹

Sažetak

U nastavu kolegija koji se bave proučavanjem obiteljske dinamike, roditeljavanja i suradnje s obiteljima gotovo svi studenti ulaze s osobnim iskustvom bivanja dijelom obitelji. Nastavnik tomu može pristupiti zanemarivanjem te činjenice, njezinim uvažavanjem, ali nečinjenjem tih iskustava eksplicitnim dijelom nastave ili pak stvaranjem konteksta u kojemu se potiče interpretiranje nastavnih sadržaja uvažavanjem (i) osobnih iskustava kao referentnoga okvira. Takvo stimuliranje autorefleksivnosti ima međutim potencijal generiranja različitih pedagoških dilema, koje obuhvaćaju pitanje nastavnikova legitimiteta za stimuliranje autorefleksivnosti u obrazovanju, opasnost generiranja studentove emocionalne nelagode uslijed kontrastiranja znanstvenih spoznaja s vlastitim obiteljskim iskustvima i opasnost narušavanja povjerljivosti osobnih podataka studenata tijekom nastavnoga procesa. Analizirajući svaku od tih triju dilema, cilj je ovoga rada odgovoriti na pitanje je li, da bi se njihove potencijalne negativne implikacije minimalizirale, nastavu iz ovoga područja moguće/poželjno organizirati izuzimajući studentova osobna iskustva i emocije. Zaključak je provedene analize da apersonalno pristupanje znanstvenim spoznajama u nastavi kolegija fokusiranih na obitelj na studiju pedagogije, čak i ako jest moguće, iz teorijske perspektive kritičke i feminističke pedagogije nije poželjno, zbog čega se konstruktivnijim drži promišljanje o nastavnikovu odgovornome pozicioniranju prema (učincima) autorefleksivnosti u nastavi.

Ključne riječi: emocionalni angažman studenata; feministička pedagogija; kritička pedagogija; pedagoški odnos; visokoškolska nastava

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CHALLENGES OF STIMULATING AUTO-REFLEXIVITY IN FAMILY-FOCUSED COURSES IN PEDAGOGY STUDIES

Almost all students enter courses dealing with family dynamics, parenting, and cooperation with families with personal experience of being a part of a family. The teacher can approach this by ignoring this fact, acknowledging it but not making these experiences an explicit part of teaching, or by creating a context in which the interpretation of teaching content by using personal experiences is encouraged. Such stimulation of auto-reflexivity, however, has the potential of generating various pedagogical dilemmas, including the teacher's legitimacy to stimulate auto-reflexivity in education, the danger of generating emotional discomfort in students due to contrasting scientific knowledge with their own family experiences, and the danger of violating students' personal data. Analyzing each of these three dilemmas, the aim of this paper is to answer whether, in order to minimize their potential negative implications, teaching in this area could/should distance itself from students' personal experiences and emotions. The conclusion of the analysis is that an impersonal approach to scientific knowledge in family-focused courses in pedagogy studies, even if possible, is not desirable from the theoretical perspective of critical and feminist pedagogy. Instead, a focus on preparing teachers for responsibly addressing the described challenges is suggested.

Keywords: critical pedagogy; feminist pedagogy; higher education; pedagogical relationship; students' emotional engagement

1. Uvod

Tijekom godina realizacije nastave u kolegijima Obiteljska pedagogija i Partnerstvo obitelji i odgojno-obrazovne ustanove počela sam uočavati da spomenutim kolegijima studenti pristupaju otvoreno i zainteresirano; da na nastavi dijele svoja promišljanja i osobna iskustva povezana s temama kojima se bavimo, a tekstove koje odabirem kao nastavnu i ispitnu literaturu uglavnom drže poticajnim. Ubrzo sam pretpostavila da je ta zainteresiranost, koja se nije tako spontano javljala u drugim kolegijima koje sam realizirala, uvelike povezana s činjenicom da gotovo svi studenti imaju neposredno i emocionalno intenzivno iskustvo bivanja dijelom određene obitelji i određene dijade *roditelj – dijete*. Ta za realizaciju nastave naoko olakotna okolnost ponekad se iskazuje i kao osobit izazov, koji se očituje u tome da nemali broj studenata upravo svoje obiteljsko iskustvo drži reprezentativnim ili čak jedinim mogućim načinom *bivanja obitelji*, zbog čega na pokušaje teorijskoga i empirijskoga argumentiranja veće konstruktivnosti određenih oblika roditeljevanja ili suradnje s obiteljima, koji nisu

u skladu s njihovim iskustvom, ponekad reagiraju izjavama poput *Ali mene su / meni su moji roditelji... a ispao/ispala sam super!* Ovaj izazov dobro opisuju Allen i Farnsworth (1993, 351), ističući da „[g]otovo svi su imali s obitelji povezana iskustva. Dok se ljudi ne upuste u proces distanciranja od toga iskustva – proces učenja da njihova povijest nije jedini ili najbolji način na koji se obiteljski život može doživjeti – svoje obiteljske okolnosti mogu promatrati kao univerzalne. Refleksivno pristupanje znanju priprema studente na distanciranje od njihovih privatnih obiteljskih života i razvija empatiju za različita iskustva drugih“. Imajući na umu da je recepcija nastavnih sadržaja u ovome području vjerojatno dijelom uvjetovana vlastitom biografijom, ubrzo sam shvatila kako nastava iz ovih kolegija ne može ignorirati vrijednosti i uvjerenja u vezi s obiteljskim životom s kojima studenti dolaze na studij, što je kompatibilno s promišljanjima feministički/kritički orijentiranih autora o visokoškolskoj nastavi.

Analizirajući tako što neki pristup istraživanju i poučavanju čini feminističkim, Crawley i sur. (2008) rabe okvir koji su ponudile Fonow i Cook (1991, prema Crawley i sur., 2008). Prema njima feministički pristup ogleda se u četirima komponentama: važnoj ulozi refleksivnosti, akcijskoj orijentaciji koja od svakoga akademskog rada iziskuje transformativnu komponentnu, uvažavanju emocionalne, a ne samo racionalne komponente čovjekova bića i nastavljanju na bliska, neposredna iskustva u procesu stvaranja poveznica između lokalnoga i globalnoga. Prve dvije premise, važnost refleksivnosti i transformacije društvenih odnosa, bliske su konceptu *konscijentizacije* Paola Freireja (2002, 22), koji se odnosi „na učenje razumijevanja društvenih, političkih i ekonomskih suprotnosti te na djelovanje protiv ugnjetavačkih elemenata stvarnosti“. Iako je Freire stavljao velik naglasak na uočavanje *strukturnih* elemenata koji porobljuju pojedinca, on je također stremio „*izronjavanju* svijesti i *kritičkoj intervenciji* u stvarnost“ (Freire, 2002, 50, isticanje u izvorniku), a da bi ta svijest izronila, u istinskome obrazovnom procesu „ljudi razvijaju moć kritičkog promatranja *načina na koji postoje* u svijetu *s kojim i u kojem* jesu. Počinju svijet vidjeti ne kao statičnu stvarnost, već kao stvarnost u procesu, u preobražavanju“ (Freire, 2002, 52, isticanje u izvorniku). Obitelj u kojoj smo odrasli dio je toga svijeta – dapače, prvi je svijet koji poznajemo i u koji smo toliko uronjeni da može biti zahtjevno kritički sagledati na koji su nas način obiteljska iskustva oblikovala. Na važnost trećega elementa, uvažavanja emocionalne, a

ne samo racionalne komponente čovjekova bića, usmjerava i koncept dispozicija, koje ukazuju na problem da svoja znanja i vještine pedagozi nužno ne implementiraju u praktično djelovanje upravo jer im dispozicije, odnosno „tendencije ponašanja individua na određeni način i u određenim okolnostima temeljem njihovih uvjerenja“ za takvo djelovanje nisu razvijene (Villegas, 2007, 373, prema Bartulović, Kušević i Širanović, 2019, 113). Primjerice, možemo imati bogata *znanja* o tome da kvaliteta roditeljavanja nije determinirana obiteljskom strukturom i *vještine* suradnje s različitim obiteljskim strukturama, no pozitivne *emocije* koje evocira naše odrastanje u funkcionalnoj dvoroditeljskoj obitelji s roditeljima suprotnoga spola i *uvjerenje* da su sve ostale strukture ipak suboptimalne u odnosu na taj ideal mogu pridonijeti tome da u svojem profesionalnom ophođenju s različitim obiteljskim strukturama ipak reproduciramo hegemonijsku formu obitelji (v. u Kušević, 2017), što upućuje na važnost studentova aktivnoga odnošenja prema emocionalnoj komponenti vlastita bića tijekom studija. Konačno, feminističko polazište o važnosti nastavljanja na bliska, neposredna iskustva u procesu stvaranja poveznica između lokalnoga i globalnoga polazi od toga da se kvalitetno obrazovanje javlja „[k]ada učenici prepoznaju važnost vlastitih iskustava i *rabe* svoja iskustva i znanje kao osnove za daljnji razvoj i rast“ (Allen, 1988, Belenky i sur., 1986; oba prema MacDermid i sur., 1992, 32).

Opisane četiri komponente prožimaju praksu autorefleksivnosti, koju razmatram u nastavku rada. Analizirajući na danome tragu potencijale i izazove koje otvaranje prostora za studentovo osobno, emocionalno, osviješteno i potencijalno transformativno iskustvo u nastavi na obitelj fokusiranih kolegija na studiju pedagogije generira, osnovni je problem ovoga rada pitanje je li, promišljajući o odnosu potencijalnih pozitivnih i negativnih implikacija stimuliranja studentove autorefleksivnosti u nastavi kolegija fokusiranih na obitelj, nastavu iz ovoga područja na studiju pedagogije poželjno (a potom i moguće) organizirati izuzimajući studentova iskustva i emocije. Metodologija koju rabim nastojeći odgovoriti na postavljeni problem jest teorijska analiza, poduzeta dominantno iz teorijskoga okvira kritičke i feminističke pedagogije. Temeljem vlastita nastavničkoga iskustva najprije odabirem tri pedagoške dileme, čije razmatranje čini okosnicu rada, po čemu svaku dilemu analiziram oslanjajući se na preglede relevantne literature. Opisani je pristup kompatibilan s tradicijom

feminističkih istraživanja, u kojima naša iskustva i subjektivnost čine temelj spoznaje (Griffiths, 1995, prema Burns i Walker, 2005), a nastavljam se i na tradiciju prikaza vlastitih iskustava poučavanja u kontekstu visokoškolske nastave (u „obiteljskome polju“) feminističkih autorica Allen i Farnsworth (1993), Blaisure i Koivunen (2003), hooks (1994), MacDermid i sur. (1992) i drugih.

2. Primjena autorefleksivnosti u nastavi kolegija fokusiranih na obitelj na studiju pedagogije

U kontekstu nastave u „obiteljskome polju“ Allen i Farnsworth (1993, 351) reflektivnost određuju² kao „integrativni proces kritičkoga preispitivanja znanja u objavljenim tekstovima i osobnome iskustvu“, a Nagata (2004, 141) autorefleksivnost razumije kao „trajnu komunikaciju s cijelim sobom o tome što doživljavamo dok to doživljavamo. Biti autorefleksivan znači angažirati se, bivajući u trenutku, na toj metarazini osjećanja i mišljenja“. U ovim određenjima uočavam dvije komponente bitne za to kako autorefleksivnost razumijem u kontekstu ovoga rada: prvo, usmjerena je na dinamičan proces samospoznaje koji se događa tijekom nastave (kritičkim preispitivanjem i osobnoga iskustva i vlastitih doživljaja, pored znanstvenih generalizacija); drugo, naglašava emocionalnu komponentu te samospoznaje. To je u skladu s određenjem reflektivnosti koje u istraživanju provedenome s 24 profesorice i jednim profesorom koji na sveučilišnoj razini poučavaju o obitelji nude Blaisure i Koivunen (2003, 24), držeći ju procesom „kritičkoga promatranja sebe i korištenja osobnih iskustava kako bi se analiziralo dano znanstveno znanje i, obratno, koristilo potonje za analiziranje prethodnoga. Također, sudionici su očekivali da studenti razumiju vlastite živote u kontekstu i da identificiraju i promijene opresivne individualne i kolektivne prakse“. Sudionici ovoga istraživanja u nastavu su uključivali zadatke poput osobnih refleksija i autobiografskih introspekcija, koji stimuliraju samosvijest i promišljanje o odnosu osobnih teorija i općenitoga promišljanja o obitelji (Blaisure i Koivunen, 2003). Tragom ovih određenja, u ovome radu pod autorefleksivnosti podrazumijevam dinamičan, transformativnoj³ svrsi

² Raspravu o izazovima definiranja reflektivnosti u društvenim znanostima vidi u Blasco (2012).

³ *Transformativnost* ovdje rabim u značenju promjene ograničavajućih, neinkluzivnih i(li) opresivnih obrazaca vlastita mišljenja i djelovanja.

usmjeren, proces samoanalize koji se događa tijekom nastave u dijalektičko-me kontrastiranju znanstvenih generalizacija i osobnih iskustava, pri čemu i znanstvene generalizacije i osobna iskustva naizmjenično bivaju referentnim okvirom za interpretaciju drugoga pola dijade. Kao idealan oblik povezivanja nastave i osobnih iskustava Allen i Farnsworth (1993, 354) vide refleksivne dnevničke, koji omogućavaju dokumentiranje „kako se njihove vrijednosti, uvjerenja i ponašanja mijenjaju u odnosu prema zadacima kolegija“, a drugi je način poticanja refleksije davanje pisanih zadataka tijekom sata na određenu temu i raspravljanje na temelju toga (Allen i Farnsworth, 1993). Pritom držim bitnim napomenuti da je ovdje riječ isključivo o akademski relevantnim iskustvima iz obiteljskoga života studenata (Browne, 2005), a ne o terapijski orijentiranoj konfesionalnosti, prema kojoj su primjerice Browne (2005) i hooks (1994, prema Browne, 2005) vrlo kritične.

Nastavu spomenutih kolegija prožimaju i pisane i usmene autorefleksije povezane s određenim domenama obiteljskoga života studenata. Usmene se uglavnom događaju spontano, kada studenti, potaknuti nastavnim sadržajima, dijele iskustva iz vlastite obitelji, a nešto su zahtjevniji pojedinačni pisani radovi u kojima vlastita iskustva smještaju u kontekst teorije kojom se bavimo. Od studenata diplomskoga studija tako povremeno očekujem da u pisanome radu analiziraju svoju viziju kvalitetne suradnje obitelji i odgojno-obrazovne ustanove i načina na koji misle da je ona definirana iskustvima iz primarne obitelji. Pisanje toga eseja je obavezno, no njegova predaja na čitanje *nije* – na predaju rada odlučuje se tek nekolicina studenata, i to bez iznimke budu introspektivni narativi iz kojih je razvidno kako su studenti za analizu vlastitih iskustava stavili posebne teorijske leće, koje su ih dovele do novih uvida. U tome zadatku studenti nisu dužni predati svoje autorefleksije⁴: iako u nastavi u svrhu objašnjenja sadržaja ponekad iznosim elemente vlastite biografije, to su rijetki trenuci, a iskustva su tada sažeto prezentirana, što je znatno manje zahtjevno od introspekcije koja se od studenata očekuje u njihovim pisanim radovima – a inzistirati na stupnju otvorenosti u autorefleksiji većemu no što sama demonstriram, osobito kada je to inzistiranje smješteno u kontekst obveze koja se vrednuje, u hijerarhijski postavljenome odnosu, danas držim diskutabilnim: kako hooks

⁴ O intruzivnosti traženja od studenata da svoje osobne informacije dijele tijekom nastavnoga procesa vidi u Browne (2005).

(1994, 21) ističe, „[k]ada je obrazovanje praksa slobode, studenti nisu jedini koje se traži da dijele, da priznaju. (...) To se osnaživanje ne može dogoditi ako odbijamo biti ranjivi dok studente potičemo da riskiraju. Profesori koji od studenata očekuju da dijele konfesionalne narative, ali koji sami nisu voljni dijeliti, demonstriraju moć na način koji bi mogao biti prisilan“. Naravno, autorica promišlja u smjeru optimalnosti uzajamnoga *dijeljenja*, a ne *nedijeljenja* osobnih (no kako je ranije napisano, uvijek akademski relevantnih) iskustava.

Navedeno pitanje nejednakosti moći u pedagoškome odnosu posredno dovodi i do prve pedagoške dileme koju u nastavku rada želim razmotriti, a to je pitanje izvorišta nastavnikova legitimiteta za stimuliranje autorefleksivnosti studenata o vlastitu obiteljskome životu.

2.1 Izvorište nastavnikova legitimiteta za stimuliranje autorefleksivnosti u visokome obrazovanju

Autorefleksiju ne treba promatrati kao praksu čije se implikacije iscrpljuju u misaonoj domeni. Blaisure i Koivunen (2003) ističu da nastavni sadržaji kod nekih studenata mogu evocirati neugodna iskustva – što ako tako vođena nastava na neki način intervenira u sadašnje obiteljske odnose studenata?⁵ Što ako u tome procesu nenamjerno saznamo neke povjerljive informacije o obiteljima studenata? Kako će to djelovati na pedagoški odnos nastavnika i studenta? Nadmašuje li potencijalna korist potencijalne rizike? Blaisure i Koivunen (2003) predstavljaju dobrobiti autorefleksije, tvrdeći da dnevnički zapisi studentima mogu pomoći da prerade svoja iskustva, a nastavnicima služiti kao povratna informacija o tome što sve utječe na studentsku preradu nastavnih sadržaja, dok niz drugih autora na koje se u radu referiram ističu, *logički ili temeljem vlastita nastavnoga iskustva*, učinkovitost te prakse (npr. Allen i Farnsworth, 1993; Humble i Morgaine, 2002; Nagata, 2004); u kvalitativnome istraživanju, provedenome s devet sveučilišnih profesorica i jednim profesorom, sudionici su navodili da uključivanje osobne komponente studentskih života u nastavu studente čini zainteresiranijima za nastavne sadržaje i olakšava komunikaciju o određenim teorijskim konceptima (Browne, 2005).

⁵ hooks (1994) opisuje nelagodu koju je osjetila shvativši da su neki studenti promijenili percepciju vlastitih roditelja uslijed boljšega razumijevanja određenih opresivnih praksi.

Ipak, manjka sustavnih istraživanja o ulozi autorefleksivnosti u mijenjanju stavova, uvjerenja i ponašanja budućih stručnjaka, a postoje i vrijedni tekstovi koji propituju opravdanost automatskoga percipiranja reflektivnosti u obrazovanju kao sredstva i cilja samoga obrazovanja (Blasco, 2012). Blasco (2012, 480) tako smatra da nekritičko korištenje autorefleksivnosti u interkulturnome obrazovanju riskira postati placebo koji uzima za *činjenicu* da bismo sami mogli pristupiti svome sebstvu, objektivno ga promatrati i mijenjati pa zaključuje kako bismo „barem trebali biti oprezni u pretpostavci da su stavovi, poput predrasuda koje igraju ključnu ulogu u interkulturnome učenju, nužno dostupni putem reflektivnosti“. Također upozorava da „reflektivnost nije automatski transformativna“ (Adams, 2003, 522, prema Blasco, 2012, 483), kao i da može poprimiti nebenigne forme u kojima nas fokusiranost na sebe udaljava od drugih (Bleakley, 1999, prema Blasco, 2012).

Iako ta upozorenja, a osobito dilemu koliko sami možemo pristupiti svojoj nutrini, valja imati na umu i težiti njihovoj kontinuiranoj empirijskoj provjeri kako bismo bolje razumjeli što nastavom možemo, a što ne možemo postići, dvojim valja li argumentaciju za stimuliranje autorefleksivnosti tražiti *primarno* u empirijskoj domeni i njezinoj performativnoj dimenziji ili pak promišljanje o *pravu* nastavnika na stimuliranje autorefleksije studenata o vlastitu životu i uključivanje osobne dimenzije u nastavu proizlazi iz samoga *shvaćanja obrazovanja*: „Ideja obrazovanja u bitnom smislu sadrži moment refleksije znanja u subjekt koji spoznaje. [...] Bez ove refleksije znanja u subjekt i postajanja subjekta tim znanjem nema niti obrazovanja. Pri obrazovanju stoga nije riječ o pukom ‘znati nešto’, pa jednako tako niti o ‘umjeti nešto’, već o duhu koji *postaje* on sam, dolazeći kroz vrijeme preko samospoznaje do svoje pune ideje“. (Komar, 2011, 46, isticanje u izvorniku). Mi putem refleksije znanja (i iskustava) prilazimo sve bliže razumijevanju sebe i drugih, pri čemu je ključan upravo *napor samodjelatnosti* koju individua poduzima (obrazujući *se*). Bez obzira na ograničene empirijske potvrde učinkovitosti autorefleksivnosti i dokaze o tome koliko je naše stavove, uvjerenja i ponašanja (ne)moгуće mijenjati autorefleksijom, zapravo ne mogu pojmiti obrazovanje u kojemu se pojedinac temeljem poticaja dobivenih iz svijeta oko sebe ne bi iterativno vraćao upravo na sebe samoga.

Takva pozicija međutim dovodi do uvida kako će određeni samospoznajni momenti, nastali u kontekstu koji je oblikovao upravo nastavnik, za studente biti potencijalno nelagodni. Gorski (2009) u nastavi obilato rabi Festingerov (1957, prema Gorski, 2009) koncept *kognitivne disonance*⁶: „kada se nova informacija sukobljava sa starim predrasudama – kada se nove istine bore s ukorijenjenim uvjerenjima za prostor u našoj svijesti – imamo tendenciju odgovoriti svim mehanizmima obrane“ (Gorski, 2009, 54). U nastavi koju realiziram nastojim facilitirati uočavanje različitih kognitivnih disonanci pa tako, nakon što studente pitam jesu li majke i očevi biološki predodređeni za različit tip roditeljavanja, prezentiram rezultate kroskulturnih istraživanja koja propituju esencijalističke teze o roditeljavanju (Silverstein i Auerbach, 1999, Shehan i Kaestle, 2009) ili studente, nakon što iznesu promišljanja o tome ima li se pedagog pravo miješati u odgoj roditelja koji primjenjuje blagu tjelesnu kaznu, upoznam sa *Zakonom o zaštiti od nasilja u obitelji* (2019), koji ističe da je tjelesno kažnjavanje oblik nasilja u obitelji (čl. 10), koji su djelatnici odgojno-obrazovnih ustanova zakonski dužni prijaviti nadležnim tijelima (čl. 7). Te su kratke dijaloške razmjene primjerene za uočavanje nesklada između vlastitih stavova/uvjerenja i suvremenih znanstvenih spoznaja i legislativnih okvira, dok za uočavanje kompleksnijih disonanci između različitih skupova vlastitih uvjerenja odvajam više vremena i oblikujem posebne aktivnosti (v. i u Bartulović i Kušević, 2016). Primjerice, u jednoj aktivnosti studente diplomskoga studija molim da u kratkome eseju objasne zašto suradnja s obiteljima nastavnica predstavlja najstresniji dio posla, a njihove eseje potom smještam u tri kategorije: prvu, koja razloge stresa vidi isključivo u nastavnica (manjku kompetencije, manjku motivacije za suradnju i sl.), drugu, koja ih vidi isključivo u roditeljima (koji su nezainteresirani ili prezahtjevni, ne poštuju nastavnika autoritet i sl.) i treću, koja (uz elemente prvih dviju) prepoznaje i strukturalne razloge (manjak vremena za suradnju i preopterećenost nastavnika, smanjen

⁶ Dok se Gorski (2009) usmjerava na nesklad između dvaju setova informacija, kognitivna disonanca može se javiti kao posljedica nesklada između naših različitih uvjerenja; naših uvjerenja i ponašanja/reagirana ili naših znanja i ponašanja (Festinger, 1957). Generalno gledano dakle, disonanca/konsonanca se u najširem smislu odnosi na odnose između parova elemenata, odnosno kognicija/znanja, pri čemu sam autor naglašava da se riječ *znanje* pritom odnosi i na ono što inače ne uključuje – npr. mišljenja, vrijednosti, uvjerenja i stavove; Festinger, 1957).

društveni ugled nastavnika i sl.). Tijekom nekoliko godina iskušavanja aktivnosti pokazalo se da većina studenata ispiše čitav esej pronalazeći uzročnike stresa suradnje *isključivo* u roditeljima, ne prepoznajući pritom odgovornost samih nastavnika ni važnost širih društvenih faktora za kvalitetu suradnje, iako su s kompleksnošću različitih pedagoških procesa na teorijskoj razini do te faze studija već dobro upoznati i spremno ističu svoja uvjerenja o važnosti pozitivnoga percipiranja roditelja u suradnji s njima. Analiza koja slijedi uglavnom otkriva da studenti svoje negativne percepcije roditelja i manjak kritičnosti prema odgovornosti profesionalaca dotad nisu osvijestili. Takve su aktivnosti potencijalno emocionalno zahtjevne jer studentima šalju povratnu informaciju o tome kako njihovo percipiranje zbilje može biti nekonstruktivno za odnose s obiteljima s kojima će surađivati, što dovodi do sljedeće dileme koju želim adresirati, one o odgovornome pristupanju emocionalnoj nelagodnosti studenata koju autorefleksija može generirati.

2.2. *Pristupanje studentovoj emocionalnoj nelagodnosti generiranoj tijekom nastavnoga procesa*

I dok bi se u kontekstu propulzivnoga trenda *hepinizacije obrazovanja* (Zembylas, 2020) moglo diskutirati ima li emocionalno zahtjevnome procesu koji može aktivirati nelagodu studenata u nastavi uopće mjesta, Gorski (2009, 54) ranije spomenute kognitivne disonance, koje aktiviraju naše obrambene mehanizme i generiraju nelagodu, naziva „obrazovnim momentima istine“, čije oblikovanje drži direktnom nastavnikovom odgovornošću. Postavljam međutim pitanje: *Ulazi li u tu odgovornost nastavnika i skrb o emocionalnoj dobrobiti studenata tijekom nastave?* Smatrajući neizbježnim da u kolegijima koji se bave socijalnim problemima studenti prepoznaju osobne poveznice s nastavnom materijom, što ponekad može biti okidač za osobnu krizu studenta, Durfee i Rosenberg (prema Crawley i sur., 2008, 6) drže važnim „bivanje prijemčivim i odgovornim prema studentima koji doživljavaju krizu kao rezultat izloženosti nastavnim sadržajima o emocionalno zahtjevnim temama“. Primjerice, kao oblik odgovornoga pristupanja temi nasilja nad ženama Newman (1999) predlaže da se studente unaprijed upozori na sadržaje koji će adresirati nasilje kako bi se za njih mogli adekvatno pripremiti, što Barlow i Becker-Blease (2012)

povezuju s praksom informiranoga pristanka⁷. No kako nastavnici mogu tek pretpostaviti, ali ne i točno predvidjeti koja bi tema za pojedinoga studenta mogla biti okidačem nelagode, dobrom praksom držim kontinuirane najave tema sljedećih predavanja i nečinjenje nenajavljenih izmjena u silabu, što studentima omogućava da unaprijed donesu odluku o (ne)prisustvovanju određenoj nastavnoj jedinici. Također, korisnom se čini ideja koju donosi Newman (1999), koja predlaže da se studentima s vremena na vrijeme podijele prazne kartice na kojima nastavniku mogu anonimno postaviti bilo kakvo pitanje ili iznijeti problem koji imaju, što može uključivati i skretanje pažnje na to da je tijekom nastave učinio ili rekao nešto problematično, pri čemu se nastavnik obvezuje reagirati na napisano (Newman, 1999).

Navedeno međutim vjerojatno neće biti dostatno za sve studente – prema mojemu iskustvu, nastava koja počiva na principima reduciranja hijerarhije između nastavnika i studenata te uvažavanja emocionalne i osobne dimenzije čovjekova bića, nerijetko dovodi do situacija u kojima studenti nastavniku, prepoznajući u njemu sugovornika za teme koje ih okupiraju, povjeravaju u individualnim susretima detalje iz svojega života, od kojih neki predstavljaju preradu neugodnih prošlih iskustava. Takve situacije otvaraju niz dilema o tome kako istovremeno ne iskoračiti iz svoje nastavničke uloge u (terapeutsku) ulogu za koju nismo formalno obrazovani i ne zanemariti činjenicu da student povjerava nešto što je za njegov život bitno, a kontekst za to *jest* stvoren upravo pedagoškim odabirima nastavnika. U istraživanju Hayes-Smith, Richards i Branch (2010) sveučilišne nastavnice koje se bave poučavanjem o seksualnome zlostavljanju ističu problem manjka formalnoga obrazovanja i iskustva za savjetovanje studenata u takvim delikatnim situacijama, ali i problematiziraju posljedice toga povjeravanja za daljnje poučavanje i vrednovanje studenata. Iako autorice nemaju dilema oko toga da profesori *trebaju* – u okvirima svoje uloge i kompetencija! – podržavati studente koji im otkrivaju bolne elemente osobne biografije, ističu važnost otvorene rasprave na razini ustanove o toj temi

⁷ I Durfee i Rosenberg (2009) smatraju da profesori studentima trebaju dati mogućnost preskakanja određenih emocionalno zahtjevnih (dijelova) predavanja. Slične, opsežne upute o tome kako na nastavi diplomske razine primjereno poučavati o zlostavljanju djece, imajući na umu da su statistički gledano neki polaznici tijekom djetinjstva bili zlostavljani, daje Dayle Jones (2002).

i nužnost jačanja kompetencija za primjereno reagiranje u takvim situacijama (Hayes-Smith, Richards i Branch, 2010).

2.3. *Povjerljivost osobnih podataka studenata tijekom nastavnoga procesa*

Posljednji su izazov stimuliranja autorefleksivnosti u nastavi koji ću u ovome radu analizirati rizici narušavanja povjerljivosti osobnih podataka studenata dijeljenih tijekom nastave s profesorima ili kolegama, koji se mogu javiti u kontekstu grupnih interakcija koje se odvijaju na nastavi ili u kontekstu individualnih interakcija između nastavnika i studenta.

Tijekom nastave poneki su studenti skloni dijeliti određene osobne detalje o svojem životu. I dok bi nas razumijevanje da je u toj situaciji svatko sam odgovoran za to što o sebi iznosi moglo nagnati na zaključak da tu nema nastavnikove odgovornosti, nisam to pitanje sklona promatrati kao pitanje rizika individualnoga studenta jer držim da je nastavnik taj koji je primarno odgovoran za to da učionicu učini sigurnim okruženjem i zajedno sa studentima oblikuje smjernice i za studente koji su iznositelji i za studente koji su primatelji određenih osobnih informacija. Barlow i Becker-Blease (2012, 240) ističu: "Pomažu eksplicitno iznošenje smjernica za otkrivanje osobnih informacija u silabusu i modeliranje primjerene komunikacije na nastavi. Nastavnici bi trebali pojasniti očekivanja oko povjerljivosti. Na primjer, nastavnik može naglasiti da se od polaznika nastave očekuje da osobne informacije [o drugima] drže privatnima; s druge strane, studente valja upozoriti da u akademskome učioničkom okruženju ne dijele one osobne informacije za koje žele da ostanu tajne." Drugim riječima, iako ne možemo automatski računati na to da sve izrečeno na nastavi ostaje unutar zidova učionice ili nastavnoga virtualnog okruženja, povjerljivo odnošenje prema osobnim podacima drugih *jest* kvaliteta koju nastavnik treba razvijati (kod budućih pedagoga). U svojim sam nastavnim počecima tome pristupala uglavnom "reaktivno", naglašavajući važnost povjerljivosti tek kada je izrečeno nešto što sam procjenjivala izazovnim za kolektiv, odnosno što je narušavalo anonimnost neke treće strane, što iz sadašnje perspektive smatram suboptimalnim pristupom jer studente koji te informacije dijele u tome trenutku stavlja pod povećalo; danas držim, u skladu sa sugestijom Konradi (1993, prema Durfee i Rosenberg, 2009), da je osnovna pravila za raspravljanje potrebno

sa studentima zajednički dogovoriti na samome početku nastave⁸, otvaranjem ovdje detektiranih točaka tijekom jednoga od uvodnih nastavnih termina.

Što se individualnih interakcija između nastavnika i studenta tiče, nastavnik studentima može biti model primjerenoga postupanja s povjerljivim podacima u koje dobije uvid tijekom nastave, pri čemu je bitno nedijeljenje tih podataka s drugim studentima i kolegama (Allen i Farnsworth, 1993, naglašavaju važnost toga da studenti znaju da će primjerice refleksivne dnevničke čitati samo dotični nastavnik), što se može pokazati izazovnim u situacijama u kojima nastavnik radi donošenja nekih kompleksnijih pedagoških odluka treba podršku svojih kolega kao kritičkih prijatelja. Osim toga, potrebno je voditi računa o tome gdje, kako i koliko dugo pisane nastavne materijale kojima je autorefleksija stimulirana, ako smo ih prikupili, arhiviramo, informirajući pritom o tim praksama i eventualnim popisima naše institucije pravovremeno i same studente.

3. Umjesto zaključka: može li poučavanje o obitelji biti neosobno?

U radu analizirane izazovne pedagoške situacije mogle bi se izbjeći tako da poučavanje o obitelji učinimo „neosobnim“, odnosno da se fokusiramo na posredovanje znanstveno potvrđenih činjenica, ne potičući studente na njihovu preradu i povezivanje sa svojim iskustvima, emocijama, stavovima i razumijevanjima zbilje – ili barem ne ostavljajući vremena ni mogućnosti da tu preradu i povezivanje studenti učine dijelom nastave. Ne potičući autorefleksiju, minimizirali bi se i rizici emocionalne nelagode studenta ili otkrivanja osobnih podataka u nastavi – ili bi se barem nastavnik oslobodio odgovornosti za njih. Osobno međutim držim, temeljem napisanoga, da kvalitetno poučavanje o obitelji ne može biti lišeno izazova propitivanja vlastite biografije, svojih emocija i akcija te njihova povezivanja s nastavnim sadržajima. Na tragu sam pritom koji nude Humble i Morgaine (2002), nastavljajući se na Habermasove (1971,

⁸ Iako ne ulaze direktno u domenu *osobnih* biografskih podataka, primijetila sam da studenti ponekad iznose primjere koji ulaze u intimu trećih osoba. U tim situacijama potičem ih da promisle jesu li svi detalji koje iznose nužni za argumentaciju koju pomoću primjera žele iznijeti i, ako jesu, imaju li oni pravo iznositi detalje tuđih životnih priča. Slično se ponekad javlja i u praksi, gdje stručnjaci anonimnost podataka o nekoj obitelji štite nenavođenjem imena/prezimenaa članova obitelji o kojima govore, iznoseći međutim pritom niz podataka o njima na temelju kojih ih je moguće identificirati.

prema Humble i Morgaine, 2002) tri paradigme znanja i opisujući metode koje se unutar svake od triju paradigmi mogu rabiti u nastavi orijentiranoj na obitelj. Dok *instrumentalno-tehnička paradigma* podrazumijeva da „zakoni koji vode ljudsko ponašanje mogu biti otkriveni empirijskim istraživanjem“ (Braybrooke, 1987, Carr i Kemmis, 1986, oba prema Humble i Morgaine, 2002, 200) pa se kao nastavne metode koriste dominantno predstavljanja teorijskih modela i statističkih podataka, „interpretativna paradigma drži da individue imaju različite zbilje te prilike za refleksiju vlastitih životnih iskustava individua vidi esencijalnim za facilitiranje promjene (Morgaine, 1992)“ (Humble i Morgaine, 2002, 201). *Kritičko-emancipacijska paradigma* dodatno naglašava društvenu uvjetovanost percepcija sebe i drugih i njihove distorzije u uvjetima opresije, kao i mogućnosti da „se ljudi emancipiraju od svojih opresivnih, limitirajućih situacija stjecanjem uvida u to kako oni tlače druge“ (Bredo i Feinberg, 1982, Brown, 1980, Carr i Kemmis, 1986, Fay, 1977; sve sumirano u Humble i Morgaine, 2002, 202). Autorice upozoravaju kako su u poučavanju o obitelji sve teme na neki način prožete pitanjima vrijednosti i osobnih iskustava, zbog čega ostajanje na razini prve paradigme može ne ostvariti obrazovne intencije (Humble i Morgaine, 2002). Stoga, prihvaćajući nužnost interpretativnosti, transformativnosti i angažiranosti nastavnoga procesa, umjesto da se, zazirući od „rizika privatnosti“ i „rizika utjecanja“ u nastavi, usmjerimo na eliminiranje osobnih iskustava iz nastave, konstruktivnijim držim fokusirati se na pripremljenost nastavnika i studenata za *odgovorno nošenje* s opisanim izazovima, smjerove kojega sam u radu tek ocrtala. Pritom ključnim držim nastavnikovo prepoznavanje vlastite odgovornosti za nastavni kontekst koji oblikuje i kontinuirano promišljanje o učincima vlastitih pedagoških odabira na druge subjekte, ali i na nastavnika samoga, što zapravo iziskuje i kontinuiranu *nastavnikovu autorefleksiju* i dijalektičko interpretiranje osobnih iskustava teorijskim konceptima koji olakšavaju razumijevanje kompleksnosti dijaloške, transformativne visokoškolske nastave (i obrnuto).

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EDUCATORS' STANCE ON COOPERATION BETWEEN PARENTS AND THE KINDERGARTEN

Summary

Cooperation between parents and the kindergarten is an important precondition for the optimum development of children and their kindergarten education. educators play an important role in initiating that partnership.

The goal of this research is to find out what are the stances of educators in Radost Crikvenica on cooperation between parents and the kindergarten.

The results of the research show that educators in Radost have a positive attitude and expectations towards the cooperation and partnership between parents and the kindergarten. Their stances differ depending on the level of education of the educator and their work place (central or local kindergarten).

Key words: kindergarten, educators, parents, cooperation

STAVOVI ODGAJATELJA O SURADNJI RODITELJA I VRTIĆA

Sažetak

Suradnja obitelji i dječjeg vrtića vrlo je važan preduvjet optimalnog razvoja i odgoja djeteta u vrtiću. Upravo odgojitelji imaju važnu ulogu u poticanju razvijanja partnerstva.

Cilj je ovog istraživanja ispitati stavove odgajatelja Dječjeg vrtića *Radost* iz Crikvenice o suradnji dječjeg vrtića i roditelja.

Rezultati provedenog istraživanja upućuju na zaključak da odgajatelji Dječjeg vrtića *Radost* imaju pozitivan stav i očekivanja prema suradnji i partnerstvu roditelja s predškolskom ustanovom. Stavovi odgajatelja o suradnji roditelja i dječjeg vrtića razlikuju se ovisno o razini obrazovanja odgajatelja i mjestu rada (centralni ili područni vrtić).

Ključne riječi: dječji vrtić; odgajatelji; roditelji; suradnja

Introduction

Constructive cooperation between parents and the kindergarten is an important precondition for the optimum development of children and their kindergarten education, but also one of the quality standards of preschool institutions. The cooperation between the family and preschool institutions occupies a significant place in the Croatian National Curriculum for Kindergartens (2014). “Parents, guardians of the child should be accepted and respected as equal members of kindergarten- partners who enrich the institution with their individual particularities and their culture, which also contributes to the quality of the preschool institution as a whole.” (National Curriculum for Early and Preschool Education, 2014, 10). According to Slunjski, this contribution serves the higher goal of the cooperation - appropriate responses to the individual and developmental needs of the child and providing support for his or her overall development” (Slunjski et al., 2014, 14).

A number of authors (Jurčević Lozančić and Golik Homolak, 2020; Valjan-Vukić, Čeko Jurišić, Miočić, 2011; Visković and Višnjić Jevtić, 2016; Nenadić-Bilan and Zloković, 2015; Vlah and Tatalović-Vorkapić, 2011; Amatea, Mixon and McCarthy, 2013; Berčnik i Devjak, 2017; Maleš, 1996, 2015; Maleš, Kušević, Širanović, 2014; Epstein et al., 2001; Epstein and Sanders, 2006) point out the significance of achieving collaborative relations between the family and the preschool institution as an encouragement of child’s development and well-being in general. The cooperation between parents and the educator is an important factor of the child’s development because it enables the child to feel accepted, secure, satisfied and happy in an environment that stimulates the development of all of its skills (Jurčević Lozančić and Golik Homolak, 2020). A good cooperation with the kindergarten can also improve the quality of family impact and, in the long term, relate to better academic achievements and developed socio-emotional competence of children (Epstein, 1995, 2001; Henderson and Berla, 1994, according to Berčnik and Devjak, 2017; Cox, 2005; Desforges and Abouchaar, 2003; Fan and Chen, 2001; Mrvar, 2008; Lau, Hui and Rao, 2011; Henrich, 2013; Castro and et al., 2015; Sheridan, Smith and Kim, 2019; Maleš, 2015; Ljubetić, 2014; Mlinarević, Tomas, 2010). The cooperative relationship should result in mutual trust and respect, which contributes to all

participants in the relationship (Višnjić Jevtić, 2018). According to Valjan-Vukić, Čeko Jurišić and Miočić (2011), cooperation is a precondition for better parental and professional competence. It depends on the personality of each child, the educator's expertise and parental expectations. The positive effects of this partnership are "reflected in parental behaviour and their feeling of self-competence, the child's achievements, the educator's competence and his/her perception of the child and his family" (Nenadić-Bilan and Matov, 2015, 129).

In contemporary pedagogical literature, the term partnership often appears instead of cooperation because it points out the importance of equal communication, agreement and respect between parents and professionals in the process of education. According to Ljubetić (2014) and Maleš (2015), partnership is the highest rank of collaboration relations between family individuals (mostly parents or guardians) and the kindergarten (educators and non-teaching expert staff) focused on reaching the same goal (well-being of the child). Wit (2005, according to Mohorić and Nenadić-Bilan, 2019) defines partnership as meaningful cooperation between parents and institution in which both parties advise each other and give support to others. Jurčević Lozančić, Basta and Šerbetar (2017) consider partnership with parents to be a multidimensional process of joint interaction between the family and educators based on participation, interaction and equal relations. Partnership includes sharing responsibilities, showing affection, setting common goals, and working together (Devjak and Berčnik, 2009). Partnership refers to the relationship between educator and parent in which both sides share responsibility, knowledge and skills as well as decisions regarding the child (Ljubetić, 2014). It should include mutual respect and acceptance, sharing information, feelings and skills together with joint decisions and appreciation of the individuality of the family. Partnership is based on even distribution of power and emancipation, along with strengthening individual competence, learning and changing parenting.

A prerequisite for successfully established partnerships is the mutual readiness of parents and educators for quality communication and exchange, "which is manifested in open, supportive and equal communication in which each of the interlocutors, inherently to their knowledge and responsibilities, contributes

to quality partnership” Mohorić and Nenadić-Bilan (2019, 253). Ivaštanin and Vrbanec (2015) point out that there are some preconditions that must be satisfied to create and nourish partnership with the parents. One of the preconditions is certainly building trust, but also the acceptance of the value of everyone involved, with the same goal (well-being of the child). Besides, constructive partnership should be based on knowing and understanding the expectations from their individual roles. The authors believe that clear expectations and joint goals together with educators stances towards parental competences and the importance of their inclusion are the preconditions of partnership.

The merit of partnership is the equality of all parties. Nevertheless, the equality in relations doesn't include equality in educational factors (Ljubetić, 2014). Mohorić and Nenadić-Bilan (2019) agreed that although partnership implies equality of subjects, it does not mean equal starting positions, knowledge, interests, skills, expectations, nor equal responsibility. According to Višnjić-Jevtić (2018), educators are responsible for establishing this relationship because it is part of their professional activities. Oostam and Hooge (2013) agreed that the primary responsibility of an educational institution is in taking responsibility, in motivating parents, as well as in establishing rules related to partnership. They also emphasize the difference in the emotional involvement of co-workers. While parents are more emotionally involved than educators, educators exhibit a higher degree of professionalism. Likewise, they agreed that “equal status in a partnership should not obscure the fact that parents and schools have different expectations regarding their responsibilities, and their opinions on the optimal conditions for a child's development and learning may differ significantly.” (Oostdam and Hooge, 2013, 343).

Educators play an important role in encouraging parents to involve and develop partnership along with giving them support in upbringing. “When trying to accomplish partnership, it is important that the educator has an individual approach with proper recognition of parental and children's needs for joint actions and tries to find creative ways of satisfying them. We must emphasize that this is a continuous process, which requires severe engagement and good will from both parents and educators” (Kanjić, Boneta, 2012, 10).

Stevanović (2003; according to Antonović, 2019) points out that there are different forms of cooperation between the kindergarten and parents: parent-teacher meeting, parent-teacher conference, informing by means of fliers, parent's corner, parental workshops, parental inclusion in direct work etc. The most representative forms are parent-teacher conference and individual informing. Speaking of models of cooperation, Ljubetić (2001) separates them by the level of engagement and interrelationship. According to this author, these are the possible modalities: everyday exchange of information, parent-teacher conference, educational and creative workshops for parents, individual conversations with parents, direct parental participation in education, open days, get-togethers and field trips plus a visit to child's family. The results of the study made by Mavračić Miković (2019) show that individual conversations are the most adequate modality of cooperation between educators and parents. They also show that standard forms of communication are mostly used (info corners, parent-teacher conference, etc.), whereas parents wish for a more modern approach (communication by social networks, groups, etc.) The results of another study (Merčep, 2016) indicate that both parents and educators point out parent-teacher conferences as the most common form of cooperation, followed by parent-teacher meetings and finally ceremonies, raising funds and materials, internet, e-mail, workshops and lectures. According to research conducted by the authors Skočić Mihić and Srića (2016), parents participate in traditional forms of cooperation (parent-teacher meeting and parent-teacher conference) twice a year.

The partnership between educators and parents is conditioned by knowledge, skills and beliefs of the educator, which he/she acquires during professional education and continuous professional development (Maleš, Kušević, Širanović, 2014). Visković and Višnjić Jevtić (2017) also believe that the cooperation between kindergartens and families depends primarily on the stances and competences of educators. Visković and Višnjić Jevtić (2017) point out that studies prove that professional education itself is not sufficient for development of professional competences of educators. Thus, they emphasize the importance of development of these competences in practice, by means of informal and formal education. Numerous other authors (Epstein and Sanders, 2006; Hornby and Witte 2010; Miller et al., 2013; Amatea, Mixon and McCarthy,

2013; Bingham and Abernathy, 2007, according to Sheridan, Smith and Kim, 2019) observed that educators are not always adequately prepared to counsel and work with parents, and are considered unprepared for effective communication with the family. Similarly, Srića and Skočić Mihić (2016) indicate that, even though parents see educators as professionals and frequently ask for their help, Croatian educators consider themselves insufficiently competent to cooperate with and counsel parents (Ljubetić, M. and Mandarić Vukušić, A., 2011; Maleš, Stričević and Ljubetić, 2010; Ljubetić and Zadro, 2009). The results of the research conducted by Živčić-Bečirević and Smojver-Ažić (2005) show that “partnership with parents” is the second highest cause of stress for educators, regardless of the number of years of working experience.

Educators should develop and refine their competences through different areas of work during their initial education so they can prepare as best as they can for practical needs, especially for partnership with parents (Ljubetić, 2014). Jurčević Lozančić and Golik Homolak (2020) consider that educators’ competences for cooperation encompass establishing and maintaining satisfying professional and cooperative relations with the parents for the purpose of increasing the child’s educational well-being. Ivaštanin and Vrbanec (2015) point out that strengthening a educator’s professional competences provides a higher quality of support to the child’s development, as well as advancement of parental competences and the curriculum in general. In Šagud’s (2011) opinion, a higher level of intrinsic motivation of the educator is a necessity for professional development. They should focus on continuous learning and progression so that they may improve their educational practice. Jurčević Lozančić, Basta and Šerbetar (2019) conclude that a positive attitude in educators is the imperative for their professional work in establishing cooperation with parents.

The goal of this research is to find out about the stances of educators in Radost Crikvenica on cooperation between parents and kindergarten.

Method

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to research:

- a) the stances of educators in Radost Crikvenica on cooperation between parents and the kindergarten,
- b) the differences in the stances of educators in Radost Crikvenica on cooperation based on the educator's age, work experience, qualifications and workplace.

Research method

For the purpose of this research, we chose the correlation approach and analysed the data obtained through closed-ended questions with multiple choice answer options using quantitative methods.

Sample

25 educators from Kindergarten Radost participated in the study. 48% (12) of educators work in the central kindergarten and 11 of them (44%) work in one of the branches.

All participants were female. Age ranged from 23 to 58 years ($M=37.71$, $SD=10.82$). 8 educators (32%) are in their twenties, 7 (28%) are in their thirties, 4 (16%) are in their forties and 5 (20%) are in their fifties. 10 educators (40%) are younger than 35 and 14 educators (56%) are older than 35 years of age.

Educators' working experience varied from a couple of months to 34 years ($M= 13.78$, $SD=10.87$). 9 educators (36%) have 5 or less years of work experience, 7 (28%) have 6-19 years of work experience and 7 educators (28%) have 20 or more years of work experience. 7 of 25 educators (28%) have a master's degree.

Instrumentation

Participants were asked to assess their agreement with items in the questionnaire measuring educators' attitudes about parents' cooperation and partnership with the kindergarten using a scale from 1 to 7 (1 meaning I do not agree at all, and 7 meaning I agree completely). The questionnaire was made specifically for the purpose of this research and consists of 23 items. Information about their work place (central kindergarten or one of the branches), sex, age, work experience and qualifications were recorded. The data was collected in one session.

Data analysis

Statistical analysis was performed using IBM® SPSS® Statistics V20. The data was analysed by means of descriptive and inferential statistics. Frequencies, arithmetic mean and standard deviation were calculated for each item. The independent sample t-test was used in order to determine statistical differences in agreement with items on the questionnaire in correlation with age, qualifications and workplace, and a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to determine the differences in terms of work experience. The data is shown in a tabular form.

Results

Table 1. shows the percentage of agreement with items in the questionnaire.

Table 1. Percentage of agreement with items

Item	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	M	SD
1. Informal parents', children's and educators' get-togethers contribute to the development of cooperative relationships.	/	/	/	4	4	4	88	6.72	.89
2. Creative workshops contribute to the development of a cooperative relationship between the family and the kindergarten.	/	/	4	/	4	36	56	6.40	.91
3. Educators should include parents (guardians) in making decisions about their child's development, learning and social life in their educational group (excursions, visitations, educational plan, activities etc.).	/	/	/	8	16	36	40	6.08	.95
4. Parents should volunteer (actively participate in activities) in their child's educational group at least once a year.	/	/	/	/	12.5	25	62.5	5.60	.72
5. It is important to enable participation in the educational group's programme for the parents who want to participate.	/	/	/	/	8.3	16.7	75	6.67	.64
6. Parental participation in parent-educator conferences is necessary for the establishment of quality cooperation between the family and the kindergarten.	/	/	/	4	/	16	80	6.72	.68
Item	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	M	SD

7.	Parental interest in cooperation and participation in the educational group's programme is an important factor in establishing a parent-kindergarten partnership.	/	/	/	/	/	24	76	6.76	.44
8.	Educators' professionalism is very important for their work with children and their parents.	/	/	/	/	/	24	76	6.76	.44
9.	Parents should participate in additional children's activities (such as visitations, excursions, get-togethers, events).	/	/	/	4	4	24	68	6.56	.77
10.	It is important to keep the parents informed about activities their child gladly participates in.	/	/	/	/	/	8	92	6.92	.28
11.	Parents should show the initiative for participation in the programme of their child's educational group.	/	4	/	28	16	24	28	5.40	1.38
12.	Educators should inform parents about their child's developmental progress.	/	/	/	/	/	24	76	6.76	.44
13.	Open and honest communication between parents and educators is the key for quality cooperation.	/	/	/	/	/	16	84	6.84	.37
14.	The quality of cooperation with parents depends entirely on the educators.	8.7	17.4	17.4	8.7	17.4	17.4	13	4.13	1.96
15.	Parents and educators are equally responsible for the quality of the cooperation between parents and the kindergarten.	4	4	/	8	12	16	56	5.92	1.66

Item	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	M	SD
16. Educators' openness and accessibility is a prerequisite for the realisation of quality cooperation with parents.	/	/	/	4	4	32	60	6.48	.77
17. Parental involvement in the educational group's programme is not necessary.	36	12	8	12	20	4	8	312	2.07
18. Parents volunteering in their child's educational group contributes to their better understanding of the educational process and the educational group's programme.	/	/	4	/	4	28	64	6.48	.92
19. Educators' professionalism is of utmost importance for establishing quality cooperation with parents.	/	/	/	4	/	20	76	6.68	.69
20. Parent-educator meetings contribute to the development of parents' trust in their child's educators.	/	4	/	/	4	8	84	6.64	1.07
21. One of a kindergarten's quality indicators is the possibility of parents' participation and engagement in the educational process.	/	/	4	4	8	32	52	6.24	1.05
22. Parent-educator meetings are necessary for the establishment of closer relationships between parents and educators.	/	4	/	/	8	16	72	6.48	1.22
23. The quality of cooperation between parents and kindergarten depends entirely on the parents.	36	24	12	8	4	8	8	2.76	2.00

As is shown in Table 1., all educators agree that parents should actively participate and volunteer in their children's educational group at least once a year,

and that it is important to enable participation for the parents who show their interest. Also, all educators agree that parental interest in cooperation and participation is important factor in establishing partnership. All educators agree that their professionalism is very important for their work with children and parents. All educators acknowledge the importance of informing parents about activities their child enjoys and believe they should inform parents about their child's developmental progress. All educators believe that open and honest communication between parents and educators is the key for quality cooperation.

There is a high variability in answers for some of the items. 20% of educators believe that the responsibility for the quality cooperation of and parents rests on the parents, and 72% of educators do not agree. 47.8% of educators believe that the educator is responsible for the quality of cooperation, and 43.5% educators disagree. 84% of educators believe that the parents and educators are equally responsible for the quality of cooperation. 32% of educators think that active parental participation in educational group's programme is not important, and 56% of educators disagree.

Differences

Differences related to age

There were no statistically significant differences in agreement with items in the questionnaire in terms of the educators' age.

Table 2. shows the differences in agreement with items in terms of educators' age

Table 2. Differences related to age

Item	Educators' age				Levene's test		t – test results		
	34 and under		35 and older		F	p	t	df	p
	M	SD	M	SD					
Item 1.	7.00	.00	6.57	1.16	7.02	.015	1.38	13	.189
Item 2.	6.60	.52	6.29	1.14	1.90	.181	.81	22	.426
Item 3.	6.50	.71	5.93	.92	.13	.726	1.65	22	.114
Item 4.	6.67	.71	6.43	.76	.68	.417	.75	21	.458
Item 5.	6.80	.42	6.69	.63	1.15	.296	.46	21	.647
Item 6.	6.90	.32	6.64	.84	3.47	.076	.92	22	.370
Item 7.	6.90	.32	6.71	.47	6.07	.022	1.16	21.96	.259
Item 8.	6.90	.32	6.71	.47	6.07	.022	1.16	21.96	.259
Item 9.	6.80	.42	6.50	.85	3.12	.091	1.02	22	.319
Item 10.	7.00	.00	6.93	.27	3.31	.082	.84	22	.410
Item 11.	5.50	1.35	5.36	1.50	.00	.961	.24	22	.813
Item 12.	6.80	.42	6.79	.43	.03	.872	.08	22	.936
Item 13.	6.90	.32	6.86	.36	.37	.548	.30	22	.767
Item 14.	3.70	2	4.67	1.87	.13	.717	1.17	20	.257
Item 15.	6.50	.85	5.64	1.98	4.03	.057	1.28	22	.215
Item 16.	6.50	.71	6.64	.50	2.19	.153	.58	22	.566
Item 17.	3.60	2.50	2.64	1.69	4.58	.044	1.05	14.74	.311
Item 18.	6.60	.52	6.43	1.16	1.77	.197	.44	22	.667
Item 19.	6.90	.32	6.57	.85	5.04	.035	1.32	17.56	.203
Item 20.	6.90	.312	6.57	1.34	2.40	.136	.75	22	.458
Item 21.	6.60	.70	6.14	1.10	.42	.526	1.15	22	.261
Item 22.	6.80	.42	6.36	1.39	3.29	.084	.97	22	.343
Item 23.	2.80	2.15	2.79	2.04	.03	.872	.02	22	.987

Differences related to work experience

There were no statistically significant differences in agreement with items in the questionnaire in terms of the educators' work experience.

Table 3. shows the differences in agreement with items in terms of educators' work experience

Table 3. Work experience

Item	Differences related to work experience						Test of homogeneity of variance			ANOVA / Welch results		
	5 or less		6 - 19		20 or more		Levene statistics	df	p	F	df	p
Item 1.	7.00	.00	6.71	.76	6.43	1.51	4.34	2, 20	.027	.75	2, 20	.484
Item 2.	6.44	.53	6.29	.76	6.43	1.51	1.24	2, 20	.310	.06	2, 20	.943
Item 3.	6.56	.53	5.86	.90	6.14	1.07	.76	2, 20	.481	1.42	2, 20	.265
Item 4.	6.44	.88	6.57	.79	6.57	.53	1.04	2, 20	.373	.08	2, 20	.927
Item 5.	6.78	.44	6.71	.76	6.67	.52	.35	2, 19	.710	.07	2, 19	.933
Item 6.	6.89	.33	6.43	1.13	6.86	.38	4.35	2, 20	.027	.510	2, 11.036	.375
Item 7.	6.89	.33	6.71	.49	6.71	.48	2.29	2, 20	.127	.45	2, 20	.646
Item 8.	6.78	.44	6.86	.38	6.71	.48	.81	2, 20	.460	.19	2, 20	.831
Item 9.	6.78	.44	6.14	1.07	6.86	.38	2.39	2, 20	.118	2.38	2, 20	.118
Item 10.	7.00	.00	7.00	.00	6.86	.38	6.68	2, 20	.006	1.16	2, 20	.334
Item 11.	5.56	1.33	4.57	1.62	6.29	.76	2.01	2, 20	.160	3.11	2, 20	.067
Item 12.	6.78	.44	6.86	.38	6.71	.48	.81	2, 20	.460	.19	2, 20	.831
Item 13.	6.89	.33	6.86	.38	6.86	.38	.09	2, 20	.917	.02	2, 20	.979
Item 14.	3.89	1.83	4.86	1.46	4.60	2.51	1.67	2, 18	.216	.55	2, 18	.583
Item 15.	6.44	.88	5.71	1.80	5.57	2.30	2.08	2, 20	.151	.63	2, 20	.545
Item 16.	6.56	.53	6.43	.79	6.71	.48	2.13	2, 20	.145	.39	2, 20	.682
Item 17.	3.67	2.50	2.71	2.06	2.71	1.70	1.18	2, 20	.326	.53	2, 20	.594
Item 18.	6.33	.71	6.71	.49	6.43	1.51	1.48	2, 20	.251	.31	2, 20	.736
Item 19.	6.78	.44	6.71	.49	6.57	1.13	1.39	2, 20	.271	.16	2, 20	.853
Item 20.	6.89	.33	6.86	.38	6.29	1.89	4.15	2, 20	.031	10.83	10.83	.557

Item	Differences related to work experience						Test of homogeneity of variance			ANOVA / Welch results		
	5 or less		6 - 19		20 or more		Levene statistics	df	p	F	df	p
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD						
Item 21.	6.44	.88	6.43	.53	6.00	1.41	.61	2, 20	.554	.47	2, 20	.633
Item 22.	6.78	.44	6.57	.79	6.14	1.86	2.60	2, 20	.099	.62	2, 20	.549
Item 23.	2.89	2.03	2.57	1.90	3.14	2.48	.24	2, 20	.788	.13	2, 20	.883

Differences related to level of qualification

There were statistically significant differences in agreement with item 6, item 7, item 8, item 9, item 13, item 15, item 19 (Table 4.).

All educators who have a master's degree completely agree that parental interest in cooperation and participation in the educational group's programme is important for the partnership, that parents' participation in parent-educator meetings is necessary for establishing quality cooperation, that parents should participate in activities (such as visits, excursions, manifestations etc.), and that open communication between parents and educators is the key for quality cooperation. All educators with a master's degree completely agree that educators' professionalism is very important for working with children and parents, and that professionalism is of the utmost importance for quality cooperation with parents. Educators who have a master's degree believe strongly that parents and educators are equally responsible for quality cooperation compared with educators who have a bachelor's degree (Table 4).

Table 4. Differences in level of qualification

Item	Educators' level of qualification				Levene's test		t – test results		
	Bachelor's degree		Master's degree		F	p	t	df	p
	M	SD	M	SD					
Item 1.	6.56	1.09	7.00	.00	5.25	.032	1.60	15	.130
Item 2.	6.44	1.03	6.29	.76	.09	.760	.35	21	.731
Item 3.	5.94	.99	6.71	.48	1.42	.246	1.94	21	.066
Item 4.	6.40	.74	6.86	.38	7.87	.011	1.92	19.66	.069
Item 5.	6.67	.62	6.86	.38	2.60	.123	.75	20	.463
Item 6.	6.56	.81	7.00	.00	8.92	.007	2.15	15	.048
Item 7.	6.63	.50	7.00	.00	95.87	.000	3.00	15	.009
Item 8.	6.63	.50	7.00	.00	95.87	.000	3.00	15	.009
Item 9.	6.44	.89	7.00	.00	12.55	.002	2.52	15	.023
Item 10.	6.88	.34	7.00	.00	4.97	.037	1.46	15	.164
Item 11.	5.63	1.41	5.14	1.46	.40	.534	.75	21	.463
Item 12.	6.69	.48	6.86	.38	3.79	.065	.83	21	.417
Item 13.	6.75	.45	7.00	.00	19.17	.000	2.24	15	.041
Item 14.	4.07	1.98	4.00	2.31	.64	.434	.07	19	.942
Item 15.	5.44	1.89	6.86	.38	9.06	.007	2.87	17.49	.010
Item 16.	6.25	.86	6.86	.38	3.81	.065	1.78	21	.089
Item 17.	3.19	2.01	3.00	2.38	.44	.516	.19	21	.847
Item 18.	6.38	1.09	6.71	.49	1.73	.203	.78	21	.442
Item 19.	6.56	.81	7.00	.00	8.92	.007	2.15	15	.048
Item 20.	6.50	1.32	7.00	.00	4.37	.049	1.52	15	.150
Item 21.	6.00	1.21	6.86	.38	3.98	.059	1.81	21	.084
Item 22.	6.31	1.30	7.00	.00	5.54	.028	2.11	15	.052
Item 23.	3.19	2.32	2.00	1.00	9.65	.005	1.72	20.98	.101

Differences related to place of work (central and branch kindergarten)

There were statistically significant differences in agreement with the item claiming that parental interest for cooperation and participating in the educational group's programme was important for partnership between educators who work in the central kindergarten and educators who work in one of the branch

kindergartens (Table 5.). All of the educators who work in branch kindergartens completely agreed with the item.

Table 5. Differences related to place of work

Item	Work place		Work place		Levene's test		t – test results		
	Central	SD	Branch	SD	F	p	t	df	p
Item 1.	6.67	1.15	6.82	.60	.75	.396	.39	21	.701
Item 2.	6.50	1.17	6.27	.65	.63	.436	.57	21	.575
Item 3.	5.92	.90	6.55	.68	.05	.826	1.87	21	.076
Item 4.	6.33	.78	6.73	.65	1.76	.199	1.31	21	.203
Item 5.	6.67	.49	6.80	.63	.30	.590	.56	20	.584
Item 6.	6.50	.90	7.00	.00	14.61	.001	1.91	11	.082
Item 7.	6.58	.51	7.00	.00	351.52	.000	2.80	11	.017
Item 8.	6.67	.49	6.91	.30	10.38	.004	1.44	18.44	.168
Item 9.	6.50	.90	6.73	.47	2.13	.159	.75	21	.464
Item 10.	6.92	.29	7.00	.00	4.42	.048	1.00	11	.339
Item 11.	5.67	1.50	5.27	1.35	.09	.765	.66	21	.516
Item 12.	6.67	.49	6.91	.30	10.38	.004	1.41	21	.174
Item 13.	6.75	.45	7.00	.00	30.13	.000	1.91	11	.082
Item 14.	4.45	1.97	4.30	1.83	.23	.638	.19	19	.855
Item 15.	5.50	2.11	6.45	.82	6.67	.017	1.45	14.49	.168
Item 16.	6.58	.51	6.55	.69	.91	.350	.15	21	.882
Item 17.	3.00	2.13	3.18	2.18	.00	.997	.20	21	.842
Item 18.	6.25	1.14	6.73	.65	1.17	.291	1.22	21	.236
Item 19.	6.50	.90	6.91	.30	7.09	.015	1.48	13.61	.162
Item 20.	6.50	1.45	6.91	.30	3.52	.075	.92	21	.369
Item 21.	6.08	1.16	6.55	.69	.46	.504	1.14	21	.265
Item 22.	6.25	1.42	6.82	.60	2.30	.144	1.23	21	.234
Item 23.	2.42	2.06	3.36	2.01	.06	.815	1.11	20.91	.278

Discussion

The success of the partnership between parents and preschool and its quality depend on characteristics, knowledge, skills and competencies of educators (Jurčević Lozančić and Golik Homolak, 2020; Sewell, 2012). Hence, it is understandable that all educators recognize the importance of professionalism in their work with children and parents. All educators consider open and honest communication between parents and educators as an important factor of quality cooperation. Both parents and educators view honest and open communication as one of the most important factors of cooperation and partnership between kindergarten and parents (Mavračić Miković, 2018). Nenadić Bilan and Matov (2014) see mutual readiness for communication and information exchange as a prerequisite for efficient partnership. Mutual open communication between educators and parents, with the child's well-being as a goal, is an indicator of partnership in an educational setting (Petrović-Sočo, 1995). Almost all educators consider professionalism, openness and approachability of educators as an important factor in achieving quality cooperation with parents. Approachability, sensitivity, flexibility and reliability are listed as important educators' personal qualities for partnership between the kindergarten and parents (Swick, 1991).

All educators view parental interest in cooperation and participation in the educational group's programme as the key component for developing a partnership. Educators want the parents to actively participate in preschool activities and view themselves as active participants of the educational process (Gaspar, 2013). Parental interest and comprehension of their role in education of their child are predictors of their active, self-initiated participation in the preschool's educational programme (Russell, 1991). Showing interest is important to educators because it confirms parents' motivation for further cooperation and partnership.

20% of educators place the responsibility for quality of cooperation on parents, and 47.8% on educators. The responsibility for initiation of partnership is often assigned to educators because the partnership itself is achieved in the kindergarten (Visković and Višnjic Jevtić, 2017). The educators seem to think they have greater responsibility for quality of cooperation, compared to parental responsibility (Mavračić Miković, 2018). However, 84% of educators

believe in equal responsibility for quality cooperation. Cooperation is actually most efficient when it is based on principles of mutual respect and complementing roles (Vukin, 2016). This type of equal responsibility is a characteristic of partnership (Petrović-Sočo, 1995). Partnership is a mutual process and as such requires active parental involvement (Visković and Višnjić Jevtić, 2017).

Most educators believe they should include parents in making decisions related to development, learning and social lives of the children in their educational group (such as excursions, educational plan and activities). Although parents and educators agree that mutual planning and decision making are important factors of parents' and kindergartens' cooperation (Mavračić Miković, 2018), only a small number of parents actually gets involved in decision making and planning (Nenadić-Bilan and Zloković, 2015; Visković and Višnjić Jevtić, 2017).

Most educators claim that individual parent-teacher meetings contribute to establishing trust and a close relationship between parents and educators. All educators believe that they should inform parents about their child's developmental progress and activities their child enjoys. Parents acknowledge the importance of individual parent-teacher meetings. Parents perceive the educator primarily as an informant (Mavračić Miković, 2018). Informing parents about their child is the most common reason for cooperation with kindergarten (Visković and Višnjić Jevtić, 2017), specifically in regard to child's developmental progress (Petrović-Sočo, 1995).

Most educators see ger-togethers (for children, parents and educators), creative workshops and parent-teacher conferences as important factors which contribute to a cooperative relationship between parents and the kindergarten. Most educators think that parents should participate in excursions, visits, get-togethers, events and other similar activities. Parents most often define cooperation and partnership with the kindergarten through get-togethers for parents and educators, individual parent-teacher meetings and occasional participation in educational group's programme (Merčep, 2016).

All educators think parents should volunteer in their child's educational group at least once a year, and that it is important to enable the participation for parents who show interest. Most educators believe that parental volunteering

in educational groups contributes to better parental understanding of the educational process and educational group's programme. Although educators and parents want to enable parents to volunteer in their child's educational group, it seems that they are both reluctant in the realization of this type of cooperation (Merčep, 2016; Petrović-Sočo, 1995). Volunteering is the rarest type of cooperation with the kindergarten (Skočić Mihić and Srića, 2016), Kanjić and Boneta (2012) found that less than one third of parents volunteer in their child's educational group.

Although most educators see the possibility of parental participation and involvement in kindergarten as one of the quality indicators, 32% of educators claim that parental participation is not necessary. Similar results were found in research with parents. Although 97.9% of parents believe they should volunteer in their child's educational group, 50% of them claim that their participation is not necessary. 89.7% of parents believe it is important to enable parental involvement in educational group's programme, and 75.7% of parents see the parental involvement possibilities as one of the quality indicators (Car Mohač and Kuretić, 2020). educators recognize the importance of parental involvement in child's education (Merčep, 2016). They acknowledge partnership with parents as an important quality indicator of the kindergarten (Cortier and Palletier, 1995).

It seems that Kindergarten Radost's educators have a positive attitude and expectations towards cooperation and partnership between parents and the institution. This is of importance because researchers have found a strong correlation between educators' attitudes towards cooperation with parents and parental involvement (Swick, 1991). Furthermore, research shows a positive correlation between parental involvement and participation in the educational group's programme and positive outcomes for the child, child's family, kindergarten and the whole community (Dor, 2013; Jurčević Lozančić and Golik Homolak, 2020; Mavračić Miković, 2019). The situation is further complicated with different factors related to the parents and family which affect parental involvement in the preschool institution's program (sex, racial and national affiliation, health condition, socioeconomic status, educational status, parental competencies, earlier cooperation experience and other parental beliefs and attitudes)

(Jurčević Lozančić and Golik Homolak, 2020; Nenadić Bilan and Matov, 2014; Visković and Višnjić Jevtić, 2017).

Differences related to work experience and age

There were no statistically significant differences in terms of age and work experiences. Other researchers have found differences in terms of work experience, showing that more experienced educators attribute less importance to parental involvement (Visković and Višnjić Jevtić, 2017). All participants in our study demonstrated a positive attitude and expectations for cooperation and partnership with parents, so it seems that cooperation and partnership with parents have become part of the core values shared by all educators in Kindergarten Radost.

Differences related to level of qualification

All educators who have a master's degree completely agree that parental interest in cooperation and participation in the educational group's programme is important for the partnership, that the parents' participation in parent-educator meetings is necessary for establishing quality cooperation, that parents should participate in preschool activities such as visits, excursions, events etc., that communication between parents and educators is the key for quality cooperation. All educators with a master's degree completely agree that educators' professionalism is very important for working with children and parents, and that professionalism is of the utmost importance for quality cooperation with parents. Educators who have a master's degree believe strongly that parents and educators are equally responsible for quality cooperation. It is important to mention that, although there are statistically significant differences, the educators who have a bachelor's degree are also in agreement with these items. A higher educational degree is generally correlated with positive attitude towards partnership between the kindergarten and parents (Gu, 2006). Educators who are recognized as quality practitioners give more importance to parental involvement in the kindergarten's programme (Corter and Palletier, 1995). Almost all educators perceive professionalism, openness and availability as important educators' qualities which affect quality cooperation with parents.

Differences related to place of work (central and branch kindergarten)

Educators who work in branch kindergartens put more importance on parental interest in cooperation and participation in the educational group's programme. A possible explanation might be in the characteristic of branch kindergartens - they function like a family environment. In such a family atmosphere, all participants are more relaxed and connected with each other. Preschool institutions have a special role in small communities: they can become a cultural centre and a centre for other happenings (Levak, 2017). So, it is possible that there are bigger expectations for parental cooperation and involvement.

Conclusion

Cooperation between the family and the kindergarten is a highly important precondition for the optimum development and upbringing of children in kindergarten. Educators are the ones that play the most important role in encouraging this partnership.

The fact that good cooperation is one of the quality standards in preschool a institution, as well as the roles that educators play in educating parents and motivating them for cooperation, imposes the need for questioning educators' stances on cooperation between the kindergarten and parents.

This research provided insight into how the educators of the Radost Kindergarten perceive cooperation with parents. The research sought to find out what the factors that affect the existence of differences (in kindergarten teachers' stances) are. The small sample in our research cannot be used for generalization, but it has allowed us to make some changes within our kindergarten. The aim was to further educate our kindergarten teachers, and to plan internal education within the institution to further improve the quality of the teachers' cooperation with parents. The obtained results were compared with the already existing theoretical framework and the results of similar research in other countries.

The results of the conducted research point to the conclusion that educators in Radost have a positive stance and expectations from the cooperation and partnership between the parents and the preschool institution. All educators

consider open and honest communication with parents to be an essential factor for constructive cooperation. They also view the expertise of educators as very important for quality work with children and their parents. In addition, all of them think of parental interest in cooperation and engagement in kindergarten and group activities as a key component in creating partnership between the kindergarten and the family. Almost all of the educators regard professionalism, openness and accessibility of educators as an important factor in achieving constructive cooperation with parents. It's interesting that 20 percent of the educators imply that the quality of cooperation depends on the parents, while 47.8 percent of them believe that it depends on educators. However, 84 percent of them think that both parents and educators are equally responsible for the quality of cooperation. The results of other studies (Visković and Višnjić Jevtić, 2017; Mavračić Miković, 2018) also confirm that educators are held responsible for initiating partnership. Interestingly, educators even assess their level of responsibility for the quality of relations as higher than parental.

Educators have recognized the importance of individual informing, and the majority believes that parents should be engaged in making decisions about the development, education and social life of children in the group (for instance: field trips, work plan and activities in group). They mostly believe that interaction between children, parents and educators combined with creative workshops and parental meetings are relevant factors that contribute to the creation of a partnership between the kindergarten and parents. All educators consider that parents must engage in volunteer work at least once a year and that they should interact with the group if they are interested. Even though the majority of educators sees the possibility of engaging parents in their work as one of the quality standards of the institution, 32 percent of them consider that this is not necessary.

The results obtained by the research indicate that educators' stances on cooperation between parents and kindergarten differ depending on their level of education and work place (central or local kindergarten). Educators with a higher education mostly believe that both parents and educators are equally responsible for constructive cooperation. Educators working in local kindergartens emphasize the importance of parental interest in cooperation and engagement

in work of the group and kindergarten. There were no statistically significant differences in their claims considering their age or work experience.

It is interesting that the results of research on parental stances on cooperation with the kindergarten (Car Mohač and Kuretić, 2020) show that almost all parents indicate educators' expertise combined with an open and honest communication as the key to cooperation. 34.6 percent of the parents consider that the quality of cooperation depends exclusively on the educator, but the majority thinks that both parents and educators are equally responsible for constructive cooperation. Parents show the need to cooperate with kindergarten. Therefore, we can conclude that both parents and educators have positive stances on cooperation. Taking into account that there are no data about the implementation of this cooperation in practice, future research should explore the characteristics of educators and parents that have a direct effect on fulfilment and quality of cooperation.

The results obtained by this research show that educators in Radost have positive stances on the kindergarten's cooperation and partnership with parents, and that they understand the importance of collaborative relations, which represents an important precondition to constructive cooperation and partnership.

The limitation of this research is a small sample, and further research is where a different, more representative sample would be selected is recommended.

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