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AS

Andragoške studije

Časopis za proučavanje obrazovanja i učenja odraslih

Andragogical Studies

Journal for the Study of Adult Education and Learning

Andragoške studije

Andragoške studije su časopis za proučavanje obrazovanja i učenja odraslih, naučne orijentacije, posvećen teorijsko-koncepcijskim, istorijskim, komparativnim i empirijskim proučavanjima problema obrazovanja odraslih i celoživotnog učenja. Časopis reflektuje i andragošku obrazovnu praksu, obuhvatajući širok spektar sadržaja relevantnih ne samo za Srbiju već i za region jugoistočne Evrope, celu Evropu i međunarodnu zajednicu. Časopis je tematski otvoren za sve nivoe obrazovanja i učenja odraslih, za različite tematske oblasti – od opismenjavanja, preko univerzitet-skog obrazovanja, do stručnog usavršavanja, kao i za učenje u formalnom, neformalnom i informalnom kontekstu.

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Predgovor urednika

Časopis *Andragoške studije* već je 26 godina glasnik i pratilac naučnog i istraživačkog rada Katedre za andragogiju i Instituta za pedagogiju i andragogiju Filozofskog fakulteta. Razvoj koncepta obrazovanja odraslih, širenje naučnih područja, istraživački rezultati, brojne projektne i druge aktivnosti našli su svoje mesto u objavljenim naučnim člancima i prikazima.

Dugi niz godina *Andragoške studije* verno odražavaju i dokumentuju i intenzivnu međunarodnu aktivnost Katedre i Instituta. „Beogradska škola andragogije” je važno mesto na evropskoj i svetskoj mapi obrazovanja odraslih – učešća na brojnim naučnoistraživačkim i primenjenim projektima, konferencijama, kongresima, naučnim i stručnim skupovima širom Evrope i sveta otvorila su i vrata časopisa za priloge kolega sa svih meridijana. Brojne teškoće na koje smo nailazili nisu umanjile težnju da vrata časopisa uvek budu otvorena za naučne radove i priloge kolega iz različitih oblasti, zemalja i kultura i da *Andragoške studije* budu dom za raznorodne teme, pristupe, metodološke pravce, uz mogućnost objavljivanja na nekoliko jezika. Prilozi kolega iz drugih zemalja predstavljali su kontinuiran i dragocen doprinos tome.

U situaciji kada su uslovi za male izdavače sve teži, naročito za one koji se izdavanjem časopisa ne bave kao glavnom aktivnošću ili nisu vezani za neku od velikih izdavačkih kuća koje rade na profitnoj osnovi, *Andragoške studije* se trude da ostanu otvorene za autore i čitaoce na neprofitnoj osnovi, da budu andragoška veza Srbije sa Evropom i svetom. U ovoj težnji ohrabrilu nas je organizovanje naučnoistraživačke konferencije „ESREA 9th Triennial European Research Conference: Adult education research and practice: between the welfare state and neoliberalism“, kojom smo obeležili 40 godina rada Katedre za andragogiju i okupili kolege – naučnike i istraživače sa pet kontinenata, iz skoro 40 zemalja.

Mreža međunarodnih saradnika, kolega i prijatelja Katedre predstavlja jedan od najdragocenijih resursa Katedre i Instituta, iz kojeg dolaze i saradnici časopisa – autori, uredništvo, recenzenti...

Među institucijama sa kojima Katedra dugo i uspešno saraduje izuzetno značajno mesto zauzima Univerzitet u Vircburgu (Nemačka), sa kojim postoji razmena predavača, studenata i administrativnog osoblja.

Univerzitet u Vircburgu, Katedra za obrazovanje odraslih¹ (Julius-Maximilian University Würzburg, Professur für Erwachsenenbildung) i šef Katedre Regina Egetenmayer² (Regina Egetenmeyer) od 2015. godine organizuju Zimsku školu pod nazivom „Međunarodno i komparativno obrazovanje odraslih i celoživotno učenje“, i to sa mrežom partnera koju čine Univerzitet Aarhus (Danska), Univerzitet u Lisabonu (Portugalija), Univerzitet Helmut Schmidt u Hamburgu (Nemačka), Univerzitet u Firenci (Italija), Univerzitet u Padovi (Italija) i Univerzitet u Pečuju (Mađarska), uz pridružene partnere: Univerzitet u Ljubljani (Slovenija), Univerzitet Minho (Portugalija), Univerzitet Obafemi Avolovo u Ile-Ifeu (Nigerija), Međunarodni institut za učenje odraslih i celoživotno učenje u Nju Delhiju (Indija) i Univerzitet u Delhiju (Indija). Zimska škola u Vircburgu je već postala jedan od najznačajnijih događaja u međunarodnom obrazovanju odraslih, okupljajući svakog februara do 100 polaznika i oko 20 predavača iz celog sveta. Ovaj rad je podržan grantom ERASMUS+ za strateško partnerstvo „Međunarodne i uporedne studije za studente i praktičare u obrazovanju odraslih i celoživotnom učenju“ (INTALL) za period 2018–2021. Zimskoj školi se 2020. godine priključilo još nekoliko organizacija – Univerzitet u Dablinu i nevladine organizacije EAEA (Evropska asocijacija za obrazovanje odraslih), nemački DVV International i ICAE (Međunarodni savet za obrazovanje odraslih).

Zimska škola, koja će se od 2021. održavati pod nazivom „Adult Education Academy“, namenjena je studentima master i doktorskih studija i kolegama iz oblasti obrazovanja odraslih i kontinuiranog obrazovanja. Intenzivni program podeljen je u dve nedelje, posvećene radu na međunarodnim i komparativnim temama obrazovanja odraslih i celoživotnog učenja. Zimska škola 2020. bila je posvećena analizi i upoređivanju međunarodnih i evropskih strategija celoživotnog učenja u pojedinim oblastima. Teme za komparaciju su birane sa ciljem dubinske analize i kritičkog poređenja u mnogim zemljama.

Komparativna istraživanja obrazovanja odraslih su, sa stanovišta svoje izvodljivosti, među najkompleksnijima. Udaljenost predmeta istraživanja, česta nemogućnost uvida i analize 'iz prve ruke' predstavljaju otežavajuće faktore. Susreti u Vircburgu predstavljaju retku mogućnost da istraživači iz različitih zemalja provedu vreme u analizi, komparaciji, da zajednički rade na materijalima i da

¹ <https://www.paedagogik.uni-wuerzburg.de/erwachsenenbildung/startseite/>

² <https://www.paedagogik.uni-wuerzburg.de/erwachsenenbildung/team/univ-profin-dr-phil-regina-egetenmeyer/>

istražuju, podjeljeni u tematske grupe. Radovi nastali u zajedničkom autorstvu istraživača – predavača i studenata doktorskih studija, pravo su malo bogatstvo koje je već stavljeno na uvid naučnoj i stručnoj javnosti u publikaciji u izdanju Peter Lang Publishers (Egetenmeier, 2016a; Egetenmeier, Schmidt-Lauff and Boffo, 2017; Egetenmeier i Fedeli, 2017) i tematskom broju časopisa *Studies in Adult Education and Learning/Andragoška spoznanja* (2019).

Andragoške studije imaju čast da objave radove nastale u okviru Zimske škole 2020, i to u dva broja 1/2020 i 2/2020. Svi radovi su rezultat koautorskog, grupnog istraživačkog rada i zasnovani su na komparativnom pristupu različitim temama – teme broja 1/2020 su: Preduzetništvo i obrazovanje odraslih (2 članka: Programs and methods for developing entrepreneurial skills in higher education; Entrepreneurship around the world: A possible comparison), Gradovi koji uče (1: Learning Cities and Learning Communities: Analysing contextual factors and their impacts on adult and lifelong learning in urban settings), Obrazovanje odraslih i održivi razvoj (1: Helping to postpone the last whimper: Adult learning and education for sustainable development in the national energy and climate plans of Poland, Portugal and Slovenia), a broja 2/2020: Profesionalizacija obrazovanja odraslih (3: The role of organisations in the professionalisation of adult educators in Germany and Slovenia; Professionalisation through further education? An international comparison of non-formal education programmes for adult educators; Policies for professionalisation in adult learning and education: A comparative study from India, Colombia and Denmark), Priznavanje prethodnog učenja (1: Contexts of recognition of prior learning: A comparative study of RPL initiatives in Brazil, Portugal and Germany), a taj broj sadrži i jedan primer dobre prakse (Sustainable development thorough lifelong learning: A good practice about women entrepreneurship from Turkey). Svi radovi su prošli uobičajenu proceduru dvostruke slepe recenzije.

Uz ove radove objavljujemo, kao i obično, radove domaćih i stranih autora koji su na uobičajen način stigli u našu redakciju i prošli istu proceduru recenzije, kao i ostale priloge. Verujemo da će ove dve sveske *Andragoških studija* obogatiti korpus komparativnih istraživanja obrazovanja odraslih, raznovrsnošću, kvalitetom, ali i otvorenim (neprofitnim) pristupom doprineti daljem razvoju ove oblasti i podstaći nove istraživače.

Urednici

Editorial

For the past 26 years, the scientific and research work performed at the Department for Andragogy and the Institute for Pedagogy and Andragogy of the Faculty of Philosophy has been presented in and supplemented by the *Andragogical Studies* journal. The development of the concept of adult education, the broadening of scientific areas, research results, as well as numerous project and other activities have found their place among the published scientific articles and reviews.

For many years now, the *Andragogical Studies* journal has been meticulously reflecting and documenting the numerous international activities of the Department and Institute. “The Belgrade School of Andragogy” is an important hub in the European and global landscape of adult education due to its continuous participation in numerous scientific-research and applied projects, conferences, congresses, scientific and professional meetings across Europe and worldwide. This in turn has created space for colleagues across the world to make their mark in the journal. The series of mishaps we have encountered thus far did not hinder our aspiration to always welcome scientific work and contributions of colleagues from various areas, countries and cultures in our journal. Furthermore, the *Andragogical Studies* journal has always been an open space for multi-faceted topics, approaches, methodological directions, offering the possibility of publishing in several languages. Works of colleagues from foreign countries represent a lengthy and valuable contribution to this end.

Even though small publishers are facing aggravating circumstances, especially ones that do not publish journals as part of their main activity or are not associated with a major publishing house working for profit, the *Andragogical Studies* journal aspires to remain open to authors and readers on a non-profit basis and act as an andragogical link of Serbia to Europe and the world. What encouraged us in this intention was the scientific-research conference “ESREA 9th Triennial European Research Conference: Adult education research and practice: between the welfare state and neoliberalism”, which served to mark the 40th anniversary of the Department of Andragogy and gather colleagues—scientists and researchers from 5 continents and nearly 40 countries.

The network of international associates, colleagues and friends of the Department is one of the most invaluable resources of the Department and Institute, which is home to some of the journal's associates—authors, editors, reviewers etc.

Among the institutions the Department has established a long and fruitful collaboration we would like to highlight the University of Würzburg, Germany, with which we maintain an exchange of lecturers, students and administrative staff.

Since 2015, the Department of Adult Education³ (Julius-Maximilian University Würzburg, Professur für Erwachsenenbildung) of the University of Würzburg and the chairman of the Department, Regina Egetenmeyer⁴, have been organizing a Winter School entitled “International and Comparative Adult Education and Lifelong learning“ in cooperation with a number of partners, such as the University of Aarhus (Denmark), University of Lisbon (Portugal), University Helmut Schmidt in Hamburg (Germany), University of Florence (Italy), University of Padua (Italy) and University of Pécs (Hungary), along with the following partners: University of Ljubljana (Slovenia), University of Minho (Portugal), Obafemi Awolowo University in Ile-Ife (Nigeria), the International Institute for Adult Education and Lifelong Learning in New Delhi (India) and the University of Delhi (India). The Winter School in Würzburg has gained recognition as one of the most prominent events in the world of international adult education, taking place in February and welcoming 100 participants and about 20 lecturers across the globe. This work is supported by the ERASMUS+ grant for strategic partnership “International and Comparative Studies for Students and Practitioners in Adult Education and Lifelong Learning” (INTALL) for the 2018—2021 period. The 2020 Winter School welcomed several more participants, such as the University of Dublin and the following non-governmental organizations: EAEA (European Association for the Education of Adults), DVV International (Germany) and ICAE (International Council for Adult Education).

The Winter School is to be entitled “Adult Education Academy” as of 2021 and is intended for MA and PhD students and colleagues from the field of adult education and continuing education. The intensive program is split into two weeks and is devoted to working on international and comparative topic of adult and lifelong education. The 2020 Winter School focused on the analysis and comparison of international and European strategies of lifelong learning in certain areas. The topics for comparison were selected with the purpose of in-depth analysis and critical comparison among a series of countries.

Comparative research of adult education are among the most complex ones in terms of feasibility. The separation from the research object, frequent

³ <https://www.paedagogik.uni-wuerzburg.de/erwachsenenbildung/startseite/>

⁴ <https://www.paedagogik.uni-wuerzburg.de/erwachsenenbildung/team/univ-profin-dr-phil-regina-egetenmeyer>

inability of direct insight and analysis act as obstacles. The meetings in Würzburg present a rare opportunity for international researchers to devote time to analyzing, comparing, mutually working on materials and conducting research, all the while split into thematic groups. The works authored by researchers—lecturers and PhD students are truly invaluable and have already been presented to the scientific and professional public in publications issued by Peter Lang Publishers (Egetenmeier, 2016a; Egetenmeier, Schmidt-Lauff and Boffo, 2017; Egetenmeier and Fedeli, 2017) and the thematic edition of the journal *Studies in Adult Education and Learning / Andragoška spoznanja* (2019).

The *Andragogical Studies* journal was granted the privilege of presenting the works created during the 2020 Winter School in two issues—1/2020 and 2/2020. All the works are the result of collaborative writing and group research, and are based on a comparative approach to various topics. Issue 1/2020 features the following topics: Entrepreneurship and adult education (2 articles: Programs and methods for developing entrepreneurial skills in higher education; Entrepreneurship around the world: A possible comparison), learning cities (1 article: Learning Cities and Learning Communities: Analyzing contextual factors and their impacts on adult and lifelong learning in urban settings), adult education and sustainable development (1 article: Helping to postpone the last whimper: Adult learning and education for sustainable development in the national energy and climate plans of Poland, Portugal and Slovenia), whereas the 2/2020 issue will feature the following topics: professionalization of adult education (3 articles: The role of organizations in the professionalization of adult educators in Germany and Slovenia; Professionalization through further education? An international comparison of non-formal education programs for adult educators; Policies for professionalization in adult learning and education: A comparative study from India, Colombia and Denmark), recognition of prior learning (1 article: Contexts of recognition of prior learning: A comparative study of RPL initiatives in Brazil, Portugal and Germany), as well as an example of good practice (Sustainable development through lifelong learning: A good practice about women entrepreneurship from Turkey). All the works have undergone the customary procedure of double-blind peer review.

As is the practice, along with the said works we will publish the papers of domestic and foreign authors which have been submitted to our editorial staff and have undergone review, as well as other contributions.

We believe that the two issues of the *Andragogical Studies* journal will enrich the corpus of comparative research of adult education owing to their diversity and quality. Moreover, we hope that the open (non-profit) approach will be conducive to the further development of the area and encourage new researchers.

Editors

ZIMSKA ŠKOLA UNIVERZITETA U
VIRCBURGU 2020 – ČLANCI

UNIVERSITY OF WÜRZBURG
WINTER SCHOOL 2020 – ARTICLES

Jörg Schwarz¹
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University of Ljubljana, Slovenia

The Role of Organisations in the Professionalisation of Adult Educators in Germany and Slovenia

Abstract: In this paper, we analyse the role that adult and continuing education (ACE) organisations play in the professionalisation of adult educators (AE) by providing and shaping opportunities for primary professional education and continuing professional development in two Central European countries: Germany and Slovenia. Theoretically, our discussion draws on classical profession theory, organisation theory, and the “new professionalism” discourse; empirically, we perform a comparative analysis between two countries and discuss similarities and differences in terms of state-society contexts, professional organisations, and professionalisation organisations. Our findings indicate that professional and professionalisation organisations represent main institutionalised contexts where the professionalisation of ACE is negotiated. In Slovenia, this is supported by strong state-society contexts, whereas in Germany, traditional regional and institutional diversity is achieved at the price of a unified AE occupational profile.

Key words: Germany, organisations, professionalisation of adult educators, Slovenia.

Introduction

The adult education research community (see, for example, Egetenmeyer, Breitschwerdt, & Lechner, 2019; Jarvis & Chadwick, 1991; Nuissl & Lattke, 2008) and international organisations active in the field of adult and continuing education (ACE) (see, for example, Council of the European Union, 2011; DVV International, 2013) emphasise the importance of well-qualified personnel working in

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the field. However, the question of whether ACE should professionalise has been discussed since the 1920s. One camp is in favour of professionalisation, because it may help improve ACE's marginal status in society and quality; the other has been raising concerns that professionalisation may lead to the marginalisation or exclusion of different voices and approaches to adult education (cf. Merriam & Brockett, 2007; Grotlüschen, Stammer, & Sork, 2020). Furthermore, the range of professionals working in this field is wide and diverse, as ACE is linked to a country's social structure, its socio-economic, cultural, and political traditions and the low regulation of the ACE system (Jütte, Nicoll, & Salling Olesen, 2011). Moreover, the field is characterised by fragmented training opportunities and precarious job status, with many adult educators (AE) working in the field lacking formal preparation for teaching, counselling, programme planning, and so on before entering the profession (Andersson, Köpsén, Larson, & Milana, 2013).

In recent years, especially in the European educational space, studies of professionalisation focused mainly on competences that AE should have (see Mikulec, 2019), but less attention has been given to the important role organisations play in the professionalisation of AE. Organisations not only provide primary spaces for the (professional) development of AE (Breitschwerdt, Lechner, & Egetenmeyer, 2019) but also emphasise, from a multi-level perspective on professionalisation, the general importance of interdependencies between the state-society (macro), organisations (meso) and staff-personnel (micro) levels of professionalisation (Egetenmayer et al., 2019). Therefore, the aim of this paper is to fill this gap and to analyse the role ACE organisations play in the professionalisation of AE by providing opportunities for primary professional education and continuing professional development in two Central European countries, Germany and Slovenia, both of which have a long tradition in institutionalised forms of ACE. Furthermore, although the focus of the analysis is on organisations (meso level), these are reflected also through the state-society context (macro level). The paper explores the following research question: What kind of opportunities and programmes for the professionalisation of AE are offered by ACE organisations in Germany and Slovenia?

In the following, we first briefly introduce the theoretical framework. Next, we outline our methodological approach and provide an analysis of German and Slovene conceptualisations of the organisations' role in the professionalisation of AE. In the final section, we discuss the identified similarities and differences. We argue that professional and professionalisation organisations represent main institutionalised contexts in which the professionalisation of ACE is negotiated, whereas the state-society context plays a strong role in regulating this process, either by providing a binding common idea of AE, as in Slovenia, or by holding

back and leaving this to the competition of different ideas within a diverse field, as in Germany.

Organisation and Professionalisation: A Complex Relationship

Drawing on classical profession theory, organisation theory, and the discourse about a “new professionalism”, we will first shed light on the complex relationship between organisations and professions before narrowing our examination to processes of professional education and development and the interplay between professions and organisations in these processes.

“Organisation vs. Profession” and Organised Professionalism

From the perspective of classical profession theory (Marshall, 1939), the relationship between professions and organisations can initially be characterised as tense, to say the least. Especially in the early sociology of professions in the 1930s, professions were described as antithetical to the modern economy and thus also to the societal organisation of work in the form of organisational hierarchies (e.g. large companies). In this context, professional autonomy is elevated to almost heroic status, which stands in the way of the integration of professional work into hierarchical organisational structures. At the same time, the development of new forms of professions is observed, which integrate their activities very well into the hierarchies of large organisations but are characterised as semi-professions and discredited as a result of a social advancement project of the middle class (see Marshall, 1939, p. 339).

In the influential structural-functionalist theory of professions (Parsons, 1939), the opposition of “professional man” and “business man” lives on but undergoes a more extensive theorisation, which, instead of assuming fundamentally different motivations for both (egoistic vs. altruistic), emphasises their commonalities (rationality and success orientation). As a result, the explanation of different forms of action is shifted to the level of “radically different” institutional patterns, which stem from their different social functions. Ultimately, for Parsons, it is the “professional complex” that during the 20th century “has become the most important single component in the structure of modern societies” (Parsons, 1968, p. 545). Consequently, when Parsons finally states a closer interlocking with organisations in the further development of the professions, he sticks to the belief that a professional logic will play the dominant part in this relationship.

But the increasing intertwining between professions and organisations that could be observed empirically over the course of the 20th century can theoretically also be resolved in the opposite direction: In systems theory following Luhmann, Parson's idea of a professional complex as a social entity bridging different social systems is being questioned, because it contradicts the basic idea of functional differentiation – if such a bridging principle actually exists in modern societies, it is the organisation (Stichweh, 2006). In this point of view, the organisation in fact not only acts as a functional equivalent, it is also considered the more modern one, effectively acting as a successor of the professions once an advanced stage in functional differentiation is achieved (Kurtz, 2002).

The relationship between professions and organisations can also be viewed from a different angle if we focus not so much on the professions but on professionalism as a basic principle of social coordination. Thinking of professionalism as a “third logic” besides the market and bureaucracy (Freidson, 2001) opens up a connection to discourse in organisation theory. Not only markets and hierarchies (Williamson, 1973) and networks (Powell, 1990) but also professionalism may be analysed as a basic principle of social coordination that shapes the social relations both within organisations and between organisations. For example, Mintzberg's “professional bureaucracy” (Mintzberg, 1989) is an ideal-typical connection of professional and bureaucratic/hierarchical governance mechanisms. For organisational fields, the sociological neo-institutionalist perspective assigns an important role to professionalism, particularly in relation to the concept of normative isomorphism, and thus for both social reproduction and social change (Greenwood, Suddaby, & Hinings, 2002; DiMaggio & Powell, 1983, p. 152).

Thinking of organisations and profession(alism) as two distinct forms of social coordination in general and of the societal coordination of work and knowledge in particular opens up the possibility to analyse their hybridisation as an absolutely typical phenomenon in late modernity: The theoretical approach of a “new professionalism” hence not only highlights the general significance of “organisational professionalism” but also emphasises the opportunities connected with it, leading to new empirical approaches (see Egetenmeyer et al., 2019; Schwarz, 2016).

Organisations' Role in the Professionalisation of ACE

In classical profession theory, organisation (in the broader sense) plays an important role for the professions, mainly with respect to the self-organisation of a professional community, such as a professional association (with organs, codified rules, defined membership, and so on). These professional associations act as (political) representatives of professional interests, not least with regard to the

education and training of novices (see Goode, 1957, p. 195). However, the idea that the professional community (association) controls admission to and contents of training on the level of both primary and further professional education and training is being thwarted by the changing relationship between organisations and professions, as well as by different socio-cultural contexts, national, and (partly) supra-national regulations. Vast differences emerge, for example, between the Anglo-American and the continental European institutionalization process, with the state serving as the central regulatory instance, especially with regard to formal education, in the latter case (Mieg, 2016).

Therefore, to examine the role organisations play in the professionalisation of AE, we must adopt a research perspective that allows us to focus on the complex relations between different professional and professionalisation organisations:

- (1) *Professional organisations*: First, we can examine professional associations in the narrow sense, that is, associations self-organised by professionals from the field of ACE. We can expect to find such associations on different levels, ranging from associations of educators in general to much smaller, field-specific associations (e.g. for freelance trainers in VET), and they may or may not be hierarchically linked (e.g. by an umbrella organisation). Second, we can examine academic associations, given that the relationship between the academic discipline and the profession of ACE cannot be safely assumed to be a very close one. However, although academic associations have an important influence on primary professional education in universities, they may act according to a logic fundamentally different from that of the field of professional practice. Third, we can also examine the interrelation of ACE organisations and their associational structures, which may influence both primary professional education and further professional development.
- (2) *Professionalisation organisations*: Professional education is carried out predominantly in organised contexts. Theoretically, we could also examine informal learning and socialisation in the everyday practice in ACE organisations, but in our empirical investigation, we will deliberately exclude this case and focus on the formal and non-formal education of (future) professionals. Here, we can distinguish between (a) primary professional education and (b) continuing professional development. We assume formal study programmes at the university level to play a major role for the first category, whereas primary professional education may also occur in non-formal education programmes. Moreover, as a result of general processes of privatisation in academia and ongoing academisation, hybrid forms can also be

expected here. For the second one, we expect ACE providers to play a major role. Moreover, providers may play a dual role: As members of provider associations, they negotiate the professionalisation of AE; as individual organisations, they provide further education for AE and thus simultaneously act as professionalisation organisations.

Methodology

For the comparative empirical analysis, we selected Germany and Slovenia, both of which are Central European countries and European Union (EU) member states, but with different histories, governance structures, welfare regimes, and ACE systems (Desjardins, 2017). Historically speaking, both countries have a long tradition in institutionalised forms of ACE; in 2019, for example, many adult education centres in Germany (*Volkshochschulen*) celebrated their 100th birthday (Field, 2019), while in Slovenia, the *Association of Folk Universities of Slovenia* celebrated its 60th birthday; the first folk school started to operate in 1921 (Mermolja, Benko, Grželj, & Ličen, 2019). Today, the main focus of the ACE system in both countries is on vocational education and training (VET). In both countries, ACE is provided by a diverse range of organisations, including adult education centres/folk schools, third age universities, schools, private institutions, companies, chambers of industry and commerce, institutions of higher education, and associations (in Germany also trade unions, political parties, church institutions, family education centres, and distance learning institutions; in Slovenia also libraries, museums, and galleries). However, the two countries differ in their governance of ACE systems: In Germany, ACE is overall less regulated than other parts of the education system, and the responsibilities for its legal regulation, the public recognition of providers, and their basic funding rest mainly with the sixteen states (Länder), whereas in Slovenia, the governance of ACE is mainly state based, with the ministry responsible for education and the ministry responsible for labour having the main responsibilities, but they are also supported by other ministries and relevant national bodies (Desjardins, 2017; Eurydice, 2020; Grotlüschen & Haberzeth, 2018; Mikulec & Jelenc Krašovec, 2016).

Three different comparative categories were developed to guide our comparison: (a) state-society context, (b) professional organisations, and (c) professionalisation organisations. Professional and professionalisation organisations are described in terms of the opportunities and programmes they offer – focusing on aims, target groups, and core contents – for the professionalisation of AE.

As regards the selection of sources, we analysed policies and regulations, organisations' webpages and their publicly available documents (e.g. statutes,

reports, etc.), as well as articles, chapters, and books on professionalisation in Germany and Slovenia. Moreover, as natives of Germany and Slovenia, we could interpret the sources available in the national languages, and we are knowledgeable about the political context and ACE in the two countries.

Germany

At the turn of the 18th and 19th centuries, ACE in Germany emerged as a modern mass phenomenon under the term “*Volksbildung*” (popular education). Institutionally, it took the form of bourgeois self-education in clubs and salons, urban education for craftsmen and workers, and rural popular education. Working as a popular educator was a voluntary and usually part-time activity carried out by (academically) educated citizens (doctors, lawyers, teachers) or local priests (Seitter, 2007). After steady expansion over the course of the 19th century and with a new surge in institutionalisation at the beginning of the 20th century, AE not only saw a new level of nationwide organisation but also the emergence of new professional tasks in the area of organisation, planning, and management. In post-war Western Germany, the comprehensive educational reforms of the 1960s and 1970s established ACE as the fourth pillar of the education system with broadly accessible, publicly funded offerings in pluralistic institutional contexts, but also with commercial programmes by private ACE providers and VET within enterprises gaining importance. In the wake of this reform, professionalisation saw a new surge, linked to the establishment of a degree course in education (“*Diplom-Pädagogik*”) introduced in 1969: With ACE offered as one of the major concentrations, academically trained AE entered the field for the first time. Although this degree programme was not created at the request of ACE providers or practitioners, the underlying concept of the ACE professional as a full-time occupation with an emphasis on management tasks eventually became a successful project, which is also mirrored in the massive increase in full-time professional activity during subsequent decades (Seitter, 2007).

State-society context

In Germany ACE is not uniformly or strictly regulated. This also applies to concepts of ACE professionals and their qualification: In the context of state recognition and basic funding of providers regulated by the continuing education laws of Germany’s 16 states, the requirements concerning the qualification of the AE are either limited to formal aspects (e.g. a full-time head of the provider organisation)

or remain rather vague (e.g. by referring to “professional aptitude”). At the same time, the last decades have seen an overall trend towards an ongoing decrease in basic funding for providers by the state governments, while funding earmarked for specific projects and programmes is becoming increasingly important. Federal policies, especially social, labour, and economic policies, thus play an important role for the developments in ACE and may influence the professionalisation of AE. But whereas ACE obviously plays an important role in addressing social challenges (BAMF, 2019, p. 130), general adult education is rather neglected, with policies focusing more on continuing VET, which is clearly evident in the (first!) national continuing education strategy, for example (BMAS & BMBF, 2019).

Professional Organisations

In this section, we examine AE professional associations, providers’ associations, and academic associations in Germany. Overall, we must assume an extremely low rate of self-organisation among adult educators, especially if compared to “classical professions” in Germany, where more than half (law, 53%) or almost all professionals (medicine, 94%) are members of a professional association (Martin & Langemeyer, 2013, p. 56). Moreover, instead of a single professional association for AE, a variety of associations with different members and objectives have developed (so far).

(1) Professional Association of Educational Scientists (BVPäd)

BVPäd is the association whose characteristics most closely reflect the idea of professional self-organisation: Tightly connected to the professionalisation of (adult) educators, it was established in the 1970s, in the wake of the new degree programme in “Diplom-Pädagogik”. This means that this association was never specific to AE but more to the graduates of this degree programme, who entered various areas of education under the professional title of “Diplom-Pädagoge”. Its close historical relation to the abovementioned study programme posed challenges to the association during the Bologna process, because it had to redefine membership policies. Today, members must have completed a programme with a major in education, and the association is still clearly promoting the idea of the well-rounded, academically educated professional. Accordingly, academics are often active in the association, and it publishes an academically recognised journal. But with an estimated number of 500 members, the association only covers a fraction of the academically educated (adult) educators in Germany (Martin & Langemeyer, 2013, p. 56).

(2) Trainers' associations (dcvt, BDVT)

Other associations are not so much defined by the classical idea of a profession but organised around certain professional activities. Although there is no association explicitly for people doing ACE, there are several associations focussing on marketable professional services like "training", "counselling", and "coaching". The "German Association for Coaching and Training" (dcvt, 1,600 members) or the "Professional Association for Training, Counselling and Coaching" (BDVT, 650 members) are two of the largest and best-known associations. They are also explicitly committed to professionalisation, both at the level of VET policy and through qualification and certification programmes for their members, but they do not aim for disciplinary closure. At the same time, its most important member group are self-employed individuals or freelancers in the respective fields of action.

(3) The German Adult Education Association (DVV)

The DVV ("Deutscher Volkshochschulverband") represents the ACE centres and their state-specific associations at the federal level. It not only promotes the exchange of experience and cooperation among its members but is also a political advocate of ACE in general. In this context, the quality of ACE plays an important role; therefore, the professionalisation of AE is also a relevant topic.

(4) Catholic/Protestant Providers Associations (DEAE and KEB)

According to the institutionalisation of ACE in Germany, confessional ACE providers play an important role: The "German Protestant Working Group on Adult Education" (DEAE) acts as an umbrella organisation for all providers of Protestant ACE, while the "Catholic Federal Working Group for Adult Education" (KEB) is the Catholic counterpart. Both associations aim at fostering cooperation between all Protestant resp. Catholic ACE providers and act as political lobbyists for them; at the same time, they are more generally committed to the further development of ACE in general, for example by running development projects on today's key issues.

(5) The Wuppertal Circle

The Wuppertal Circle represents the continuing education that takes place within companies and is the result of a cooperation of various trade associations like the "Federal Association of German Industry" (BDI), the "Association of German

Chambers of Industry and Commerce” (DIHK), and others. The Wuppertal Circle also has a potential impact on professionalisation in ACE, given its concern with quality assurance in continuing education and its role as a representative of business interests in education policy issues.

(6) German Educational Research Association (GERA)

GERA is the association of educational researchers working in research and teaching at universities. Founded in 1964, the purpose of the GERA is to promote research, education, and training in the field of scientific pedagogy. Since ACE is considered a subdiscipline of education, it is represented by one of GERA’s 14 divisions. In addition to its primary function as an academic association, it also has an important role to play in professionalisation: The association influences the education of AE at universities, for instance by defining a “core curriculum” (DGfE, 2006), and it represents scientific interests vis-à-vis educational policy and ACE practice.

(7) German Association for University Continuing and Distance Education (DGWF)

The DGWF is a hybrid organisation, because it is not only an academic association but could also be classified as a professional or even a providers’ association: Its members are institutions and individuals from the higher education and continuing education sector, and its aim is to promote, coordinate, and represent continuing education provided by the universities. At the same time, it also promotes research and teaching in the field of ACE.

(8) German Institute for Adult Education (DIE)

The DIE is a non-university research institute committed to mediating between ACE research, practice, and politics. Its activities focus on: (a) supporting ACE research and other disciplines producing findings on lifelong learning (LLL) with publications and research data, (b) knowledge that contributes to the “development and sustainable professionalisation of practice” (DIE, 2017). DIE is classified as a scientific organisation here because it was founded as a pedagogical working group (“PAS”) of the DVV and because its direct engagement in the training of AE (developed courses and self-study material) played a vital role especially during the 1970s (Gieseke, 2008).

Professionalisation Organisations

More than 60 German universities offer degree courses in education, including more than 80 bachelor's degree courses and over 100 master's degree programmes (Grunert et al., 2016, p. 20ff). Usually, the bachelor's degrees are more general, whereas the master's programmes are often more specialised: ACE may be found explicitly in the title of the degree programme or as a specialisation in a general master's programme (in the tradition of "Diplom-Pädagogik"). In bachelor's programmes, students will learn the basics of education, social science research methodologies, and the historical, political, and social contexts of education. They will also have an introduction to the different specialisation options provided at the specific university (such as social pedagogy, rehabilitation pedagogy, ACE, etc.). Based on this introduction, they choose their specialisation and then learn about the history of ACE, relevant theoretical basics on ACE, and professional competences and careers in ACE. Master's programmes are usually more specialised from the beginning, leading to a master's thesis, which should also be anchored within the chosen specialisation in ACE (DGfE, 2006).

Professionalisation through continuing education is provided by many different organisations. Just as any other courses, trainings for AE may be offered by public, private, or third sector providers. The "basic qualification adult education" courses provided by many adult education centres (VHS) are one example: They aim at teachers and prospective teachers in ACE. The structure and contents of these courses may vary between the different VHS and especially between their 16 state-based associations, but they are mutually recognized nationwide. Similar courses are provided by the chambers of industry and commerce, the churches, or commercial providers. Now that the universities have established themselves as providers on the further education market in recent years, they also offer courses that provide graduates of various (non-pedagogical) subjects with basic qualifications in ACE, preparing them to work as teachers in ACE.

Slovenia

Historically, the professional development of AE in Slovenia can be traced back to the late 1950s, when Slovenia was part of Yugoslavia³. The training of the non-qualified adult population and the growth of institutional structures of ACE created a need for trained AE. Consequently, the systematic training of AE was first established at the People's and Worker's Universities (1957–1959).

³ Slovenia was part of Yugoslavia until 25 June 1991 when it declared its independence.

In the 1960s and 1970s, Yugoslavian universities opened the door to systematic theoretical and empirical research in the field of ACE and introduced study programmes on “andragogy” at the Faculties of Arts. Because of the helpful social climate, a new profession called “andragogue” emerged. In Slovenia, andragogy was introduced as a subject in higher education in 1972. From 1976 on, andragogy was one of the three possible fields of study in the study programme “Pedagogy”; in 1993, an independent study university programme “Andragogy” was established. Yugoslav (and thus Slovene) experience therefore pointed out the interdependence between andragogy as a science and the andragogue as a professional, the main outcome of this process being the awareness that people working in ACE needed to acquire a certain amount of andragogical knowledge (see Mikulec, 2019, pp. 33–34).

State-society context

ACE in Slovenia is one of the areas where the educational requirements for professionals—these being defined as teachers, organisers of ACE, counsellors in ACE, and “other professionals”—working in formal and non-formal educational programmes for adults, financed by public funds, are regulated by the law (*Zakon o izobraževanju odraslih [ZIO]*, 2018). The obligatory conditions that AE working in formal and non-formal ACE programmes must fulfil are as follows: (a) mastery of the Slovene language; (b) education acquired through master’s study programmes; (c) pedagogical-andragogical education; (d) successful completion of a professional examination in the field of education; that is, graduates who finish higher education studies are obliged to complete a traineeship lasting from 8 to 10 months before employment (Ministrstvo za šolstvo in šport, 2011; ZIO, 2018). However, these rules do not apply to all of those AE who work in ACE provisions that are not publicly funded, for example in enterprises that provide a high and growing share of continuous VET to employees.

Furthermore, the *Resolution on the Master Plan for Adult Education in the Republic of Slovenia* for the period 2013–2020 (National Assembly, 2013), which complements ACE law (ZIO, 2018; cf. Mikulec & Jelenc Krašovec, 2016, pp. 155–156), sets more concrete goals for the development of ACE professionals: (a) a sufficient number of professionals should be trained for different target groups and needs; (b) a database of AE should be maintained for public service in ACE; (c) pedagogical–andragogical education should be adapted to different target groups; (d) quality teaching materials, learning resources and ICT-support should also be provided (National Assembly, 2013, p. 18).

Professional Organisations

Professional organisations active in ACE are: (1) Andragogical Society of Slovenia, (2) Association of Folk Universities of Slovenia, (3) Slovenian Third Age University, National Association for Education and Social Inclusion, (4) Association of Adult Education Organizations in Upper-Secondary Schools, and (5) Association of Educational and Counselling Centres of Slovenia. Therefore, no single professional association exists in Slovenia, but a variety of associations can be found, serving different objectives and needs of its members. However, the existing studies show that the majority (almost 70%) of AE continuing professional development takes place inside the organisation they work for or the association they are part of (Ministrstvo za šolstvo in šport, 2011).

(1) Andragogical Society of Slovenia (ADS)

ADS, established in 1968, is a non-profit professional association of AE employed in organisations that provide ACE, such as Folk Universities, private ACE companies, ACE organisations in upper-secondary schools, special education centres, and other services that provide ACE in voluntary, non-governmental and/or local organisations. The main aim of the association is to provide general public information about educational opportunities, to raise the quality of education, and to inform employees about innovations in ACE (ADS, 2020). Among others, one of the activities of the ADS, dating back to the 1980s, is professional training of AE. In recent years, the association focused on (a) ACE in communities, training municipal administration staff for the preparation of annual ACE plans on the municipal level, and (b) training of AE working with adults with special needs (association prepared special training programme). Furthermore, each year the association prepares an annual conference at the national level and is involved in the professional development of AE coming from the territory of former Yugoslavia in the network "Building Bridges in Adult Education" (ADS, 2020; personal communication with Ida Srebotnik, ADS, 14 June 2020).

(2) Association of Folk Universities of Slovenia (ZLUS)

ZLUS, established in 1959, is a non-governmental and non-profit professional association of 22 (out of 33) Folk Universities currently active in Slovenia. Folk Universities are one of the most important public organisations for ACE, serv-

ing the needs and interests of adult learners (e.g. unemployed persons, migrants, older adults) and social partners (e.g. employers) in the local environment. The main mission of ZLUS is to represent the interests of its members and to promote LLL through the emphasis on ACE (Mermolja et al., 2019). Among other activities, ZLUS has provided training programmes for AE since the 1960s. Four such programmes are currently available: training of AE for the career guidance process; legality and quality assurance; working with prisoners; and mentoring in companies (ZLUS, 2020).

(3) Slovenian Third Age University, National Association for Education and Social Inclusion (U3A)

U3A, established in 1984, is a professional association that aims at improving the lives of older people and communities through education and culture, especially by giving older people access to culture and education for personal growth, better employability, active citizenship, active ageing, and the like. U3A is the largest Slovenian older ACE network, combining 53 third age universities in 51 localities. One of the basic roles and tasks of the association, since 1985, when the first trainings of leaders and mentors in the education of the elderly started, has been to take care of the professionalisation of the network's members. The network performs this task systematically by training leaders, mentors, animators, and other associates. Moreover, the training programme for mentors became mandatory for all mentors working in U3A organisations from 2010 on (U3A, 2020).

(4) Association of Adult Education Organisations in Upper-Secondary Schools (DOIO)

DOIO, established in 1997, is a voluntary, non-profit and professional association that connects AE who are employed in units of ACE at upper-secondary schools or school centres. The association was established to implement common tasks in the development of ACE in upper-secondary schools, for mutual cooperation and coordination of the role of ACE in Slovenia. The association monitors ACE in upper-secondary schools and takes care of its professionalisation by organising professional meetings and lectures on current issues and by representing common opinions on the issue of ACE in formal education at the national level (DOIO, 2020).

(5) Association of Educational and Counselling Centres of Slovenia (ZiSS)

ZiSS is a newly formed association of centres for LLL for adults, which currently consists of 8 members, so called “Adult Education Guidance Centres” (ISIO) based at public Folk Universities. The association aims to develop and promote counselling activities in ACE and to actively support the development of ACE in Slovenia. The association also provides its members with training programmes (e.g. on issues related to occupational health and safety) and professional development opportunities (e.g. study visit programmes with different ACE organisations in Europe) (ZiSS, 2019; personal communication with Maja Radinovič Hajdič, ZiSS, 10 June 2020).

Professionalisation Organisations

Two main professionalisation organisations responsible for primary education and continuing professional development of AE discussed below are: (1) universities, responsible for primary professional education, and (2) the Slovenian Institute for Adult Education, responsible for continuing professional development. However, different public, private, and third sector ACE providers also provide different training courses for the professional development of AE.

(1) Universities

The University of Ljubljana, Faculty of Arts, offers doctoral and master’s programmes in “Andragogy”; subjects covering ACE can be studied at the undergraduate level in the bachelor’s programme “Pedagogy and Andragogy” (Filozofska fakulteta, 2021a). The University of Primorska, Faculty of Education, offers a master’s programme in “Adult Education and Career Development”; subjects covering ACE can be studied at the undergraduate level in the bachelor’s programme “Education/Pedagogy” (Pedagoška fakulteta, 2021). ACE as a subject can also be studied through the first– and second-cycle study programme of “Pedagogy” at the University of Maribor, Faculty of Arts (Filozofska fakulteta, 2021b) and through some other study programmes as well (e.g. Organisation and Management, Human Resources). Therefore, all three of Slovenia’s public universities offer study programmes at the master’s level or ACE subjects at the bachelor’s level. Study programmes are aimed at full-time students and prepared in line with the Bologna requirements that took force in 2009. Broadly speaking, master’s programmes in

andragogy or ACE equip students with generic competencies in the humanities and social sciences, as well as with professional competencies that enable them to comprehend the relations between various ACE phenomena and processes, social and cultural environments, and the characteristics and expectations of individual adults.

Professional training for education professionals called “pedagogical–andragogical education” is also organised at the university level. These education programmes (for professionals working in primary and secondary schools and vocational colleges) aim at expanding the knowledge acquired in the academic education programmes and include pedagogical, psychological, andragogical, general, and specialised didactic knowledge, as well as pedagogical or andragogical practice. They are defined by laws and regulations and are mandatory prior to engaging in other professional or management work in the field of education (Filozofska fakulteta, 2021c).

(2) Slovenian Institute for Adult Education (ACS)

ACS, established in 1991, is an umbrella institution for ACE in Slovenia, and among others, the main institution responsible for the system of further education and training of AE. ACS developed competence-based professional training programmes for AE, which aim to develop new knowledge and skills and help them to develop their own and the common professional identity of an AE. Three main types of professional training were developed: (a) general basic and continuing training of AE (knowledge of the discipline, andragogical cycle), (b) basic training on the special roles of AE (e.g. head and mentor in study circles, teacher in literacy programmes, counsellor in adult education guidance centres), and (c) further training of AE (ACS, 2015). These programmes are divided in two groups: (a) general and further non-formal training of AE (42 programmes), associated with identifying educational needs, planning of education, implementation of education, evaluation of education, management and administration and general ACE; and (b) basic non-formal training for special roles of AE (9 programmes), associated with basic non-formal education, quality in adult education, literacy in adult education, and guidance and counselling in ACE (see ACS, 2020).

Comparison and Interpretation

Historically, both Germany and Slovenia (as part of Yugoslavia before independence) have long traditions in institutionalised forms of ACE dating back to the first half of 20th century, with organisations and their associations in ACE playing

a crucial role in the primary and continuing professional development of AE. In the late 1960s (in Germany) and mid-1970s (in Slovenia), both countries saw a new surge of professionalisation through higher education degree programmes called “Diplom-Pädagogik” or “Pedagogy”, where ACE/andragogy was one of the main branches of study, and academically trained AE entered practice. However, although academic opportunities for professionalisation of AE existed in both countries– and still exist today – the majority of AE working in practice did not study ACE but come from diverse disciplines. Furthermore, AE working in the public sector face precarious job situations and work mostly part time (Ministrstvo za šolstvo in šport, 2011; Martin et al., 2016; Mohorčič Špolar, 2011), whereas those working in the commercial or industrial sector may experience more prestigious jobs and seniority (Grotlüschen et al., 2020, p. 128). This pattern is not unique to Germany and Slovenia but can be recognised internationally, mostly caused by the heterogeneity of the field (Andersson et al., 2013; Grotlüschen et al., 2020).

The two countries differ from a macro perspective as well. In Slovenia, the educational requirements for AE working in publicly funded formal and non-formal educational programmes (Slovene language, master’s degree, pedagogical-andragogical education, and internship) are regulated by the ACE law; the field of ACE is also regulated by other school and employment acts (see Mikulec & Jelenc Krašovec, 2016, p. 156). On the policy level, clear support for the professional development of AE is set as well. However, although we could argue that policymakers and legislators do take care of the professional development of AE, some recent studies show that teachers working with adults are often unwilling to learn about the specifics of adults and their learning needs (cf. Mohorčič Špolar, 2011). In Germany, on the contrary, no special law regulating educational requirements for AE is in place, but different laws on continuing education regulate the field. However, these laws can address the conditions of AE qualifications through the quality assurance mechanisms required for ACE providers to receive public funding. Some specific laws, such as the Immigration Act, also regulate the required qualifications of teachers working with adult migrants. However, this contributes more to a further specialisation and differentiation of occupational roles than to a shared concept of AE.

From a meso perspective, both countries share important similarities as they provide different opportunities for the (primary and continuing) professional development of AE. Existing studies for both countries show that organisations, supported by their associations or umbrella organisations, play a crucial role in the professionalisation of AE, providing the primary space for the professional development of a great majority of AE working in practice (cf. Min-

istrstvo za šolstvo in šport, 2011; Breitschwerdt et al., 2019). In our analysis, we identified different (1) professional organisations and (2) professionalisation organisations that exist in both countries and strive, among other goals, for the professionalisation of AE:

- (1) *Professional organisations*: Neither country has a single professional association for AE. Rather, a variety of associations with different objectives can be found, which makes it more unlikely that novices in the field will become members of an association just as a matter of course. In both Germany and Slovenia, professional associations and providers' associations can be found, but academic associations are only found in Germany (see Table 1). Professional associations in Germany strive for academically educated educators (BVPäd) or promote marketable professional services, such as counselling and coaching (BDVT, dvct). In Slovenia, only one such association exists (ADS), which in recent years has focussed on the continuing professional development of AE working with adults with special needs and on the training of municipal staff. Furthermore, the most common types of association in both countries are providers' associations (see Table 1), which promote cooperation among their members, serve their interests, are concerned with quality assurance in continuing education, and provide different professional training programmes for AE. Whereas providers' associations in Germany also act as umbrella associations (in case of DEAE, KEB and Wupertal Circle), no such umbrella organisation exists in Slovenia. Finally, Germany also has academic associations that promote professionalisation through the core curriculum or research and teaching, no such academic association was identified in Slovenia (see Table 1).
- (2) *Professionalisation organisations*: In both countries, universities are the main organisations that provide primary ACE through relevant study programmes. At the bachelor's level, subjects covering ACE are available mainly through study programmes in Education/Pedagogy, whereas a specialisation in ACE is offered at the master's level. This trend is not specific to the countries analysed here, as the majority of European university study programmes offer a specialisation in ACE at the master's level as well (cf. Research voor Beleid, 2010, pp. 105–106). However, unlike German universities, Slovenian universities also provide “pedagogical-andragogical education”, which, according to the regulations, all candidates must complete before engaging

in professional work in the field of education. Furthermore, whereas continuing education programmes aiming at the professionalisation of AE are provided by different (public, private, third sector) ACE providers in both countries, the Slovenian ACS, as an umbrella organisation, is also responsible for the development and maintenance of the system for the continuing education of AE (see Table 1). For this purpose, ACS developed and offers more than 50 different programmes to AE, and it annually evaluates participants' satisfaction with the programmes offered.

Table 1. Professional and professionalisation organisations in Germany and Slovenia

	Germany	Slovenia
Professional organisations		
(a) Professional associations	BVPäd, BDVT, dvct	ADS
(b) Providers' associations	DVV, DEAE, KEB, Wuppertal Circle	ZLUS, U3A, DOIO, ZiSS
(c) Academic associations	DGfE, DGWF	/
Professionalisation organisations		
	Universities	Universities
	ACE providers	ACS, ACE providers

Finally, from the perspective of professionalism, we can discuss the extent to which these organisations (Table 1) most typically represent an orientation towards professional, state-regulatory and market-oriented models (Freidson, 2001). In Germany, the professionalisation surge of the 1970s was strongly influenced by a state-controlled professionalisation model. The BVPäd continues this tradition and combines it with the hope for strong autonomous self-control within the profession. At the same time, a successful hybridisation of professional self-organisation with a strong market-oriented logic is emerging in both professional associations in the area of "training", where this is offered freely on a market, but its value is secured by community-based mutual recognition. The providers' associations link market with bureaucratic logics, as they sometimes play a dual role as providers and beneficiaries of professional development. In Slovenia, there is no organisation that typically represents or fits into one model; rather, hybrid forms can be observed. ACS can be placed in a triangle between profession, market, and bureaucracy, as it provides professional training programmes, research results and evaluations, offers programmes to both liberal and market-oriented AE providers, and is funded by the national government, EU projects, and market activities, whereas ADS and other providers' associations can best be

placed between profession (they all offer professionally controlled training) and bureaucracy (state and EU project funding and regulation).

Conclusion

In this paper, we argue that the classical idea of a contradiction between organisations and professions has to be abandoned in favour of an analysis of the connections between organisational and professional practices. This led us to look at both professional and professionalisation organisations as relevant institutionalised contexts where the professionalisation of ACE is continuously negotiated. The results of our comparative analysis, which focused on the role organisations play in the professionalisation of AE in Germany and Slovenia, show that (1) providers' associations as professional organisations are the most numerous and important organisations in both countries, while in Germany a wider range of professional and scientific associations are active in the field; (2) universities in both countries are the most important professionalisation organisations; (3) in both countries, different courses for the continuing professional development of AE offered by public, private, and civil society providers are available, whereas in Slovenia, a system for continuing professional development managed by the national institute (ACS) is in place as well; (4) in both countries, hybridisations between professionalism, the market, and bureaucracy exist: whereas hybridisations between the professional and market logic tend to dominate in Germany, professional and state control come closer together in Slovenia; (5) the main differences between the two countries arise from the state-society contexts, because preserving the traditional regional and institutional diversity in Germany is achieved at the price of a unified occupational profile, which is actively safeguarded by the state, and a more common concept of professionalisation than the one we find in Slovenia.

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Uloga organizacija u profesionalizaciji nastavnika u obrazovanju odraslih u Nemačkoj i Sloveniji

Apstrakt: U ovom radu analiziraćemo ulogu koju organizacije za obrazovanje odraslih i kontinuirano obrazovanje igraju u profesionalizaciji nastavnika za odrasle time što pružaju i definišu mogućnosti za osnovno profesionalno obrazovanje i kontinuirani profesionalni razvoj u dve države Centralne Evrope – Nemačkoj i Sloveniji. U teorijskom smislu, naša diskusija proizilazi od klasične teorije profesije, teorije organizacije i diskursa „novog profesionalizma“, dok u empirijskom pogledu sprovodimo uporednu analizu između dve zemlje, i ujedno diskutujemo o sličnostima i razlikama u kontekstu države i društva, o profesionalnim organizacijama i organizacijama za profesionalizaciju. Prema našim saznanjima, profesionalne organizacije i organizacije za profesionalizaciju predstavljaju glavni institucionalizovani kontekst u kojem se pregovara o profesionalizaciji obrazovanja odraslih i kontinuiranog obrazovanja, dok to podržava snažni kontekst države i društva u Sloveniji, za razliku od Nemačke, gde se tradicionalna regionalna i institucionalna raznolikost ostvaruju po cenu objedinjenog profila zanimanja.

Ključne reči: Nemačka, organizacije, profesionalizacija nastavnika za odrasle, Slovenija.

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Policies for Professionalisation in Adult Learning and Education: A Comparative Study from India, Colombia and Denmark⁴

Abstract: This paper discusses the role of policies in promoting or hindering professionalisation in adult education in different contexts. The paper draws generalisations based on three case studies: India, Colombia and Denmark, where professionalisation of adult education is negligible. The methodology includes case studies, policy analysis and a comparative perspective. The paper concludes that the professionalisation of adult education has diminished with the emergence of lifelong learning because the focus of policies has shifted to learning outcomes rather than educators. Stakeholders who favour the professionalisation of adult education and learning, therefore need to ensure the development of distinctive offers, create a market for them and get them acknowledged to convince policy makers for investment.

Key words: professionalisation, standardisation in adult education, andragogy, policy, lifelong learning.

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Introduction

Despite the increasing influence of learners, educators appear to make a significant difference in the education system. Professionalisation in adult learning and education has been identified as an indicator to estimate its quality (Egetenmeyer, Breitschwerdt, & Lechner, 2018). Professionalisation is relevant for coping with the challenges of uncertainty and preparing adults for precarious jobs (Cervero, 2017). While most research is limited to individual attributes regarding the way an adult educator should or could teach (Lencer & Strauch, 2019), some researchers argue that professionalisation in adult learning and education depends upon its competitiveness in the market (its demand in the market) and its capability to align itself with the regulations (moulding itself in accordance to policy guidelines and laws) that influence it (Noordegraaf, 2015; Egetenmeyer et al., 2018; Breitschwerdt, Lechner, & Egetenmeyer, 2019).

Whereas the national focus on the professionalisation of adult educators is considerable in countries like Germany, it is almost absent in many others, like India and Colombia. In countries like Denmark, on the other hand, it appeared as a wave in the 1970s and faded away in the 1990s. Since national policies predominate the mobilisation of resources, they are one of the most relevant factors in determining the development of professionalisation. This paper explores the linkage between policy and professionalisation in adult learning and education in contrasting contexts. Professionalisation in this paper has two meanings: *professionalisation of individuals* (adult educators), which means equipping adult educators with standardised competencies for ensuring the production of a distinctive product by distinctive skills based on a special (only meant for adult educators) body of knowledge; and *professionalisation of the field/sector*, which implies specific occupational regulations and remuneration for adult educators that reflect the acknowledgement of their unique contribution to providing or facilitating adult education.

The research question for the paper is: How do national policies support (or hinder) professionalisation in a given context? The conceptual framework comprises the multi-level research perspective on professionalism in adult learning and education (Egetenmeyer et al., 2018). Using this perspective, the national policies on adult learning and education in India, Colombia and Denmark are examined in relation to professionalisation, first separately and then in comparison. All three cases apparently have limited or no professionalisation in adult education. Sources for research include relevant policy documents and contextual information along selected parameters. The methods thereby primarily include case studies and policy analysis, followed by a comparative perspective and ana-

lytical approach to draw generalisations. Egetenmeyer et al.'s (2018) *multilevel perspective on professionalisation of adult and continuing education* is used as the conceptual framework. The paper discusses the adequacy of the perspective for analysing the three selected cases and for drawing generalisations from them.

Review of the Existing Literature

A profession can be characterised by common practice, a shared knowledge base, an ethical code of conduct determining the behaviour of the professionals, and control on the entry into the specified group of professionals (Benn and Fieldhouse's assertion (1994) in Doyle, Egetenmeyer, Singai, & Devi, 2016). A professional delivers a distinctive product, gets specific training to produce it, and keeps control over the final product (Larson, 1977). In adult and continuing education, the term "professionalisation" has been used to indicate personal behaviour (for instance in the UK, Germany and India) as well as regulation and standardisation of the field, especially in favour of economic considerations (Doyle et al., 2016). At least in European policies, the change from the former to the latter has been widely reflected (Research voor Beleid [Alpine], 2008). However, in most cases, adult education has not necessarily been able to ensure professionalisation, except in academia (Cervero, 1992).

The "social reformist" and "professional" traditions in adult education have their own reasons to resist and support professionalisation, respectively (Cotton, 1964). Whereas the "social reformist tradition" banks upon idealism, morality and intellectual inputs for making lives better and striving towards an equal balance in society, the "professional tradition" disagrees (Cotton, 1964). The "professional tradition" favours idealism and morality, but rejects the utopianism of everything being for the good, and warns against the political orientations that might appear to be ideal but lack discipline and could be hijacked by political propaganda (Cotton, 1964). However, it is impossible to deny the negative consequences of professionalisation, which include its sometimes mechanical nature; a struggle for control over funding emanating from licensing, certification and/or accreditation; and the degeneration in the idealistic-moral elements, followed by the consequent loss of meaning of adult education itself (Collins, 1992; Cotton, 1964).

However, it has been claimed that the development of specific adult education programmes has answered the question about whether there should be professionalisation, and that the dichotomy between the social reformist tradition and the professional tradition is falsely framed and redundant (Cervero,

2017). Further, it is argued that, since adult education is a critical component of knowledge and power balance in society, it cannot be handled unprofessionally (Cervero, 2017; Cervero & Wilson, 2001; Cervero & Wilson, 2006; Merriam, Courtenay, & Cervero, 2006). Is this reflected in policies, too? This paper contributes to validating this argument using empirical sources (policy documents).

Societal, organisational and personnel factors influence the “new professionalism” (Egetenmeyer et al., 2018; Breitschwerdt et al., 2019). Individual adult educators (personnel factor) try to balance these three types of factors against each other (Breitschwerdt et al. 2019). The management (organisational factor) plays a crucial role in defining professional norms as well as developing strategies for professionalisation in order to deliver according to the set standards (Evetts, 2011). Professionals do not necessarily follow the market demand (logic of market) or behave in accordance with the criteria set by the organisations (organisational logic) they work with (Freidson, 2001). Professionals have their own logic (the third logic, as Freidson (2001) calls it), emanating from the nature and scope of the adult education profession itself. However, this logic is increasingly becoming subservient to “managerialism” (organisational logic) and “commercialism” (market logic), thereby diminishing the presence of professional logic in the work performed (Evetts, 2011). “Hybrid professionalism”, or maintaining a balance among the three logics, is a major challenge for professionals in the field (Nordgraaf, 2015; Breitschwerdt et al., 2019). There is a lot of research on what is conceptually defined as professional in adult education and learning, but that research has found only limited reflection in policies. Further, professionalisation in adult education has been criticised for a narrow emphasis on profitability and economic value, especially in response to precarious jobs (Hughes & Tight, 1995; Lynch, 2010; O’Neill & Cullinane, 2017). This paper contributes to our understanding of the necessary elements for professionalisation to inform policies and reflects on the possibilities for establishing a balance between professionalisation, managerialism and commercialism.

It is argued in academic literature that the policy focus on lifelong learning and the need for social development and cohesion have created the need for professionalisation (Andersson, Köpsen, Larson, & Milana, 2012; EC, 2006, 2007a, 2007b; Merriam & Brockett, 2007; Nuissl & Lattke, 2008; Cervero, 2017). Apart from this, the predominance of global competitiveness and economic considerations put forth by policy makers have further added to the relevance of professionalisation in the field (just like in other areas of education) by treating adult and continuing education as a commodity and promoting its marketisation (Spring, 1998; Apple, 2006; Robinson, 2016 cited in O’Brien, 2018; Smith & O’Leary, 2013; Fejes & Olesen, 2016; Yasukawa & Black, 2016 cited in O’Brien,

2018, p. 557). The paper validates this claim on the basis of case studies, analysing whether the shift from adult education to lifelong learning has created a space for professionalisation in reality.

Despite the existence of a wide variety of pathways for professionalisation in the field (Andersson et al., 2012), reflecting the diverse nature of adult education and lifelong learning (Buiskool, Lakerveld, & Broek, 2009; Research voor Beleid/PLATO, 2008), a trend towards standardisation of how professionalisation should be done has emerged, at least in Europe, through the Bologna Declaration (1999), the Copenhagen Declaration (2002), the Treaty of Lisbon (2009) and the New Skills Agenda for Europe (2016) (Cieslak, Ricardo, Fehrenbacher, Praveen, & Nierobisch, 2017; Buiskool, Broek, van Lakerveld, Zarifis, & Osborne, 2010). However, differences still remain in relation to the characteristics and functions associated with adult educators in different contexts within and beyond Europe, which influence the “competence profiles” of adult educators (Ciselack et al., 2017; Buiskool et al., 2010). The paper also analyses this contradiction through the cases.

The Cases of India, Colombia and Denmark: It is important to note that the level of professionalisation in adult education is negligible in the three selected cases: India, Colombia and Denmark. In the case of India, adult education is implemented as a mission. The sector is characterised by a large number of non-literate and semi-literate people (about 313 million in 2017), limited resources (especially funding) and the consequent need for voluntary work (provided by NGOs or professionals in other fields), low level of skills imparted (basic and functional literacy, sometimes limited vocational skills like sewing) through adult education programmes, limited political will and limited research in the area (Shah, 2008, 2010, 2013; Kuhlen, Singh, & Tomei, 2016; Singh & Assigner, 2016; Singh & Sharma, 2016). Despite the availability of structured programmes for training adult educators, these programmes are not mandatory for the voluntary sector, and the quality of existing programmes is poor (Shah, 2008, 2010, 2013; Kuhlen et al., 2016; Singh & Assigner, 2016; Singh & Sharma, 2016).

In the case of Denmark, the professionalisation of adult education and educators was debated until 2000 (Rasmussen, Larson, & Cort, 2019). However, the adoption of a 10-point programme by the Danish Parliament in 2000 (proposed since 1995) and the introduction of the Danish Lifelong Learning policy ended this debate (Larson & Milana, 2011; Andersson et al., 2012; Rasmussen et al., 2019). The status of adult education as a sector ended with this, because all educational providers that had offers for the young were expected to provide learning opportunities for adults, too (Larson & Milana, 2011; Andersson et al., 2012; Rasmussen et al., 2019). Usually, adult educators are professionals in other

fields, meaning their professionalisation in the field is neither recognised as necessary nor viable anymore (Larson & Milana, 2011; Andersson et al., 2012; Rasmussen et al., 2019). Moreover, the policy focus on learning has moved the thrust of all kinds of initiatives towards learning through any means possible rather than limited to any specific procedure or guidelines which professional adult educators may need to follow (Larson & Milana, 2011; Andersson et al., 2012; Rasmussen et al., 2019; Ehlers, 2019).

In the case of Colombia, education has been a priority since the new constitution of 1991 (Cabrera Rosero & Alfonso Caicedo, 2017), and adult education has been a major driver of socio-economic growth in this country. Despite this, the professionalisation of the field has not yet been addressed in the literature. There are probably two main reasons for this: first, the issue has not been advocated in education policies thus far; second, adult educators are professionals from different fields. In fact, there are currently no graduate programmes or official certifications for the professionalisation of adult educators. Recently, scholars and educators have advocated for adult education programmes, claiming that adult education is an “imported product” that is “far from the reality that students live” (Gomez 2019, as cited in Grillo, 2019). They propose the professionalisation of adult education programmes that specifically address the needs of this student population (Posada Escobar, 2020). Although these programmes would most likely be professional and not just occupational, their incorporation may create barriers for those who want to enter the field, and the national government might not be willing to take on another issue or responsibility related to adult education in the country.

The existing literature, therefore, provides a rich overview of the different aspects of professionalisation, the factors influencing it, and the subservience of professional logic to the marketisation and commodification of education, including adult and continuing education. However, the linkage between the economy and its impact on macro-level changes in cultural values, which may further reinforce or diminish the need for professionalisation, are not adequately explored. Despite the fact that policy studies are embedded and/or closely connected with the discipline of political science, there is limited literature which analyses policies for (or against) professionalisation with that perspective. Egetenmeyer et al.’s (2018) analysis seems quite convincing (see section on Conceptual Framework) and reflective of contemporary changes, but more empirical research is needed to validate it. Therefore, in order to enrich the knowledge base, there is a need to explore and verify the generalisations with a multidisciplinary approach (since Egetenmeyer et al.’s approach is primarily rooted in sociology), using case studies representing contexts different from the one in which Egetenmeyer et al.’s

generalisations are embedded. The paper thus contributes to the existing literature by analysing the existing scientific considerations and making new additions to the knowledge base through case studies and multidisciplinary perspectives.

Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework for this article is primarily comprised of the *multilevel perspective on the professionalisation of adult and continuing education* proposed by Egetenmeyer et al. (2018) and the power-interest matrix for stakeholder analysis (Johnson & Scholes, 1999, as cited in Olander & Landin, 2005).

Egetenmeyer et al. (2018) argue that professionalisation is influenced by factors at three different and interdependent levels: personnel, organisational and societal. Personnel factors comprise individual behaviour; organisational factors comprise provider activity (or non-activity), and societal aspects include the positioning of adult and continuing education as a profession in society, characterised by law, policies, social acceptance and the like (Egetenmeyer et al. 2018).

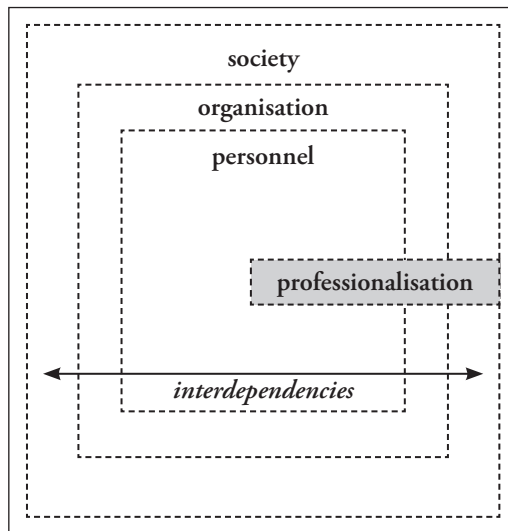


Figure 1. Interdependencies of professionalisation in adult and continuing education (Source: Egetenmeyer et al. 2018, p. 13)

The perspective implies that favourable/ unfavourable changes and situations at one level might lead to changes in favour of or against professionalisation at other levels and in the entire system. In the current paper, this model is

used to analyse how these interdependencies are addressed through policies in different contexts.

The conceptualisations by Egetenmeyer et al. (2018) are rooted primarily in the sociological approach. However, the primary sources for this paper are policies (understood as compromises among stakeholders). To analyse them adequately, we have therefore complemented Egetenmeyer et al.'s approach with stakeholder analysis based on the power-interest matrix (Mendelow, 1981; Johnson & Scholes, 1999, as cited in Olander & Landin, 2005).

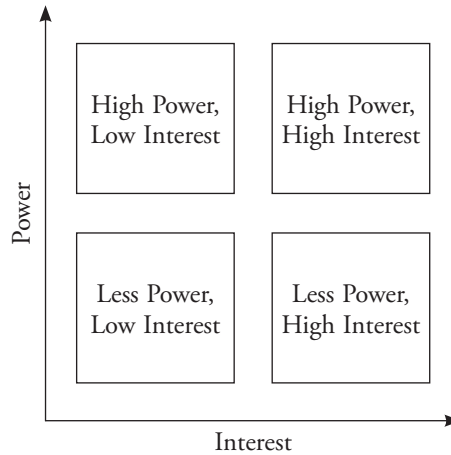


Figure 2. Stakeholder Analysis: Power-Interest Matrix (Source: Illustration by authors adapted from Olander and Landin, 2005)

The power-interest matrix suggests that stakeholders (actors with directly or indirectly involved benefits and losses) with relatively more power and high interest influence the policy process the most and vice versa.

Case Studies

India

India is a lower-middle income, highly populated country with more than 1.35 billion people of a median age of around 29.4 years (in 2018, c.f. Worldometer, n.d.). The literacy rate in India was around 74.4 per cent (in 2018, c.f. UNESCO, n.d.) with very high unemployment (around 6.6 per cent in November 2020) and up to around 200 million underemployed persons engaged in

low-income, low-productivity jobs (35 to 40 per cent of the total 540 million employed in 2020) (Centre for Monitoring Indian Economy, 2020). Complementing the steep decline in the economy, the rate of employment has been constantly falling to the lowest in the last 45 years (Government of India, 2019). The education of adults, therefore, is key to survival – and insight also stated in the Indian policy.

Access to education is not only relevant for economic development but also necessary for dealing with social problems, especially in relation to social stratification (*caste system*)⁵, marginalisation, inequality and gender disparities (Department of School Education and Literacy, n.d.). Basic education has been a right in India since 2009 (Ministry of Law and Justice, 2009), but it is neither compulsory nor accessible or adequately funded (OECD, n.d.). As a consequence, more than 313 million adults are non-literate, and about 59 per cent of them are women (Chandra, 2019). 88.6 per cent of the employment in India was informal in 2018 (International Labour Organisation, n.d.; Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation, n.d.).

In such a context, basic as well as functional literacy have been the priority of adult education programmes, especially for the marginalised, among them women, even though programmes have extended beyond that (Department of School Education and Literacy, n.d.). Policies in the past have focussed on quantity rather than quality, and the data are estimates (based on samples/extrapolation) rather than accurate figures (Department of School Education and Literacy, n.d.; Ministry of Human Resource and Development, 2020).

Adult education has been primarily measured in terms of basic literacy and numeracy, even though additional offers for localised economic survival, like simple farming techniques and sewing, have existed as well (Department of School Education and Literacy, n.d.). Most of such offers are now part of the voluntary sector, and the policy provisions do not include them as parameters to measure or evaluate the status of adult education systematically. Unlike in many other countries, basic and sometimes advanced skill development programmes regulated by policy in India are categorised as skill development (governed by a dedicated Ministry for Skill Development and Entrepreneurship) rather than adult education. Similarly, adult learning occurring in formal, non-formal or informal settings for work in private and voluntary sectors, recreation or any other purpose is kept clearly out of the policy on adult education. In other words, even though the policy claims to reconfigure the education system and align it according to the United Nation's Sustainable Development Goal 4 (to which India is a

⁵ A system of social stratification in India that categorises people by birth at present. It is a perverted form of Ancient Indian social stratification, which was made on the basis of profession, not birth.

party), (Ministry of Human Resource and Development, 2020) lifelong learning is mentioned symbolically, and labour market policy is not integrated with adult education policy to ensure sustainable education. Skill development comes under a separate ministry, and adult learning in private and voluntary sector settings does not come under the adult education policy at all. It is notable that the policy on adult education keeps teaching and learning among adults in the voluntary and the private sectors out of its purview and does not recognise it under adult education (unlike in many other countries). Therefore, at the societal level, there is a gap in terms of reaching out to millions with limited resources and teaching them basic skills and knowledge, leading to social prestige and survival jobs.

The Indian policy, since the beginning, has banked upon the social reformist, volunteer-based approach and has gradually incorporated economic aspects in the past, even though it has never been completely economic in nature. The current policy on adult education marks a shift away from the gradual trend towards economic orientation (Ministry of Human Resource and Development, 2020). In its overall approach, the policy on education is cultural-social rather than socio-economic (as earlier) or primarily economic (as in many other countries). The policy is state led, issued by the Ministry of Human Resource and Development (proposed to be renamed as the Ministry of Education), guided by traditional Indian philosophy on education, and focussing on cultural attitudes and values rather than on economic competitiveness (Ministry of Human Resource and Development, 2020). The change in the name of the ministry also signifies a change from the economic (Ministry of Human Resource and Development) to the cultural approach (Ministry of Education, and as evident from parts of the document). Despite the fact that the influence of stakeholders from the private and the voluntary sector cannot be denied, the negotiations have neither been transparent nor acknowledged clearly in the policy document of 2020 (for details, see Ministry of Human Resource and Development, 2020).

The policy puts the focus on formal education (school and higher) while adult education is kept under “other key areas of focus” (Ministry of Human Resource and Development, 2020) despite the huge number of non-literate people, unemployed persons and those engaged in low-paid, low-productivity jobs.

The policy proposes an adult education curriculum framework (appearing to be an equivalency framework as per description) with foundational literacy, basic skills, critical life skills (or functional literacy and awareness regarding socially relevant issues like childcare and family welfare), vocational skills (for local employment like survival jobs), basic education (equivalent to primary and secondary education) and continuing education (in different areas like sports and culture) (Ministry of Human Resource and Development, 2020). Related

programmes existed earlier, but the efforts seem to be clearly acknowledged and categorised now in 2020.

Regarding the infrastructure, the existing dedicated adult education centres are supposed to be merged with an integrated infrastructure for educational purposes (Ministry of Human Resource and Development, 2020). School premises (after school hours or on weekends and holidays) are proposed as possible sites for adult education. Contrary to this, the policy states to build residential school complexes on traditional Indian education models (Ministry of Human Resource and Development, 2020). In that case, independent workspaces for adult educators are beyond imagination. Similarly, it is stated that the volunteers would be connected to local adult education centres by social workers or counsellors, but if there are no adult education centres, it is unclear where the volunteers are supposed to connect. These contradictory statements in the document imply that adult educators would not even be provided with their independent workspace and might need to struggle and work in uncertain conditions – not necessarily an attractive option for professionals.

Most adult and continuing education departments (which are the only source of formal degrees in adult education) offer limited opportunities to hire professional adult educators. Many of them were closed down or their funding was cut gradually (Shah, 2020; Government of India, 2018). In the private and the voluntary sectors, jobs for training and teaching adults require expertise in social work and other knowledge– or skill-specific content rather than the teaching of adults. In fact, adult education departments that give formal degrees in adult education that might lead to professionalisation do not necessarily hire professionals in adult education themselves (Shah, 2020). At the organisational level, the possibilities for professionalisation do exist, but they are not necessarily rewarding.

Given the current policy approach, the sector is not attractive in terms of returns on investment. The policy emphasises that volunteerism and mobilisation can lead to adult education (Ministry of Human Resource and Development, 2020). Adult educators are thus understood as trained volunteers who could mobilise and engage the masses in communities for adult education. The volunteers could be relatively educated people in the target communities or students in higher education institutions (Ministry of Human Resource and Development, 2020). The only possible professionals could be those working in different national, state– and district-level institutions such as higher education institutions, which would be responsible for training the volunteers. However, their qualifications or competencies are not specified either. This implies that the resource persons could be professional or unprofessional educators or experts in other fields, too (as is currently the case where educators from different fields are

hired in adult education departments in higher education institutions without any specific and transparent criteria regarding their field-specific capabilities). Apart from these two types of human resources, the policy states to include social workers and counsellors (working independently, for the private sector under corporate social responsibility programmes or for the voluntary sector), who may support the volunteer adult educators or engage themselves as adult educators (Ministry of Human Resource and Development, 2020).

The provision for meagre monetary compensation for adult educators is replaced with non-monetary recognition for critical service to the nation (Ministry of Human Resource and Development, 2020). Training costs and arrangements for volunteers, as indicated in the policy, appear to be a responsibility of higher education institutions under extension and community outreach programmes (third mission of the higher education institutions apart from teaching and research), departments of social work or adult education and the like (Ministry of Human Resource and Development, 2020).

The available guidelines point clearly against professionalisation and towards volunteerism with basic working knowledge rather than professional expertise. Education costs in general, and professional education costs in particular, are borne by individuals owing to limited access to and the poor quality of publicly funded education. At the personnel level, attaining formal qualification in adult education is becoming more difficult, costly and increasingly irrelevant in terms of demand in the labour market.

The policy emphasises national integration and cultural preservation aside from economic (economic growth) and social aspects (social justice and equality) (Ministry of Human Resource and Development, 2020). The emphasis is on teaching rather than learning, and even though the policy mentions learning, the teacher is understood as one of the core elements in education (Ministry of Human Resource and Development, 2020). This does not create space for the professionalisation of adult educators with the existing approach in policy. Regarding the unregulated voluntary sector and private sector, the non-formal programmes (which do not provide formally recognised degrees or certifications) are tailored to the need of the organisation and usually executed by senior-level employees who are professionals usually in the field in which they teach. Further, given the huge unorganised labour market, where low-skilled, low-paid jobs predominate, highly sophisticated content is not a priority in adult education. Although reaching out to large numbers with limited resources can be a major opportunity for professionalisation, the overall policy approach in favour of volunteerism (where returns on professionalisation are limited) and value-based education (not necessarily shared by professional adult educators) hinders the process of professionalisation.

Colombia

Colombia is a fast growing upper-middle income economy (WorldBank, 2019) and an OECD member state since 2020; it has a policy of compulsory education and, therefore, a high literacy rate of about 95 per cent (The World Bank Group, 2020). In the last few decades, Colombia has gone through a “silent” educational revolution (OECD, 2016a). The current Colombian policy divides the mainstream education system into four stages: early childhood education (0–6 years), basic education (7–14 years), intermediate education (15–16 years), and higher education (17+ years) (OECD, 2016b). Higher education institutions generally offer two types of programmes: (1) academic programmes, which award a bachelor’s degree, and (2) technical or technological programmes, which award a technical or technological degree. The latter can also be considered a type of adult education.

The academic programmes, or four-year bachelor’s programmes, are offered by universities to prepare people for professional, or white-collar, jobs. The adult education programmes are offered by technological and technical institutions (two- or three-year vocational and technical programmes) to prepare people for technical or vocational jobs, also known as blue-collar jobs. Their objective is to ensure the employability of the population and the availability of adequate human resources with the required skills. Apart from that, the other category of adult education programmes, which are not part of higher education, are literacy programmes; they are meant for those who have remained non-literate or are school drop-outs. The proportion of such people is very low (only about 5 per cent of the country’s population), but the state tries to bring them into the mainstream through the formal literacy programmes. In fact, as cited in the 3rd GRALE Report published by the UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning in 2016, the current national development plan (2014–2018) attempts to eradicate illiteracy from Colombia; more specifically, it seeks to lower the illiteracy rate from 5.6 percent to 3.9 percent.

Regarding adult education, two types of educational offers can be categorised as such in Colombia: (1) technical and vocational educational programmes preparing people for traditionally working-class or blue-collar occupations, and (2) literacy programmes for school dropouts. Both offers are formal. After Colombia adopted a new constitution in 1991, all types of education were gradually formalised, and the government tried to ensure literacy for as many Colombians as possible. Non-formal education, therefore, was phased out.

In all kinds of educational programmes, including adult education programmes, educators need a bachelor’s degree for teaching in their respective field.

If specific skills are needed to teach a particular target group, they are provided through trainings and a required knowledge base by the institutions that offer such specialised programmes. Usually, such trainings for educators are paid for by the provider institutions. There are no general courses to become an adult educator. Despite the fact that all teachers are required to have a certification as a teacher or educator, it is not specifically mentioned that educators for adults and educators for children should have different qualifications. Their specialisation is in the field rather than in relation to the target groups they teach. Since those who teach adults teach a wide variety of subjects, they identify themselves more as certified in those fields rather than as adult educators.

The institutions which provide all sorts of educational offerings have the freedom to choose the requirements for the staff they want to hire. This is a part of the autonomous power granted by the Colombian Constitution of 1991 and the Law of Higher Education (1992), which mandate that these institutions operate under the principle of academic freedom. The law also grants faculty members freedom of teaching and research. In terms of quality, these institutions are obligated to follow the quality assurance guidelines laid down by the National Ministry of Education through the Law of Higher Education (1992).

The Colombian policy on adult education, thus does not explicitly mention the professionalisation of adult educators. Although there are provisions for the training of adult educators, it is neither obligatory nor necessary that such training be provided. In this way, the policies in Colombia do not touch upon the question of professionalising adult educators at all. In that sense, it can be said that the policy is indifferent towards professionalisation in adult education. However, it provides enough space and autonomy to providers of education, creating opportunities for the professionalisation of adult education in case it is needed.

Denmark

Denmark is a Nordic, high-income OECD member country with a 99 per cent literacy rate. Education for adults in Denmark was made completely formal in 2017. It applies to all types of educational offers for the adult population. Policies in Denmark no longer have provisions regarding professionalisation in adult education. However, this does not mean that professionalisation has never been meaningful in the Danish context. A chronological mapping of the policies in Denmark shows how the demand for andragogy and professionalisation in adult education appeared and vanished with contextual changes. Since the Nordic countries work in coordination with each other through the Nordic Council (a

council of parliamentary members of all Nordic countries since 1955) and the Nordic Council of Ministers (a regional organisation of all Nordic countries since 1973), Danish policies regarding professionalisation had linkages to the policies of other Nordic countries, especially Sweden and Norway. Whereas the Danish and Norwegian approaches towards adult education have been predominantly non-formal, the Swedish approach has been rather formal. The evolution and decline of professionalisation of adult education in Denmark can be broadly divided into five different phases, based on the nature of activities, events and the relation of policies to professionalisation. References to relevant policies from Nordic countries and the Nordic Council of Ministers and events have been made wherever necessary to understand the Danish context.

Phase I: Adult education policies in the contemporary sense mentioned adult education for the first time in 1814. The royal regulations for primary schooling of 1814 extended the right to basic education to youth and adults. Consequently, non-formal evening classes began in public schools for adults, with school teachers teaching both youth and adults (Ehlers, 2009).

Phase II: Since 1849, the first Danish Constitution has given its citizens the right to establish associations. Consequently, a number of associations sprang up to provide education for youth and adults. The activities, however, remained non-formal and did not receive any funding from the state. Although the state gradually contributed to organising adult education initiatives beginning in 1895, there was no funding provided by the state for any kind of training or professionalisation for adult educators (Ehlers, 2009).

Apart from these associations, folk high schools for youth and adults (boarding schools) also provided non-formal education offerings. They were partly funded by the state and had the right to hire educators without any professional or even formal education. The philosophy of adult education initiatives in that period was influenced by Grundtvig's⁶ ideas, which emphasised freedom in educational affairs and favoured non-formal and informal approaches to adult education.

Phase III: The post-World War II period was characterised by more ambitious educational associations at both local and national level. These publicly-funded associations offered adult education courses in non-traditional subjects. Thus, traditionally and formally trained adult educators had no place. Despite public funding, these associations were politically motivated in most cases; hence the staff they hired was rather political. Apart from that, skills that enabled people to perform simpler tasks such as sewing and food processing did not require a

⁶ A famous Danish philosopher, politician and social reformer who played a crucial role in shaping non-formal education in Denmark (1783–1872).

very high level of professional education and formal degrees and were imparted by part-time educators who had practical experience or skills rather than an andragogical background or special training to educate adults. The regulations regarding adult education were revised by the Danish Parliament in 1948, 1954 and 1960 (Ehlers, 2009), but the provisions in relation to professionalisation did not change.

In 1958, the first textbook about andragogy, and hence a relevant publication in relation to the professional behaviour of adult educators, was published in Sweden and Denmark. Research-based publications in Norway and Sweden followed (Ehlers, 2019). In 1961, the Nordic Council recommended that a Nordic institution for developing andragogy and conducting training programmes for adult educators be established (Nordisk Råd, 1961). In 1963, the Nordic Cultural Commission published a study about Nordic Cooperation in the field of adult education (Nordisk Kulturkommission, 1963).

Phase IV: The issue of professionalising adult educators in Nordic Countries was discussed in Oslo at a Nordic Conference in 1965, and references were made to the existing research and empirical data in the field. The Conference was followed by the establishment of the Nordic Folk Academy in 1966 in Sweden (Ehlers, 2009). The efforts for the professionalisation of adult education by Nordic countries were not limited to the Nordic region but extended to Europe. Policy papers released by the Council of Europe in relation to the professionalisation of adult education were written by Nordic experts in the field during that period (for instance, see Jessup, 1966)

In Denmark, the government published recommendations and regulations regarding a non-formal training programme for adult educators (along with a curriculum for the same) as part of its policy on adult education in 1965. Following the Swedish and Finnish model of professorships in adult education, the Danish government argued for a professorship in andragogy (Undervisningsministeriet, 1965). In 1968, the Danish government introduced the Act on Leisure Education for Adults. As a result, a wide variety of non-formal education offers funded by municipalities were provided. In 1970, Denmark established a professorship in andragogy (Ehlers, 2009). In 1973, a Nordic Conference regarding the development of andragogy was organised (Direktoratet for Ungdomsundervisning, 1973). Thus, the developments towards professionalisation in Denmark benefitted from favourable policies and research not only within the country but rather throughout the Nordic region.

In 1970, a merger in Danish municipalities and counties resulted in an increase in public support for non-formal education. In order to follow-up with the adult education initiatives, the Danish government appointed consultants

(unlike inspectors in Sweden) at the national and county level along with local advisory councils at the municipal level. They were appointed to support adult education initiatives and had primarily non-formal education backgrounds. The county consultants and national educational associations organised state-funded, voluntary, non-formal training programmes with competitive offers for adult educators. The public consultants for adult education were abolished in 1990 because their mission was accomplished (Ehlers, 2009).

Within a decade (1972–82), non-formal education in Denmark developed into a sector. Following the UNESCO World Conference on Adult Education in Tokyo in 1972, the Danish Ministry of Education established several national-sector councils in 1973 to cover all areas of education. Further, a Directorate for *Folkeoplysning* (non-formal education) was established in 1982 (Ehlers, 2009).

Phase V: In 1984, the Danish Parliament asserted that the real-world competencies of adult educators in relation to their field and pedagogy were to be given more weight than their formal qualification (10 Point Programme for *Voksenundervisning og Folkeoplysning*).

The Development Centre, a state-funded national institution for the innovation and development of formal and non-formal education of adults was established in 1985. In 1988, 1990 and 1998, the Parliament introduced policy changes and replaced the term Leisure Education with the broader term *Folkeoplysning* (non-formal learning). It augmented the freedom of local providers in relation to the professionalisation of adult educators and, in contrast, reduced the influence of the Directorate for *Folkeoplysning*. In 1990, a union of adult educators was established, but it did not focus on the issue of professionalisation (Kandrup, 2013).

In 1995, the Ministry of Education dropped the focus on non-formal education and argued in favour of formal part-time offers for adults with labour market experience (Undervisningsministeriet, 1995). The educators in the formal sector were already following guidelines in relation to professionalisation, which is probably why no reference to the same was made in the document.

Phase VI: In 2000, the Danish Parliament adopted the Further Education System. In 2002, the funding for *Folkeoplysning* was reduced (Kandrup, 2013), the Directorate for *Folkeoplysning* was abolished, and the Development Centre was closed. The policy of having a special sector for the non-formal education of adults was given up as well. In 2004, the Nordic Folk Academy in Gothenburg was closed by the Nordic Council of Ministers (Ehlers, 2009).

In 2005, social partners⁷ were invited to discuss a strategy of globalisation, including discussions about various sectors of education. Neither professional-

⁷ Social partners include employers and unions.

sation in adult education nor in andragogy was proposed by the social partners despite detailed discussions about education for adults (Regeringen, 2006). In 2010, the Parliament narrowed down the scope of non-formal education, and in 2011, moved it from the Ministry of Education to the Ministry of Culture (Kandrup, 2013).

Over a decade (2007–17), the social partners and the government planned, adopted, and implemented fundamental changes in the education of adults and decided to make it completely formal in 2017 (Rasmussen et al. 2019).

A mapping of policies in Denmark thus shows that the formalisation of education (including the move from non-formal to formal adult education) reduced the possibility for the professionalisation of adult education in Denmark. Since professional standards already existed for all educators in the formal education sector (not specific to adult educators), the question of specific professionalisation in adult education is no longer debated in Denmark anymore. Further, the needs of adults (target groups) are so specific that it is extremely difficult and not necessarily rewarding to develop professional standards in adult education.

Analysis of Cases and Comparison

In all three cases, the absence of professionalisation in adult education (in relation to both educators and the field) is a consequence of different contextual factors. In the case of Denmark, the need for professionalisation faded away as the focus of education policy moved from teachers (or adult educators) to learners. With the adoption of lifelong learning and learning outcomes, what matters is the outcome in terms of learning rather than the educators, their working conditions, their offerings, or the distinctiveness of their contribution. The same applies to adult learning outside the policy purview in India in the private and the voluntary sector and in Colombia. While both Denmark and Colombia have professional standards for educators in general, providers are free to decide upon the kind of professionalisation they need for the educators. As a norm in Colombia, all educators need to have a professional teaching degree in the subject they teach irrespective of the target groups (children, adults etc.) they teach. In Denmark, owing to the tradition of non-formal education of adults, there are no formal barriers to becoming adult educators. In the case of India, no such requirements exist. In India, adult education is so narrowly included in the education policy that a huge part of adult learning is left out and, thereby, cannot be regulated in favour of professional standards. In any case, the approach of the policy is not in favour of professionalisation.

In all three cases, it is evident that adult education is not acknowledged as unique or special, the contribution of adult educators not as distinctive, and the knowledge base for the discipline/andragogy not as specific. Adult learners do not come together in a programme like children belonging to an age cohort but rather with a subject-specific interest or need. Likewise, each subject has to be delivered in a specific manner in most cases. Therefore, the costs of professionalisation, especially in adult education and learning, do not seem to be rewarding. In most cases, a specific identity as an adult educator does not matter, and professionals in other fields are generally preferred because of their subject-specific professionalisation. A double professionalisation (professionalisation in a subject as well as in teaching it to adults) is neither cost-effective, required, or necessarily rewarding in relation to the investments made, especially when individuals need to bear the costs, for instance, in India. Adult education programmes are not compulsory like school education, where educators might benefit from dual professionalisation.

The development of artificial intelligence for education and self-directed learning platforms have diminished the relevance of adult educators and weakened the claims for professionalisation. The effectiveness and quality of educational offers depends upon learning outcomes. Thus, professionalisation might be one quality indicator of how effective and efficient the teaching of adults can be, but it may not necessarily fit into every context.

Discussion

It is evident from the three cases that national policies do not support the specific professionalisation of adult education or of adult educators in India, Colombia and Denmark. In the case of Colombia, all educators need to have a professional degree in what they teach (content) as well as in teaching, irrespective of the target group they teach. There is nothing specific for adult educators. Colombia is in fact even more standardised than Denmark, where the Danish tradition of non-formal adult education has been strong and rooted in the social reformist tradition.

In the case of Denmark, there was a demand for professionalisation during a certain period of time, but it was given up due the transition from adult education (education as a social policy) to lifelong learning (education as an economic policy). At present, when Denmark has a very high rate of participation of adults in adult learning programmes, the role of the adult educator is limited to a facilitator, with the learner in the primary role. Most policies and programmes

are oriented towards learning outcomes, which is why the role of the teacher is mitigated in relation to how the policies measure effectiveness of education in a given context (Ehlers, 2019; Singh & Ehlers, 2020). Further, the facilitator tends to be a professional in a different field, making double professionalisation seem costly, irrelevant and out of the question. The choices of adult learners regarding their learning pathways are so wide that any standardisation of teaching methods has also become difficult and unrewarding. Given that adults need to be on the labour market as much as possible, learning, although rewarding, has to be confined to short periods and focus on content and self-directed learning. Adult educators might get opportunities for facilitation and content design (rather than preparation), but this is usually done without hiring a costly professional. A similar logic applies in Colombia, where training programmes are designed and offered by the providers, which are free to choose whether or not to train educators.

In the case of India, adult learning programmes outside the purview of national policy have limited scope for professionalisation because those who facilitate in such programmes are usually professionals in other fields. The scope for professional adult educators cannot be denied, but professionalisation in other fields is both necessary and more rewarding for educators. The private and the voluntary sectors are not bound to hire professional educators, and when they can do without, they would prefer doing so to reduce costs. Despite the fact that professionalisation indicates quality, it is clear in cases like India that quantity is the priority.

In cases like Colombia and Denmark, the standard quality parameters apply to all kinds of teaching. In both cases, the formalisation of all education played a major role in standardised regulations, and no specific professionalisation needs for adult educators were defined. In the case of India, policy favours volunteerism rather than professional behaviour. To merge the two is difficult, because the costs of professionalisation must usually be borne by the individual, but the returns are negligible in terms of monetary benefits. At universities and some other institutions that are expected to hire professionals, the standards are similar for all educators, making professionalisation in adult education unnecessary. Further, most adult educators do not necessarily need to deliver any distinctive product built upon a special knowledge base (especially drawn upon andragogy). It might not be appropriate to call the volunteer training programme professionalisation, because it does not meet most criteria. There are no specific qualifications, selection methods, formal professional degrees based on a specific body of knowledge, distinctive products, or restrictions for others to teach as adult educators. The earlier programmes also failed to meet the standards but were a way forward. In other words, the opportunity was missed, and now that

adult learning occurs outside the purview of policies, policy regulations are not desired because the space is already occupied, and alternative ways have been found. In India at least, it is time for redefining the work adult educators need to do and reflect about what kind of professionalisation is really needed now. Neither is there any measurement whatsoever of what is delivered. Even though professionalisation involves several characteristics, the production of a distinctive product seems to be one of the most important ones. It can attract funding, create a space for professionalisation and ensure survival in a competitive environment. At the individual level, there are limited options for professionalisation; it has to be financed largely by the individual (adult educators), it does not have much monetary benefits, and hence returns on investment are very low. At the organisational level, departments that provide specialised degrees are being closed, the quality of research is poor, and resources are limited. It is neither a priority for governments nor a priority for providers. At the societal level, there is a need for both adult education and professionalisation to design effective and efficient outreach programmes, but the stakeholders have limited influence on policy and the learners usually get adult education as a free benefit, which is why they cannot complain. With limited resources, they are bound to accept whatever they get.

The move from the socio-economic back to the cultural-social paradigm in India marks the move away from professionalisation and towards social-reformist, traditional adult education. Offering courses in the discipline of adult education or andragogy might be just one factor, but other factors like market demand, availability a distinctive product only on the basis of adult education and others challenge the professionalisation process.

Although the question of whether professionalisation should be pursued seems quite redundant in the literature, it is still very relevant in policies.

The *multilevel perspective on the professionalisation of adult and continuing education* (Egetenmeyer et al. 2018) facilitated the analysis and explained the interrelationship between different factors quite well. It is important to note that the interdependencies between different levels are embedded in a certain policy framework in each context, and that framework defines the nature of interdependencies and their extent. Thus, apart from analysing the interdependencies, it is fruitful to also analyse the policy framework. Each interdependency might lead to many possibilities, but these policies can be determined and defined by the policy framework in most cases. The logic of professionalisation seems different from the logic of the social reformist tradition. The difference was clearly reflected in the UNESCO World Conferences on Education in 1960 (predominated by the social reformist tradition and actors from the voluntary sector) and 1972 (predominated by the professional tradition, primarily bureaucrats educated in law) (Knoll, 2007). Pro-

fessionalisation may challenge the possibility for one kind of value-based education or political propaganda inherent in the social-reformist tradition, but it might lead to another kind of value-based education or political propaganda. Therefore, the policy framework in which the policy is embedded is an important factor.

If policy makers leave professionalisation unregulated, it is difficult to get a balance, so political support is needed. Otherwise, researchers and adult educators need to make adult education attractive, or in other words, align it more with the market to show how many returns we can get. Professionalisation does not fit into the sustainability picture with the existing arguments.

The integration of all educational provisions and the non-existence of adult education as an educational sector leads to a decline in the scope for professionalisation. In such contexts, standardised norms for all educators based on what they teach (content) rather than who they teach are developed. The difference between formal and non-formal education of adults is that formal education is based on standardisation in relation to the content (the subject). It is difficult for the voluntary sector to deliver a standardised yet distinctive product.

Professionalisation can be a quality parameter but in many contexts, it is not necessarily desired because of the costs and contextual factors. In the context of lifelong learning (which places the learner and learning, irrespective of how and where it is done, at the centre of everything), carving out a role for adult educators and getting this funded appears to be only partially sustainable (not rewarding enough as compared to the investments made on it). Focussing on the individual needs of the learner is necessary if adult education programmes are to survive in the market, but at the same time, it leaves too little space for professionalisation and even andragogy to be standardised. When it comes to professionalising the education of adults with more regulations and provisions, the situation does not seem promising because of the trend towards standardisation, further integration of education with the labour market, growing individualisation in the needs of adult learners, and the centrality of learners rather than educators in the whole education process.

Conclusion

Policies are important to promote professionalisation, and professionalisation needs to be supported with regulations and resources. Offering a distinctive product based on special knowledge and maintaining the monopoly to create and deliver it are the most relevant criteria for professionalisation. The product should be convincing enough for individuals, providers and policy makers to fund it.

Further, when the policy does not regulate, it becomes difficult to fund and ensure the availability of resources for professionalisation. When policies are not regulating, it has to be attractive for the market and the voluntary sectors by showing how it can increase productivity and contribute to their output. Without a clear distinctive contribution, professionalisation is not possible.

Despite all odds, professionalisation seems to be necessary for ensuring effective and efficient education and learning for adults. If adult education is to be used as political propaganda, professionalisation may or may not help. It might distance the educators from propaganda in favour of a certain value system, but at the same time, it may also enable adult educators to promote political aims in a more lethal and organised manner. Standardisation on the one hand, might help to facilitate learning, but on the other hand, it might lead to the creation of barriers for education or pathways for their exclusion from the mainstream.

With the integration of various sectors across qualification frameworks (from childhood to adult learning) and settings (formal, non-formal and informal), the shift of focus from teaching to learning (and learning outcomes), and the dissolution of adult education as a sector, and the occurrence of a major part of adult learning outside the purview of policies, the opportunities for professionalisation in adult education appear bleak unless it manages to offer, market and get acknowledged its output as a distinctive product, for which there is demand in the market and interest from policy makers so that they are convinced enough to invest in it.

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Politike za profesionalizaciju učenja i obrazovanja odraslih: uporedna studija iz Indije, Kolumbije i Danske¹¹

Apstrakt: U ovom radu se razmatra uloga politika u podstrekivanju ili usporavanju profesionalizacije u obrazovanju odraslih u različitim kontekstima. U radu se izvode generalizacije zasnovane na tri studije slučaja u Indiji, Kolumbiji i Danskoj, gde je profesionalizacija obrazovanja odraslih zanemarljiva. Metodologija obuhvata studiju slučaja, analizu politika i uporednu perspektivu. Zaključak je da je profesionalizacija obrazovanja odraslih manje zastupljena tokom celoživotnog učenja jer se fokus politika preusmerio na ishode učenja, a odmakao od samih edukatora. Akteri koji se zalažu za profesionalizaciju obrazovanja i učenja odraslih stoga moraju da osiguraju razvoj raznovrsnih i priznatih ponuda i da stvore adekvatno tržište za njih kako bi ubedili kreatore politike da ulažu u njega.

Ključne reči: profesionalizacija, standardizacija obrazovanja odraslih, andragogija, politika, celoživotno učenje.

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Professionalisation Through Further Education? An International Comparison of Non-formal Education Programmes for Adult Educators

Abstract: Professionalism is a core topic in international discourse on adult education. Its importance is due not least to the need for professional self-assurance given the heterogeneity of the field of adult education, which is characterised not only by a wide range of working conditions, employment forms and responsibilities but also by the different qualifications and professional backgrounds of adult educators. Therefore, further education programmes for adult educators could be one important pillar in the professionalisation of adult education. At the same time, however, heterogeneous personnel structures make the seemingly simple question of further education for adult educators increasingly complex. While at the international level there is particular emphasis on professionalisation by means of academic degree programmes, the focus of the present paper is on

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non-formal further education for adult educators. It compares similarities and differences using country-specific examples of non-formal further education programmes for adult educators and seeks to explain them. The results are obtained using an international comparative research methodology. The cases (non-formal programmes) from Latvia, Brazil, Germany and Nigeria are examined by focusing on their target groups, structures, content and aims. The degree to which they are embedded in specific organisational and institutional structures and (national) policies also plays a role. The starting point for a critical reflection is the question: How can non-formal further education programmes contribute to the individual professionalisation of adult educators?

Key words: professionalisation, non-formal programmes, further education, adult educators, international comparison.

Introduction

The education of professionals plays a vital role in professionalisation. Since professionalisation has always been closely connected to academisation, debates on the professionalisation of adult education have also focused on the initial academic education of adult educators. In fact, today we can find many study programmes on adult education or at least general study programmes in educational sciences with a specialisation in adult education. At the same time, however, adult education is still a relatively open field in which people with very different disciplinary and professional backgrounds are active. Therefore, the systematic continuing education of professionals in adult education is of utmost importance. Since this form of professionalisation of adult educators has not been the focus of professionalisation research for a long time, the importance of continuing professional education and development (CPED) for professionalisation has been increasingly highlighted both by professional practice and academic research over the past decades.

In this article, we would like to focus precisely on this path of professionalisation of adult educators and examine forms of non-formal further education in an international comparative study. Using selected examples of good practice from Latvia, Brazil, Germany and Nigeria, we will examine the forms in which such offers of professionalisation could be institutionalised. In each case, we will identify the aims, target groups and key content of these programmes and, by means of a transnational comparison, determine their role in the respective country-specific system of adult education.

To this end, we will first examine the extent to which such further training programmes can be understood as professionalisation phenomena and classified in terms of professional theory, and we will develop comparative categories. The methodological procedure of the present transnational comparative study is de-

scribed in the third section, which presents the basics of transnational comparative research and describes the specific data and analytical approaches used. In the fourth section, the four programmes under investigation are juxtaposed and compared according to the previously developed criteria of comparison. This allows for differences and similarities to be identified and, more importantly, interpreted in the fifth section. Finally, we will summarise the key results of the study, draw a conclusion and derive further research needs.

Theoretical Background

According to the traditional definition of a profession, one of the less controversial characteristics of a profession is its extensive scientific knowledge base. Professional practice relies on 'a body of knowledge and skill which is officially recognised as one based on abstract concepts and theories and requiring the exercise of considerable discretion' (Freidson, 2001, p. 180). Strong ties between universities and the professions have developed throughout their common history since the Middle Ages (Stichweh, 1994), which not only enable the mutual exchange and joint production of knowledge but also the regulation of the training of students, both in terms of content and access. As the production, application and transfer of knowledge go hand in hand, in traditional professions even the same person might occupy leading positions in both the professional and academic field (e.g. a chief medical officer at a hospital who also holds a professorship at a medical faculty).

Professionalisation, in the sense of achieving social recognition for a given profession, has usually focused on the academisation of vocational knowledge and training. In the case of adult education, while its roots as a field of study go back much further, an increasing number of degree programmes at universities developed in many Western countries especially in the middle of the 20th century (Rubenson, 2010; Seitter, 2007). Subsequently, research on the professionalisation of adult education also focused initially on academisation and particularly the academic education of adult educators. But it can be argued that there are major processes of social change occurring in society in general and in academia, the occupational system and adult education in particular (Schwarz, 2016) that make such a limitation unproductive. It is thus important not to limit the examination of the knowledge base of professional practice to clearly delineated and disciplinarily justified bodies of knowledge that are imparted to students within the framework of a comprehensive course of study and instead to focus in particular on professionalisation through continuing professional education and development (CPED).

This is particularly important if we assume that adult education cannot be understood as a profession in the classical sense. For example, there has never been a monopolisation of professional activity in adult education. Rather, this professional field is characterised precisely by the diversity of those working in it. The difference in professional expertise, especially of the teaching staff, is also an essential basis for the quality of adult education programmes. This makes it all the more important to examine the question of the educational foundations on which professional practice is undertaken. Such a shift in focus from the body of knowledge of an adult education profession as a social entity to a base of knowledge and skills underlying professional conduct can be theoretically embedded within the perspective of a ‘new professionalism’ (Egetenmeyer, Breitschwerdt, & Lechner, 2019; Evetts, 2011). This approach not only acknowledges the complex structures, interdisciplinarity and multi-sourced base of knowledge but also emphasises the important role of organisations in the regulation of professional practice. Especially in the context of managerial transformation, organisations – that is, the adult education providers – have developed their own mechanisms that shape professional conduct. Quality, for example, is no longer perceived (only) as an issue of professionalisation but is addressed by systems of quality management and connected to strategic personnel management and development. On this basis, adult education providers as organisations play a significant role in defining the aims and measures of CPED for its professionals.

In addition to the academic paths of professionalisation, there are also a number of non-academic paths. This includes participation in informal education for adult educators. They don’t follow a uniform professionalisation strategy but form a complex field of possibilities for individual professional development, possibilities that are very heterogeneous and, in their various forms, rarely related to one another, meaning we cannot speak of a uniform professionalisation strategy for adult educators. Non-formal education opportunities have a special place in this discussion and range from biographical and mainly informal learning opportunities to organised forms of further education. In the paper at hand, we will focus our examination on the latter by examining forms of non-academic professionalisation through further education, which we can systematically classify as non-formal education. According to Eurostat, these include ‘any organised and sustained learning activities outside the formal education system’, for example non-formal programmes, courses and guided on-the-job training (Eurostat, 2016). There are various certification models and procedures for acquiring new knowledge and certifying existing skills (Müller-Naevecke, 2019, p. 69). Aspiring adult educators can take part in educational programmes as early as during their studies or doctoral studies. The Adult Education Academy in Würzburg is

a prime example of a programme that is based on a worldwide network of adult education students with practitioners from the field (Julius-Maximilian University Würzburg, 2020). A programme that targets adult educators at the beginning of their professional career is the ‘Younger staff training’ offered by the European Association for the Education of Adults, which operates on the European level (European Association for the Education of Adults, 2020). In the sense of life-long learning, the aim would be to establish continuous further training along the entire career path of the adult educator.

This raises the question of which concept of professionalisation is realised by non-formal further education programmes for adult educators and how this is connected to the institutional context in which they are embedded. We will address this research question based on a comparative research approach by examining examples of such CPED programmes in four national contexts. In describing aims, target groups and content of the programmes, we can highlight commonalities and differences and relate them to different concepts of professionalisation. For a comparative analysis, it is vital to consider these programmes in their institutional contexts, which include country-specific structures of adult education on the one hand and specific organisational embeddedness on the other. In the next section, we will describe how our research methodology departs from these comparative categories.

Methodology

The theoretical perspectives on the professionalisation of adult educators developed above of course have consequences for its empirical examination. When we conceive of professionalism and of the structures and practices of professionalisation in adult education as social phenomena that developed over a long period of time, it becomes apparent that – just like other socio-historically developed structures – they tend to be perceived as ‘normal’ or even ‘natural’ (cf. Bourdieu, 1977). There is no better way than a transnational comparative research approach to remind us of the fact that everything could be completely different – and that it actually is different in other places in the world (Reischmann, 2008).

Our comparative research on professionalisation through further education started in the 2020 INTALL Würzburg Winter School (Egetenmeyer, 2017), where we undertook comparative group work on professionalisation through further education in a larger group of students and researchers. While we had the chance to clarify some of our theoretical concepts and categories for comparison, we had to focus the further analysis on selected cases from Latvia, Brazil, Germany and Nigeria. These four cases were chosen following a sampling strategy

that strives for the ‘simultaneous maximisation or minimisation of both the differences and the similarities of data that bear on the categories being studied’ (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p. 55). We selected cases from two European and two non-European countries, with the European countries Latvia and Germany having a very different history and being rooted in the ‘Western’ and ‘Eastern’ European tradition, respectively. Although Brazil and Nigeria share a postcolonial identity, they differ not only in their cultural traditions but also in their current socio-economic structures. All four countries occupy different ranks in the Human Development Index (<http://hdr.undp.org/en/2019-report>). A contrastive comparison was also relevant in choosing the programmes analysed.

The data basis used was mainly found in scientific publications, policy papers and empirical reports. In addition, some data on the country context, especially information on the programmes examined, was crucial. For this purpose, in most cases we used online documents and websites. Additionally, it was highly relevant to compare authors from each country, not only because they were able to contribute their knowledge of and experience with the respective national system of adult education, but also because some of the data used was only available in the countries’ native language. Below, we will first describe the aims, target groups, structure and content of each programme as well as its country-specific context. Only after juxtapositioning all of the cases can we discuss commonalities and differences and interpret the findings.

First-aid Instructor Education in Latvia

Country-specific context

As can be seen in the 2018 overview provided by the European Association for the Education of Adults, the promotion of adult education in Latvia remains a challenge due to relatively little public awareness of learning opportunities. In previous years, the Latvian government aimed to implement a national adult education governance structure to meet European and international targets and goals such as the Sustainable Development Goals. As part of the plan for the implementation of adult education governance, two recruitment stages of adult education course providers and learners were carried out. Courses and training programmes proposed by employers and other stakeholders underwent an approval process through the adult education governance committee. Furthermore, the Latvian Ministry of Education is working on implementing the EU’s Upskilling Pathways Strategy (EAEA, 2018).

The widely cited Belém framework for action (UIL, 2010) makes it clear: ‘Quality in learning and education is a holistic, multidimensional concept and practice and demands constant attention and continuous development.’ (UIL, 2010, p. 8) It requires ‘relevant content and modes of delivery, learner-centred needs assessment, the acquisition of multiple competences and knowledge, the professionalisation of educators, the enrichment of learning environments and the empowerment of individuals and communities’ (UIL, 2010, pp. 8–9). However, within Latvian policy and legislation, there is no reference to the professionalisation of adult educators. Although there is a general statement aiming at the quality of adult education in national documents, it lacks a focus on adult educators.

In terms of national-level developments regarding the quality of adult education, the UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning publication – known as GRALE 4 – should be consulted (UIL, 2019). This also refers to statements in previous publications: ‘GRALE 2 furthered thinking about quality by looking at four features of ALE provision: (...) Training, employment conditions and professionalisation: Member States acknowledged the importance of training and continuing professional development of ALE teachers. (...) GRALE 3 reiterated and built on this understanding by closely tracking: Inputs to improving teaching methodologies. – Pre-service education and training programmes for ALE teachers. – Requirement of initial qualifications for teaching in ALE programmes. – Continuing in-service education and training for ALE teachers. – Inputs to improving teacher training, employment conditions, professionalisation. – Pre-service education and training programmes for ALE teachers. – Requirement of initial qualifications for teaching in ALE programmes. – Continuing in-service education and training for ALE teachers.’ (UIL, 2019, p. 62)

Although there is a national high-level policy paper on adult education, this rarely results in national-level public funding for adult education. There is also the European Social Fund for adult education (mainly 80% ESF funding and 20% self-funding), though this requires evidence of economic necessity; hard-skills education receives much more support than soft-skills education. Non-formal adult education programmes are very heterogeneous with a great diversity of topics. Programmes are mainly provided by for-profit companies. The political focus is on economics rather than learner needs.

An important national-level context must be taken into account. There are no legal requirements regarding certification or special qualifications for becoming an adult educator in a non-formal education setting in Latvia. Only teachers working in formal education settings such as preschool, primary and secondary education or lower-level vocational education are required to hold a degree in

educational science. As there are few cases of adult learners entering secondary or lower-level vocational institutions, teachers are generally only prepared to teach children, teenagers and youngsters, but not adults. The teaching qualifications of a university teacher are evaluated by the faculty or by a board of professors. Even education law states: 'A person who has a pedagogical education or who is acquiring a pedagogical education which complies with the professional qualification requirements set by the government has the right to work as a teacher. *These requirements shall not apply to non-formal adult education.*' (Article 48, Education Law of Latvia, emphasis added)

Case description

Due to the lack of an overall framework of legal requirements for adult educators, there are specific requirements for those wishing to teach first aid. There is only one government institution, the State Emergency Medical Services, which is delegated to teach and to certificate first aid educators.

There are some prerequisites to participate in the programme: you have to be at least 18 years old and have at least a secondary education. The programme for educators lasts 68 hours (theoretical (T) 32 hours, practical (P) 36 hours), and the first 10 topics in the programme focus on education:

- Learning and memory: main learning theories; memory explained – 2 hours T
- Information processing and learning motivation – 2 hours T
- Teacher 'factor' in the learning process. Student 'factor' in learning process – 2 hours T
- Choosing teaching materials. Planning teaching – 1 hour T, 2 hours P
- Different teaching / learning forms – 1 hour T, 2 hours P
- Conversation as a tool – 1 hour T, 2 hours P
- Skills training. Involving students in skills training – 1 hour T, 2 hours P
- Effectiveness of teaching and learning – 1 hour T, 2 hours P
- Presentation techniques and tools. Learning environment – 1 hour T, 1 hour P
- Rhetoric, speech, non-verbal communication – 2 hours T

Thus, 25 out of 68 hours are devoted to education rather than the specifics of first aid. After the course, a candidate should acquire practical experience under the supervision of a certified first-aid teacher for 90 hours. Only then will the candidate be eligible for examination. The examination is 8 hours, including

a knowledge test and skills demonstration (first aid and pedagogy). Only those who have passed the exam are certified. Recertification is necessary every five years. In order to be recertified, first-aid teachers should prove that they have conducted a certain amount of first-aid training and provide evidence of their professional development as a first-aid teacher (a minimum of 8 hours a year).

Adult education in Latvia is not based on any legal requirements to obtain certification or a special qualification to become an adult educator in a non-formal education setting. One of the courses examined as part of this study is a special programme for first-aid educators, which includes 25 hours dedicated to teaching. However, this is rather the exception than general practice. Although there are some references to the quality of adult education in policy documents, the authors of the present paper are not aware of any efforts to implement solutions regarding the quality of adult educators, their skills or performance.

Adult Educator Education at Work in Brazil

Country-specific context

To begin with, it is necessary to highlight that in Brazil the concept of adult education refers entirely to the provision of schooling for young people and adults who did not have the opportunity to finish schooling at the usual age. Adult education focuses on literacy and education for inclusion, aiming to compensate for the individual's lack of schooling. Although there have been a number of major literacy programmes since the 1940s, adult education was only officially recognised as a specific educational field in 1996 in the 'Guidelines and Bases for National Education (LDB)'. Following this, a 'National Curricular Guideline for Youth and Adult Education' was signed in 2000. Between 2003 and 2016, a national policy on adult education was pursued by the 'Secretariat for Continuing Education, Literacy, Diversity and Inclusion (SECADI)', which was closed in 2019. This secretariat established many programmes, such as 'Brazil Literate', 'Proeja' (vocational training), 'National Programme on Text Books for Adult Education' and others.

In general, there are two major areas of professionalisation activity in adult education: working as a teacher in regular adult education (sometimes connected with vocational training) and working as a literacy educator in non-formal programmes. In the first case, a bachelor's degree in pedagogy or a specific teaching subject is required. However, there is no bachelor's degree in adult education, so most of these teachers are not aware of specific adult education issues. Thus,

non-formal further training is the most common way to achieve professionalisation. It is important to mention that, despite the requirement, 15 per cent of these adult educators do not have a college degree (Inep, 2019). This rate is the result of socioeconomic factors, inequality or poverty.

With regard to literacy programmes, no degree is usually required to be an adult educator – practical experience is considered more important. Nevertheless, because such programmes are not centralised but are instead provided by different organisations in different ways, sometimes informally, there is no national data on the degrees held by literacy educators. However, some information on the local context can be found. Santos and Oliveira (2017) analysed the profile of the 384 educators within the ‘Brazil literacy’ programme developed in the state of Bahia. They found that most of them (61%) have only a secondary education, 4 per cent have a lower education, 30 per cent have a bachelor’s degree and 3 per cent have specialised in other subjects. As no degree is required to work as a literacy educator, the programme focuses primarily on the initial and non-formal further education of the educators.

In this respect, the debates centre on both the formal higher education of adult educators and the non-formal qualification programmes for those who already work in adult education. Thus, the professionalisation of adult educators in Brazil is understood as two paths leading in the same direction: one way is to obtain a bachelor’s degree while the other is through adequate working conditions (i.e. better remuneration), which allow educators to dedicate themselves fully to their job. Indeed, both are related, since a qualification provides access to better working conditions.

Case description

We will also focus on a case of adult educators’ non-formal further education at work conducted by the Integrated Centre for Youth and Adult Education (Cieja). It was created between 2001 and 2004 in São Paulo city. This is a regular state school for young people and adults, offering literacy, basic and secondary education and with a focus on vocational training. It is provided to those who have not finished their schooling at the usual age. In this way, seeking an alternative to fast-paced education, Cieja proposes a new organisation of time, space and curriculum to take account of the needs of adult learners and to put into practice the idea of a popular education.

We examine a pluralistic timetable in which classes are distributed throughout the day in order to meet the students’ requirements. In addition, teachers also

have a 'special work week', with their timetable divided between teaching, preparing classes and joining collective further education sessions. This is the crucial point of Cieja's professionalisation proposal, since the teachers receive their salary not only to teach but also to take part in non-formal further education. Accordingly, it allows adult educators to undertake enough further education teaching to gain points for career advancement. Because of this, Cieja's philosophy is seen as a model for both an adult education curriculum and the professionalisation of adult educators.

There are 14 Cieja centres in São Paulo city, reaching 11,269 students. Each one has autonomy, a general coordinator as well as a specific pedagogical project. In this article, we focus on the centre located in the Campo Limpo neighbourhood, one of the most violent and socially vulnerable neighbourhoods in the city. Cieja Campo Limpo currently serves 1,600 students from the age of 15. We chose to analyse this centre because of its social and pedagogical role, involving the most active methodology, dialogue with the local community and the achievement of a systematic process of further education for adult educators.

Every adult educator within Cieja's structure must have a bachelor's degree and take part in the collective education session held every Friday for four hours – the 2018 report mentions 128 face-to-face further education hours during the year. The themes addressed are defined collectively in previous meetings between adult educators and the general coordinator, where they evaluate the previous year and discuss the demands of adult educators, national guidelines, the local community and students.

Although there are no guidelines for content, there are thematic frameworks governing the training process, for example the theoretical background of Cieja Campo Limpo, teaching students to read and write, the challenges of being young and poor, inclusion, the indigenous issue, maths education, pedagogical practice and the evaluation of adults within the schooling process.

This form of further education for adult educators is overseen either by the general coordinator or by invited experts and is based on the following methodological procedures: taking into account the everyday school environment; analysis of students' pedagogical tasks based on theoretical references; debates based on the meaningful experiences of educators.

The amount of time dedicated to each theme depends on the requirements of the adult educators as well as on specific class situations. As it is a large and heterogeneous team of adult educators, the group seeks to achieve a consensus regarding themes and time devoted to each subject. However, the decision of the majority prevails if a consensus is not achieved.

In addition to career advancement, non-formal further education of adult educators at Cieja intends to adjust teaching to suit the local context. The further education proposal is based on the concept of popular education and was inspired by the critical pedagogy of Paulo Freire. Thus, discussing professionalisation from the perspective of the Integrated Centre for Youth and Adult Education presupposes explicit commitment not only to pedagogical and professional aspects but also to meaningful changes in students' social contexts.

Basic Qualification in Adult Education in Germany

Country-specific context

If we look at the different paths leading to the professionalisation of adult education in Germany, we can see that professionalisation takes place in both academic and non-academic contexts. Wb-personalmonitor, which describes the situation of personnel based on quantitative surveys, makes it possible to examine these two approaches. Wb-personalmonitor is the result of a research project funded by the German Ministry of Education and Research, which was conducted in cooperation with the German Institute for Adult Education from 2 January 2013 to 31 October 2015.

Academic professionalisation refers to the completion of university studies. A total of 57.7 per cent of adult educators have a university degree or a degree from a university of applied sciences (Koscheck & Ohly, 2016, p. 110). It is important to note that these degrees are in a variety of subjects. Access to adult education jobs is possible with a degree in education or in a field not related to education. Among teachers in adult education, a degree in economics (13.2%) is the most common (Koscheck & Ohly, 2016, p. 119). A total of 33.4 per cent of adult educators have *non-academic qualifications*, that is, they have completed an apprenticeship or hold a master craftsman's diploma (Koscheck & Ohly, 2016, p. 110). Germany lacks uniform professionalisation strategies in this respect.

Discussions about the professionalisation of adult educators in Germany focus not only on academisation, but also on *further education*. Measures in this context are very heterogeneous. They bear little relation to one another and are rarely tailored to adult education. According to wb-personalmonitor, 77.7 per cent of adult educators surveyed had participated in professional or general further education in the past twelve months. The average time spent in such measures was 56 hours per year (Koscheck & Ohly, 2016, pp. 125ff). In her dissertation, Müller-Naevecke examined the participation of adult educators in

organised further education for the purpose of updating their knowledge. The dissertation made no distinction between formal and non-formal further education formats. Since they began teaching, 19.9 per cent of teachers had taken part in this type of organised further education on educational subjects several times a year, while 34.3 per cent had taken part on average once a year. Organised further education on subjects relating to a specific field – that is, to the content of teaching – was considered more important. A total of 66.7 per cent participated one or more times a year or on average once a year (Müller-Naevecke, 2019, p. 199).

Case description

A non-formal further education programme entitled ‘Basic Qualification in Adult Education’ offered by the adult education association of Baden-Württemberg (Volkshochschulverband Baden-Württemberg) was selected to illustrate the situation in Germany. The German institution of the Volkshochschule (VHS) is explained below.

With 894 adult education centres (2018), the VHS is Germany’s largest provider of further education to the general public. In 2018, a total of 637,701 courses were offered, covering a large variety of fields. Courses in health and languages were particularly popular (Lux, Reichart, & Huntemann, 2020, pp. 3ff). As an institution of adult education in Germany, the VHS sees itself as a further education institution for the general public. It is based on the idea that people can learn and want to learn and that education is a prerequisite for personal development and participation in society. In line with this principle, Volkshochschule students do not require formal school-leaving certificates or membership. VHS adult education centres are open to all social classes, all age groups, all nations and all kinds of needs (Süssmuth & Eisfeld, 2018, pp. 764ff). The German Adult Education Association (Deutscher Volkshochschul-Verband e. V. – DVV) is the umbrella organisation of all regional VHS associations in Germany. The DVV supports cooperation and the exchange of knowledge among its members, develops policies and guidelines and promotes the quality of adult education and international cooperation (Süssmuth & Eisfeld, 2018, p. 781). The association has sixteen regional associations representing the German states. One of them is the adult education association of Baden-Württemberg, which has 169 adult education centres and more than 660 branch offices (Volkshochschul-Verband Baden-Württemberg, 2020).

The non-formal further education programme ‘Basic Qualification in Adult Education’ is tailored to the target group of VHS teachers of all subject

areas employed at adult education centres. VHS statistics for 2018 show that this job is a secondary occupation for the majority of VHS staff, or they are freelancers. A total of 122,195 course teachers were female and 57,739 were male (Lux et al., 2020, p. 22). Teachers at adult education centres participate in further education programmes several times a year, which is more often than those from other further education providers (Müller-Naevecke, 2019, p. 203).

The further education programme ‘Basic Qualification in Adult Education’, developed by the German Adult Education Association, is a key tool for ensuring the quality of teaching at German adult education centres. This programme has been implemented by all regional associations, although there are differences in content and organisation. The programme for staff of adult education centres in Baden-Württemberg is described below. The following paragraph is based on data from the further education programme of this regional association for February to September 2020 (cf. Volkshochschul-Verband Baden-Württemberg, 2019).

The further education programme ‘Basic Qualification in Adult Education’ is designed to help teachers acquire, extend and enhance their skills in adult education, didactics, methodology and communication as well as their personal skills. Further aims are to promote the exchange between teachers and to encourage self-reflection. A total of 80 lessons must be completed in order to achieve these goals. Teachers are free to spread the courses over a period of three years, but their selection must cover different areas. A minimum of eight courses must be marked as ‘BQAE’ (Basic Qualification in Adult Education) in the directory. There is a large variety of topics and related courses. The adult education association of Baden-Württemberg, for example, offers the following courses in the field of ‘Teaching and Learning’: ‘Moderation Techniques in Teaching’ and ‘How to Prepare, Design and Present Digital Course Contents’. The courses ‘Voice Training’ and ‘A Good Story May Work Better Than a Long Speech’ belong to the area of ‘Communication’. The following courses focus on the teacher’s personality: ‘Time and Stress Management’ and ‘How to Act with Self-Confidence as a Seminar Teacher’. Furthermore, courses from the areas ‘How to Lead Groups’ and ‘Course Management’ can also be selected. In addition to basic qualification courses, a maximum of two courses may be chosen which belong to the subject taught. These depend on the individual wishes of the course teacher. Upon completion of the above-mentioned requirements and submission of the individual certificates of attendance, the adult education association of Baden-Württemberg will issue an overall certificate of ‘Basic Qualification in Adult Education’ (cf. Volkshochschul-Verband Baden-Württemberg, 2019).

A Train-the-Trainer Programme in Nigeria

Country-specific context

In terms of professionalising adult educators in Nigeria, there is a strong emphasis on academisation. The universities offer different bachelor's and master's degrees with a focus on adult education. Finding non-formal training programmes for adult educators is more difficult. For the present comparison, the 'train-the-trainer programme' was selected. Initial research has already revealed a variety of political influences on the programme. Hence, it is important to begin by looking at the main political organisations and concepts related to adult education in Nigeria.

The general aims and content of adult education are clearly stated in the Nigerian National Policy on Education (NPE). The NPE (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2013) regards adult education and non-formal education as basic education provided to adults and young people outside the formal school system. The goals of ALE/non-formal education in Nigeria are also laid down in the NPE (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2013). They include the provision of basic education for adults and young people who have never had the advantage of formal education or who left school early, remedial and lifelong education for young people and adults who did not complete school, and further education for different categories of school leavers from the formal education system to improve their basic knowledge and skills. Other goals include offering in-service, vocational and professional training for different categories of workers and professionals to improve their skills and providing adults with an aesthetic, cultural and civic education for the purpose of raising public awareness (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2013). Adult education in Nigeria is based more on non-formal education with the responsibility to re-educate and re-train adults to be competitive in the global economy and to be financially independent.

The National Commission for Mass Literacy and Adult and Non-formal Education (NMEC) is the umbrella organisation for developing and organising adult education and non-formal education programmes in the country. The NMEC has an office in each of the country's six zones, and these have control over 36 state agencies comprising 774 local government area adult education departments and non-formal education centres. The NPE tasks NMEC with coordinating mass literacy, adult and non-formal education programmes nationwide and training adult educators for the state agencies using appropriate strategies, as well as with organising national and international trainings, workshops, seminars, lectures and symposia on issues in adult and non-formal education. Thus,

the NMEC is able to train adult education facilitators, coordinators, scheme organisers, library attendants and administrative officers with the help of academic professionals from the tertiary institutions. In this context, it should be pointed out that most practitioners in the field of adult education in Nigeria are non-professionals. Research by Junaid (2001, as cited in Alkali, 2016) suggests that 71 per cent of adult education staff are non-professionals. With regard to these political goals and the need to professionalise non-professionals in the field of adult education as well as improving the skills and knowledge of professionals, the NMEC Policy Guide (2017) states that the commission trains grassroots personnel such as facilitators, area coordinators, scheme organisers, library attendants and administrative officers of adult education through a 'train-the-trainer programme'. This programme focuses on non-certified adult educators who have knowledge, skills and experience in other subject areas. Often these people also have academic degrees in other scientific disciplines outside adult education. However, the minimum qualifications for adult educators in Nigeria is the National Certificate in Education (NCE), ideally in adult education and non-formal education courses.

Case description

The train-the-trainer programme is viewed as an introductory course. It offers individuals without an NCE certificate the opportunity to start a career as a professional adult educator.

The programme is a two-week induction course which runs twice a year for 336 hours. The course covers essential topics of adult education, such as programme development, psychology of adults, adult teaching methodologies, communication skills and research methods. In addition, general social issues are also addressed, for example climate change, civic education, human rights, health education and cultural diversity. The variety of topics indicates that there is a close connection between adult education and social problems. However, specialisation based on the individual wishes of the participant is not possible. The content is specified by the organisation and is firmly anchored in the programme.

Professional adult educators are familiarised with new ideas and innovations during seminars and workshops in the programme, after which participants are given a certificate of attendance. This certificate is recognised at national level. However, this alone is not considered a professional adult education qualification in Nigeria. This requires an academic degree or non-formal further training. The main aim of the programme is to equip adult educators with the knowledge and skills needed to become facilitators in order to install in the population the spirit

of personal and national development. At this point, it becomes clear that this is a state programme. The personal development of the adult educator tends to be of secondary importance.

Comparison and Interpretation

Although the cases presented here might at first appear to differ in many ways, our aim is to compare them in order to provide different answers to the same social problem, namely, the most effective way to professionalise adult educators beyond tertiary education and formalised study programmes. What all of the programmes presented have in common is that they are primarily aimed at adult educators who are mainly focused on the facilitation of learning processes in direct interaction – in short: teaching.

In comparing the *content*, we can state that teaching skills play a vital role in all of the programmes and seem to represent a minimum requirement of what an adult educator has to know and be able to do. Nonetheless, this leaves much room for interpretation, and other aspects of programme content indicate different approaches. First, there are different disciplinary priorities. While in the case of Latvia, for example, we find psychological approaches (learning and memory, motivation ...), the Brazilian case utilises knowledge connected to sociology, politics and social work (youth and poverty, inclusion ...). This contrasts with the more individualistic approach in the Latvian case, which centres on the adult learner and a more social approach to the situation of learning and the relation between learners and the adult educator. The Nigerian case is located between the Latvian and the Brazilian approach. While psychological knowledge is explicitly relevant, it also emphasises the relevance of knowledge of the learning environments and broader social developments. The German case is difficult to categorise in terms of content, which may differ considerably depending on the course chosen by the learners. This may result in a well-rounded mix of content but also in the somewhat one-sided education of adult educators.

With regard to the *aims* of the programmes, we see an instrumental concept of educating adult educators competing with a more normative one. On the one hand, the pedagogical knowledge and skills imparted in the programmes are seen as a means of ensuring successful educational processes and a certain quality of adult education. On the other hand, there is the (classical) pedagogical claim of serving a higher purpose, such as contributing to societal transformation. The Latvian approach, but also the Nigerian one, tends to have a more instrumental aim, while in the case of Brazil, the emancipatory aim is explicitly emphasised.

Again, in Germany, the freedom to choose courses makes the programme more dependent on the interests of the participants.

This is mirrored in the (time-related) composition of the courses. While the Latvian and Nigerian programmes are to be completed before starting work as an adult educator, the Brazilian programme can only be completed while already actively working in adult education, and in Germany it is usually the case that the programme is undertaken once teaching work has commenced. This also corresponds with the higher degree of formalisation of the programmes in Latvia and Nigeria and their organisation by national government institutions, whereas the Brazilian programme is carried out by a government institution in the context of a local municipality, whereas the German programme is linked to the regional association of adult education centres.

Lessons Learned

As stated earlier, we support the argument that a transnational comparative research approach can enhance our reflexivity substantially – thus, we eventually have to discuss achievements and shortcomings of our analysis. In our paper, we examined how the professionalisation of adult educators is being supported by further education programmes in four different national contexts, namely Brazil, Germany, Latvia and Nigeria. But although we approached the investigation with a clear idea of the programmes we wanted to compare, a much wider range of different offers for the further education of adult educators soon became apparent. On the one hand, this helped to reveal significant differences between the cases in our comparison; on the other hand, it also revealed the needs as well as the possibilities for a further differentiation of comparative categories in future investigations.

Regarding the differences we found, the comparative categories *aims* and *contents* proved insightful, and it can be argued that a specific relation between them stands out eventually. While we differentiated between a rather instrumental and a more emancipatory approach regarding the general aims of the programmes, the knowledge structures and disciplinary references of the contents focused more on teaching methods, the adult learner and psychology on the one hand and on societal problems, emancipatory education and sociology / politics on the other hand. We think that these configurations are an expression of overarching differences between different traditions and cultures of adult education thus being reproduced also by further education programmes for (future) adult educators.

Regarding the needs and possibilities for the further development of the comparative categories used in our analysis, it has to be discussed if the cases chosen for comparison, though clearly being cases of non-formal education programmes for adult educators, still show too much internal heterogeneity to be suitable for a meaningful comparison: We have shown examples both of continuous on-the-job training with a tendency towards team supervision and traditional preparatory courses; our sample includes voluntary as well as compulsory offers; and the programs are organised on the level of the national government, of adult education associations or (governmental) adult education organisations. These differences led to a great richness in the comparison of our cases. But at the same time, the mentioned differences must be systematically used as comparative categories for future investigations. Thus, future international comparisons can be carried out on a more specific level and focus, for example, on the role of self-organised training in institution teams (as in our Brazilian case). Thus, the results elaborated here can hopefully inspire and guide future research on professionalisation through further education.

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Profesionalizacija kroz dalje obrazovanje? Međunarodno poređenje neformalnih obrazovnih programa za nastavnike u obrazovanju odraslih

Apstrakt: Profesionalizam je ključna tema međunarodnog diskursa o obrazovanju odraslih. Ona je značajna ne samo zbog potrebe za profesionalnim samopouzdanjem s obzirom na heterogenost oblasti obrazovanja odraslih, koju karakterišu ne samo širok spektar uslova rada, oblici zaposlenja i odgovornosti već i različite kvalifikacije i profesionalna pozadina nastavnika u obrazovanju odraslih. Stoga bi programi daljeg obrazovanja mogli biti jedna od važnih komponenti u profesionalizaciji obrazovanja odraslih. Međutim, heterogene kadrovske strukture istovremeno čine naizgled jednostavno pitanje daljeg obrazovanja za nastavnike odraslih sve kompleksnijim. Dok na međunarodnom nivou postoji poseban naglasak na profesionalizaciji putem akademskih diplomskih programa, fokus ovog rada je na neformalnom daljem obrazovanju za nastavnike odraslih. U ovom radu se upoređuju sličnosti i razlike na primerima neformalnog daljeg obrazovanja za nastavnike odraslih u određenim zemljama i nastoji se da se one objasne. Rezultati su dobijeni primenom međunarodne metodologije uporednog istraživanja. Slučajevi (tj. neformalni

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programi) iz Letonije, Brazila, Nemačke i Nigerije ispituju se s fokusom na njihove ciljne grupe, strukture, sadržaj i ciljeve. Stepen do kojeg su uključeni u specifične organizacione i institucionalne strukture i (nacionalne) politike takođe je značajan. Polazna tačka za kritičku refleksiju je pitanje: kako programi neformalnog daljeg obrazovanja mogu doprineti individualnoj profesionalizaciji nastavnika za odrasle.

Ključne reči: profesionalizacija, neformalni programi, dalje obrazovanje, obrazovanje odraslih, nastavnici u obrazovanju odraslih, međunarodno poređenje.

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Contexts of Recognition of Prior Learning: A Comparative Study of RPL Initiatives in Brazil, Portugal, and Germany

Abstract: The main purpose of this paper is to reflect on and compare the different ‘realities’ of Recognition of Prior Learning (RPL) regarding informal and non-formal learning contexts in three countries: Brazil, Portugal, and Germany. In Brazil, the *Certific Network* is a public policy that addresses the recognition and certification of prior learning. In Portugal, the *Qualifica Programme* is dedicated to the recognition of learnings and skills acquired throughout life. In Germany, the *ProfilPass Project* focuses on the values or skills acquired informally and non-formally. Regarding the international-comparative analysis methodology, the paper studies and compares these initiatives considering three comparative axes: 1) *central aims*, 2) *target groups*, 3) *formats and structures of action*. Such comparative research shows the importance of understanding RPL concepts and practical realities in different social, political and economic contexts.

Key words: recognition of prior learning, Brazil, Portugal, Germany.

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Introduction

Over the last decades, recognition of prior learning (RPL) became one of the main topics of adult education policies in European Union (EU) countries and worldwide. The idea of recognising prior experiential learning is not new. However, different terms are used for RPL in different countries and international organisations (Guimarães & Mikulec, 2020; Singh, 2015).

In the USA, the term in use is Prior Learning Assessment (PLA); in Canada, it is Prior Learning Assessment and Recognition (PLAR). In the UK, three different terms are used, each referring to different settings and aims: Accreditation of Prior Learning (APL) focuses on obtaining a higher education qualification; Accreditation of Prior Experiential Learning (APEL) concerns the assessment of competences and skills acquired through the work life; Accreditation of Prior Certificate Learning (APCL) consists of the assessment and certification of learning for academic purposes. The OECD uses the term Recognition of Non-Formal and Informal Learning (RNFIL); inside the EU, the recognition of prior learning is referred to as Validation of Non-Formal and Informal Learning (VNFIL) (Andersson, Fejes, & Sandberg, 2013; Singh, 2015). In this article, we use RPL because it is the most common term in scientific journal articles.

The aim of this article is to compare three RPL policies: the *Certific Network* in Brazil, the *Qualifica Programme* in Portugal, and the *ProfilPass Project* in Germany. In order to develop an international-comparative analysis methodology (Bray & Thomas, 1995; Egetenmeyer, 2012; Field et al., 2016), the article explores the following research questions: What are the central *aims of these policies*, considering the historical, political, and social context of each country? What are their *target groups* – individuals and social groups? What are their *formats and structures of action* – processes, networks, and instruments adopted for recognition of prior learning? In what follows, we briefly analyse the policy discourses on RPL, outline the methodological approach, describe the RPL programmes, and analyse them based on their similarities and differences.

Discourses on Recognition of Prior Learning (RPL)

The first practices of RPL occurred between the 1950s and the 1970s in the USA and Quebec (Canada). They shared a humanistic conception of education based on social and personal development, and their central motive was social justice. In both countries, RPL was developed to broaden access to higher education. With the end of the Second World War, US soldiers faced a labour market deeply

changed by the massive entry of women into the labour force. The pursuit of studies, encouraged by the authorities, appeared as a chance to overcome the immediate difficulties of employment. However, war veterans refused to restart their studies at the point where they had interrupted them. They pressured governmental authorities and higher education institutions to recognise the knowledge acquired in the war in order to allow them access to higher education (Berger, 1991). According to Berger (1991), a similar situation took place in Quebec, but in this case, led by feminist movements. Feminists demanded the recognition of prior learning acquired through domestic activities to access higher education. The fact that these practices were aimed at very specific groups of the population neither allowed for great social visibility nor for their dissemination.

It was only in the 1990s and within the framework of the discourse on lifelong learning that RPL gained political importance and social notoriety, moving, as several academics state (see among other Guimarães & Mikulec, 2020; Andersson, Fejes, & Sandberg, 2013; Barros, 2013; Guimarães, 2012) from a focus on social justice to a focus on economic development and employability.

The White Paper on Education and Training (Commission of the European Communities [CEC], 1995) is a good example of an instrumental and managerial conception of education in general and RPL in particular. In this document, RPL plays a central role to solve the problem of young people without academic and professional qualifications and to promote workforce mobility within EU countries. After the adoption of the Lisbon Strategy in 2000 and the publication of the Memorandum on Lifelong Learning (CEC, 2001), RPL became a key instrument for achieving the knowledge-based society.

In subsequent years, a set of documents and guidelines were published: Common European principles for the identification and validation of non-formal and informal learning (Council of European Communities [CEC], 2004); European guidelines for validating non-formal and informal learning (CEDEFOP, 2015); Recommendations on the validation of non-formal and informal learning (CEU, 2012). These documents reveal both the importance attributed to RPL in the framework of European lifelong learning policy and the attempt to harmonise procedures within the European space. But they also disclose a paradox in policy discourses regarding RPL but also LLL. This paradox results from the inclusion of terms of the humanist discourse of the 1970s, which are now associated with policies focusing on human resources management and economic development. As Andersson, Fejes, and Sandberg (2013) put it, 'Despite borrowing elements from previous discourse, the aforementioned is a quite different discourse from the humanistic one from the 1970s. The current discourse aims

at shaping citizens who want to learn and who take responsibility for their own learning in order to become employable' (p. 407).

Methodology

Taking into account the complexities of comparative research/methodology in the field of adult education, this article concentrates on adult education, focusing on issues and contexts related to RPL in three different countries: Brazil, Portugal, and Germany. As mentioned before, the aim of this comparative study is to present RPL programmes – *Certific Network*, *Qualifica Programme*, and *ProfilPass Project* – and to analyse the differences and the similarities among them according to: 1) their central aims, considering the historical, political, and social context of each country; 2) their target groups – individuals and social groups; and 3) their formats and structures of action – processes, networks, and instruments adopted for recognition and certification.

According to Egetenmeyer (2016), 'comparative adult education can be understood as a specific perspective in adult education research (rather than a method or a research field in its own right), one that stresses interrelations and contexts of comparison' (p. 80). Following this approach, we think that RPL, as an important issue in adult education, can be compared between different contexts and countries. By developing comparative research in adult education, this article argues for the need to compare adult education programmes in different contexts.

In fact, comparative education offers, according to Jean-Francois (2020), 'a wide range of opportunities for culturally contextualized analyses of country-specific characteristics of education systems and adult education' (p. 41). For Egetenmeyer (2012), the comparison can involve four steps: 1) descriptive juxtaposition; 2) analytical juxtaposition; 3) descriptive comparison; and finally, 4) analytical comparison. In this sense, it is important to have 'comparable categories (what) but also comparable contexts (where, when and which)'; therefore, 'testing categories and contexts in juxtaposition is a starting point for comparative research in adult education' (Egetenmeyer, 2016, p. 94). Then, the next step is interrelating the data to interpret similarities and differences. As pointed out by Charles and Hilton (cited in Slowey, 2016) 'the real value of comparative study emerges only from stage three – the attempt to understand why the differences and similarities occur and what their significance is for adult education and the countries under examination and in other countries where the finding of the study may have relevance' (pp. 9–10). There is no doubt, therefore, that compar-

ative research helps to understand and to interpret the differences and similarities between countries. Having said this, a comparison allows us to analyse individual cases, find similarities and differences and, in the end, search for justifications. The discussion in this article is based on a document analysis of official policy documents, legal regulations, reports, and policy documents produced by national and international organisations and scientific articles about RPL in Brazil, Portugal, and Germany.

RPL in Three Countries: Brazil, Portugal, and Germany

The following section offers a comparative analysis of RPL in three countries: Brazil, Portugal, and Germany.

Brazil: the Certific Network

This part of the paper presents the *Certific Network*, which is considered an exemplary case of RPL in Brazil. First of all, it is important to highlight that there isn't a tradition of permanent or long-term RPL policies in the country. There are some government initiatives, developed mainly in recent years, which aim to stimulate the recognition of learning acquired throughout life for specific social sectors and certain professional categories.

Among such initiatives, the most relevant – which comes closer to a structural and permanent RPL programme – is the 'National Network of Professional Certification and Initial and Continuing Training', in short *Certific Network*. It is a public policy for professional education focused on what the Brazilian government calls 'social inclusion'. It focuses on low-skilled workers, who seek the certification of professional knowledge obtained through processes of non-formal and informal learning⁵.

Despite being provided in the guidelines issued by the National Law of Education Directives and Base Lines (Law No. 9.394/1996), it was not until

⁵ We use the definition developed by Harris and Wihak (2014, p.13): 'Formal learning is structured and intentional, achieved through programmes/courses at accredited educational institutions (e.g. certificate, diploma or degree) and/or recognised by a regulatory body/professional organisation for certification. Non-formal learning is also intentional, gained through participation in organised workplace-based training, noncredit courses and workshops, but does not generate formal credit. Informal learning is incidental learning from life experience, workplace-based tasks, volunteer activities, and/or self-directed learning and study.' To transform informal learning processes into recognised ones instead of something which just happens ('the whole life is a learning journey'), some of the RPL concepts like the *ProfilPass* in Germany bring incidental learning into reflective recognition. This means to first see and then understand where learning happened. It is like formalising the informal by becoming aware of it.

November 2009 that the Certific Network was actually regulated and created through Interministerial Ordinance No. 1.082. The delay in this creation, which was only possible due to a long series of demands and pressures made by education professionals, researchers, and civil society organizations, highlights the fact that there is little tradition in Brazil when it comes to RPL. In fact, it was only in the last 15 years that most of the few RPL initiatives that exist nowadays have emerged.

The Certific Network bases its recognition process on the concept of professional certification, which presents itself as something that transcends reductionist notions of merely educational or occupational certification. The pillars of this perspective of professional certification were based on the French policy of acquired experiences validation and on the Portuguese programme of recognition of school and work knowledge, seeking an articulation of these experiences considering the specific aspects and needs of Brazilian reality.

In fact, Brazilian economic, political, and social reality must be brought to attention in any reflection and/or practice that is inspired by foreign experiences, especially those developed in advanced capitalist economies, such as the United States or European countries.

As highlighted by the “Guiding Document” of the Certific Network, created and published in 2014, it is important to consider the specifications of the labour context in Brazil. These include: low education level of the labour force (especially among professions linked to manual and rural activities); deep presence of informal and illegal labour (child labour and slavery-like labour are also an issue); maintenance of fordist or hyperfordist production regimes in the present context of neoliberal globalisation; the impact of the dimensions of race, ethnicity, and gender in the integration into the labour market, which means extremely high inequalities between men, women, white, black and indigenous people, etc.; public education, social security, and employment systems which are still far from satisfying the needs of the population (despite the visible advances made especially since the 1988 Constitution); persistent existence of misery and hunger in several regions and large sectors of the population.

Thus, taking some foreign examples as an inspiration, but seeking to consider the national reality, the supporting pillars of the Certific Network actions may be summarised in the following axes: 1) Social recognition of knowledge built throughout life, linked to a profession; 2) Continuity of studies in professional education; 3) Increase in educational levels; 4) Articulation with the Public Employment System (Certific Network, 2014).

The policy targets young and adult workers, over 18 years old, who fit the following requirements: ‘holders of a certificate or diploma compatible with the

minimum education required for the respective professional certification process'; 'inserted or not in the labour market'; interested in 'formal recognition of professional knowledge, skills and competences developed in formal and non-formal learning processes and in their life and work trajectory' (Certific Network, 2014, p. 26). The Network is configured as

[...] a set of actions that aim to establish professional certification processes to assist young and adult workers who seek for formal recognition and certification of professional knowledge, skills and competences, for the purpose of further studies and/or professional practice. (Certific Network, 2014, p. 26.)

Therefore, its central aims are:

- I – offer professional certification processes free of charge for purposes of study or professional practice;
- II – monitor and evaluate the implementation of professional certification processes; and
- III – articulate public policies on employment, work and income, professional training and schooling, through strategies that aim for social inclusion and equity in the creation and construction of educational projects for professional certification. (Certific Network, 2014, p. 26)

It is based on these pillars and aims that the Certific Network was implemented in 2009 as a state strategy that includes a large set of governmental and non-governmental sectors and organisations. Such large dimensions can be observed since the beginning of the policy, which is planned, organised and developed by the Ministries of Education and Labour⁶.

Its governance structure is composed of three levels (national level; institutions and networks level; educational units level), which have their own deliberative and operational organisations (such as the 'National Committee for Professional Education Policies' at the national level; the 'Deliberative Chambers' at the institutions and networks level; and the 'Councils' at the educational units level).

Although the organisations that compose the national level have strategic responsibilities (build, approve, and disseminate rules; monitor activities, etc.), it is at the other two levels that the concrete actions in professional certification are

⁶ It is important to note that since 2016, just after the impeachment of ex-president Dilma Rousseff, the Ministry of Labour has seen too many modifications and reductions. In 2019, under Jair Bolsonaro's government, it was eliminated. Its responsibilities were distributed among the Ministries of Economy, Citizenship, and Justice. The impacts of this profound restructuring can already be seen at several levels, such as the weakening of Labour Justice and growing difficulties to access labour rights. It is a task for the future to investigate what this may mean for the Certific Network.

developed, such as creating certification processes and training qualified professionals to act in them (institutions and networks level); create procedures for the development, monitoring and evaluation of professional certification processes (educational units level).

In addition to the strategic core, the Network includes other entities that assume responsibilities related to 'education, certification, metrics, standardization and professional use' (Certific Network, 2014, p. 22). They are public institutions that encompass the federal, provincial, district, and municipal networks of vocational education, the national learning services, and non-governmental organisations.

It is necessary to highlight that the Certific Network was created in the midst of a series of initiatives by the Brazilian government that had the ultimate goal of reorganising and expanding federal institutions focused on basic and vocational education. In this context, the Certific Network was organised according to the structure of the 'Federal System of Professional, Scientific and Technological Education', a public system which connects vocational and college education. It is composed of 64 institutions, located in all regions and states of the federation, with 661 units currently in operation. This system is very important for the Certific Network. For example, the Certific Centres (the units that effectively develop the certification processes) operate through the existing structure of the 'Federal Network of Professional, Scientific and Technological Education'.

However, it is very difficult to measure and confirm the success of this RPL policy. Despite the wide system of governance and operational organisations, until 2015, throughout the country, only 25 units offered recognition and certification programmes, linked to only five professional areas (aquaculture; music; civil construction; electronics; tourism) (Costa, 2015). Besides that, there is unclear information about the number of Certific Centres currently in operation and the number of workers who benefited from the Certific Network.

According to Costa (2015), there are no extra funds for physical structure or even for hiring professionals for the Certific Network. This means that there is no allocation of financial resources to the certification units. The used resources (physical structure and labour force) are those that already exist in the institutions (ex: the regular budget and teachers of the 'Federal System of Professional, Scientific and Technological Education'), which had started to develop one more task (in addition to all the previously existing demands): the RPL process. This situation has 'hampered, delayed or prevented the policy from being implemented' (Costa, 2015, p. 110).

Portugal: the Qualifica Programme

In Portugal, the evolution of adult education was connected to the Democratic Revolution in 1974. Due to policy discontinuities, adult education only became a political priority in the 1990s as a result of supranational influence from the EU on the national educational agenda⁷. In the last two decades, adult education in Portugal was characterised by strong political intermittencies. In fact, several initiatives and programmes, such as New Opportunities, have been implemented in order to respond to the need for improving the qualification of the Portuguese population. However, these initiatives were not successful; the country continues to face a structural problem of low educational attainment. Among Portugal's 10 million inhabitants, there are now 895,140 adults with no education level. In 2016, more than half of the population aged between 25 and 64 had not completed upper-secondary education. Only 33 per cent of the population aged 25–34 completed secondary education (OECD, 2018). Therefore, many adults have significant problems in basic skills (literacy, numeracy, and ICT) and, at the same time, face several obstacles in accessing the labour market.

Taking into account the structural deficit of the Portuguese population's qualification was necessary to develop the adult education and training programme. In March 2016, the newly elected government launched a new intervention called the *Qualifica Programme*, which aims to improve the levels of education and training of adults to help advance their education and employability. The programme was officially launched in March 2017 with a large-scale public awareness campaign titled 'More qualification, a better job!'. The strategic priority of Qualifica is to improve adult qualification and, at the same time, to promote lifelong learning (Liebowitz, González, Hooge, & Lima, 2018).

The main aims of the Qualifica programme are: 1) to increase adults' skills and qualification levels in order to improve employability of adults by providing them with skills valid for the labour market; 2) to reduce illiteracy rates and increase the participation rates of the population in education and training; 3) to improve the system with young adults investing more in education and training; 4) to bring educational attainment rates to the level of other European countries; 5) to adapt the offer and training networks to the needs of the labour market (Qualifica Programme, 2020). Another aim of the programme is '(...) to increase the number of specialised centres for adult education and training' (OECD, 2017, p. 47). According to Lima and Guimarães (2018), the Qualifica programme 'is expected to further coordination between the existing educational

⁷ The entry of Portugal in the European Economic Community (EEC) in 1986 enabled new opportunities because of financing programmes. In 1992, the EEC became the European Union (EU).

provision, the labour market and regional, national and international economic development trends' (p. 617).

This form of provision has been attended by a large number of adults aged 18 years and over, unemployed people, youth not in employment, education or training (NEETs), or individuals who did not complete basic or secondary education (OECD, 2017). This programme was designed for adults whose objective is to improve the populations' qualifications and employability.

What are the processes, networks, and instruments adopted for recognition and certification? The Qualifica Programme is supported by several actors, including the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Labour, Solidarity and Social Security, which supervises the National Agency for Qualifications and Vocational Education and Training (ANQEP). ANQEP is the national public institution responsible for Qualifica Centres and, therefore, 'is an instrument of managing public offers targeted to adults' (Guimarães, 2020, p. 119).

The new public policy for adult education sector – Qualifica programme – is implemented in Qualifica Centres (through the publication of Ordinance No. 232/2016, of 29 August), which are promoted by public and private institutions, such as secondary schools, Institutes for Employment and Vocational Training, private companies, local associations and municipalities (Machado & Barros, 2020). Qualifica has a network of 310 centres throughout the country. These centres are seen as important structures, because they provide adult-learning services, such as information, vocational guidance and support to adults about education and training opportunities (RPL, for example).

In this context, the centres' activities include attendance, counselling, guidance, and referral for learning pathways taking into account the qualification of adults. The pedagogical team includes coordinators, technicians of guidance, recognition and validation of skills, trainers or teachers, and administrative technicians. Funded by the European Social Fund (85%) and with national resources (15%), the Qualifica programme is free of charge for individuals.

The programme offers training pathways for low-qualified adults through adult education and training courses and the RPL process (Lima & Guimarães, 2018). RPL⁸ intends to identify and recognise skills acquired by adults with low levels of education and qualification throughout their lifespan, in formal, informal and non-formal contexts (ANQEP, 2017a, 2017b). For that purpose, adults develop a portfolio about their life, demonstrating their interests, motivations, learnings, and

⁸ To achieve the basic RPL level (6th or 9th grade), adults will have to demonstrate knowledge in the following standards: Language and Communication, Mathematics for Life, Citizenship and Employability, Information and Communication Technologies (ICT); the secondary level (12th grade) includes the following areas/standards: Culture, Language and Communication, Society, Technology and Science; and Citizenship and Professionality. To earn professional RPL, adults will have to demonstrate technical knowledge in the profession that they propose/intend to certify.

skills. To create this document, they have support from technicians and teachers/trainers of the Qualifica Centre. In the RPL process, adults receive complementary training in areas with fewer skills for a minimum of 50 hours. After training, adults get a jury certification of competences, which takes into account the competences validated and certified in the process. The certification session is an important moment, because the adult is presented to a jury and, therefore, is evaluated by an exam. After the exam, the adult obtains partial or total certification.

The team of the Qualifica Centres is based on two important documents: Methodological Guide and Methodological Guideline 1 (ANQEP, 2017a, 2017b). The Methodological Guide refers to the procedures for RPL process, as well as professional qualification in Portugal. The second document, Methodological Guidance 1, identifies three moments for the final phase of the RPL: 1) preparation for the exam; 2) the Certification Jury (also called exam); and, finally, 3) evaluation and decision making (ANQEP, 2017b).

Based on a qualification strategy that involves educational and training responses and in order to achieve the aims outlined by the programme, the Qualifica Passport was created in 2017. This instrument is an important document that provides information on individuals' own educational and training record. Based on the adults' qualifications, it also directs them to important learning opportunities. As an electronic tool, the Qualifica Passport provides 'information to learners about their learning paths, helping them access further learning opportunities, thus putting in practice the flexibility of the credit system' (OECD, 2018, p. 75). This passport is very useful for Qualifica Centres and for adults, because it shows lifelong guidance and lifelong learning. Thus, when adults completed a training activity, a certificate is issued by the Information and Supply Management System (SIGO) and, therefore, registered in the Qualifica Passport.

Generally speaking, the Qualifica programme is a strategy to foster the training and qualification of the Portuguese population in order to improve people's employability and match their skills with labour market needs.

Germany: the ProfilPASS Concept and Instrument

The German concept ProfilPASS (PP) as an instrument for adults⁹ is based very much on the Lisbon Strategy, launched by the European Council, which identifies Lifelong Learning (LLL) as a priority of the European Union's education

⁹ There are other concepts such as earning credit for informal learning in higher education, e.g. APEL (Accreditation of Prior Experiential Learning) or PLAR (Prior Learning Assessment and Recognition). A second version of the ProfilPASS for young people was launched in 2007 for youth aged 13–14 and over; it is valid in schools at lower secondary level.

policy. In 2001, the working document ‘Memorandum on Lifelong Learning’ (CEC, 2001) marked the start of the consultation process between the Commission and the Member States. Within the mega idea and political concept of lifelong and lifewide learning, proposals ‘focus on the identification, assessment and recognition of non-formal and in-formal learning, and the transfer and mutual recognition of qualifications and diplomas’ (CEC, 2001, p. 4). All documents that have appeared in the wake of the European communication process can be interpreted as affirmations of the concept of learning assessment, recognition and validation (Freitag, 2010). The developments guided by the Memorandum should be classified as a political mandate for the development of, firstly, the European Qualifications Framework for Lifelong Learning (EQF LLL¹⁰), followed by the development of RPL concepts and instruments.

From 2006 to 2012 the ProfilPASS¹¹ was developed by a national consortium (German Institute for Adult Education – Leibniz Centre for Lifelong Learning (DIE), German Institute for International Educational Research (DIPF), and the Institute for Development Planning and Structural Research (IES) at the University of Hanover). Funding was provided by the Federal Ministry of Education and Research (BMBF) and the EU (ERASMUS+; Socrates):

The ProfilPASS is a German tool that assists people in finding out what their strengths and competences are. With the help of an advisor they discover their hidden competences and set their goals. Therefore, the ProfilPASS tool prevents people from dropping out of training and education.

The ProfilPASS system assumes that people acquire a large part of their competences in informal areas of life such as family, caring, voluntary work, and the like, which is of great importance. In Germany, there is no national strategy or regulation (law) for the recognition of prior learning. Therefore, ‘users’ are addressed instead of target groups:

Users are mostly people who are transitioning: job seekers, individuals keen to re-enter the labour market, immigrants, unqualified workers, people from marginalized groups, *people* who are *endangered by unemployment*, students transitioning from education to

¹⁰The EQF LLL ‘is intended to act as a translation aid for learning outcomes in the form of learning assessments and as a “neutral instrument”. The aim of the Qualification Framework is to create transparency, comparability and transferability of national educational qualifications. In essence, the EQF LLL is a matrix formed by eight levels to which descriptors for learning outcomes have been assigned. Learning outcomes are defined as “a combination of knowledge, skills and competence” which a “learner knows, understands and is able to do after completing a learning process”.’ (Freitag, 2010, pp. 9ff.).

¹¹For a full overview see: https://www.profilpass-international.eu/files/pp_english.pdf.

work or individuals who dropped out of education and training courses previously. *In addition, entrepreneurs can use it to source employees.* (Singh, 2016¹²)

The concept tries to balance, on the one hand, an economic notion, the need for employment and being employable, and labour market needs, and, on the other hand, individual interests and personal self-discovery. As the PP tool has it, ‘Working with the ProfilPASS is like a “timeout” from everyday routine. If you do decide to take the plunge, you will be embarking on a voyage of discovery – destination: you. At its end, you will have come a lot closer to your own answers for “Where am I now?” and “Where am I going?”’¹³. The concept promotes a resource-oriented approach that contributes to a person’s self-assurance.

Today, the ProfilPASS is a strong instrument that comprises 1) a tool, which provides 2) ProfilPASS service points (professional guidance) and assures 3) quality. More than 200,000 people have used ProfilPASS since 2006, of which half were adults (74,000) and the other half young people (89,000). Currently, 37 regional ProfilPASS– centres and more than 3500 PP counsellors in Germany support adults in the process of RPL. About 36 disseminators (*Multiplikatoren*) promote the ProfilPASS system in their region (Schrader & Winther, 2016). So-called ‘dialogue centres’ have been established to train advisors in the methodology of documenting competences in a two-day preparatory seminar. The training of advisors is coordinated at the national level by the ProfilPASS Service Centre of the German Institute of Adult Education (DIE). More than 8,000 people are qualified counsellors, although not all of them offer counselling with the instrument.

The ProfilPASS emphasises self-exploration and self-reflection rather than an exact measurement of competences (competences comprise cognitive and motivational dimensions): certificates and qualifications are also mentioned. The various steps in the PP are:

1. Biographical interviews to stimulate users to narrate activities and episodes of successful performance.
2. Small-group discussions to highlight personal competences.
3. Self-assessment through performance of their identified competences.
4. Developing a vision for the future by combining users’ own preferences and choices with the competences they themselves identify.

¹² For a condensed version see URL: <https://uil.unesco.org/case-study/global-observatory-recognition-validation-and-accreditation-0/germany-rva-case-study>.

¹³ For a full overview and to understand the perspectives and different levels within the instrument, see the ProfilPASS handbook in six languages (German, English, French, Greek, Slovenian, and Spanish): https://www.profilpass-international.eu/index.php?article_id=141&clang=0 and the method-cards <https://www.profilpass-international.eu/files/en-pp-methodcards.pdf>.

To expand the use and availability of PP and to adapt it to specific needs, several European projects have been launched, including ‘*CORE*’, which is designed to assess competencies for the re-integration of vulnerable and disadvantaged groups. ‘*COOCO*’ is a project that builds on the ProfilPASS and addresses counsellors working with cognitively impaired people to bring forward their potential and interests for competence development. For this purpose, the ProfilPASS is adapted to the needs of cognitively impaired people, that is, in a barrier-free format. ‘*SCOUT*’ is a project that is linked to counsellors working with new immigrants. For this purpose, the ProfilPASS is adapted and translated into Simple Language.

During the start of the ProfilPASS in Germany, the ever-increasing number persons in low-skilled jobs, contractual and part-time work, were the top priority for RPL. It is felt, however, that further discussions are needed in relation to today’s situation: the ubiquitous digitalisation of our societies, our experiences during COVID-19, and the transformations within and after (economic instability and short-time work, social instability, individual uncertainty). We need to reflect on the role and development of the recognition infrastructure; on guidance and counselling; assessment procedures; assessment standards; transparent and quality assured systems that support and complement the existing education system (Seidel, 2011). For example, it is not transparent who has already participated in the ProfilPASS and with what outcomes and benefits (individual, collective, and social level). How do professional adult educators and counsellors experience and evaluate this instrument? According to early studies, training providers are sometimes *unable to adequately classify knowledge* acquired through formal, non-formal and informal learning (cf. Böhlinger & Münchhausen, 2011; Singh, 2016). ‘They should be able to tailor courses on offer and teaching methods to reflect previous learning. Appropriate teaching methods should be developed to promote the intended informal learning so as to create at the same time a systematic link between different forms of learning.’ (Singh, 2016, p. 126)

Comparison and Interpretation

After the short descriptive juxtaposition of RPL programs in Brazil, Portugal, and Germany, we intend, in this section, to present an analytical comparison between these programmes by highlighting some details of their similarities and differences and, consequently, some explanations. One first aspect is connected to the long (or not so long) tradition these countries have in the field of adult education.

Until 1974, adult education in Portugal was almost non-existent. After the Democratic Revolution, public policy adult education emerged from the negotia-

tions between the state and civil society. Similar to Portugal, adult education in Germany became a central issue in the early 1970s. In fact, the state of Germany declared adult education to be an independent fourth sector of education in the 1970s (Nuisl & Pehl, 2004). In Brazil, the subject of adult education¹⁴ as a specific area has been the topic of debates and initiatives at least since the 1940s (Di Pierro, Joia, & Ribeiro, 2001; Almeida & Corso, 2015). However, its trajectory was very unstable until the end of the 20th century. The current understanding of adult education was defined only in 1996, with the 'National Law of Education Directives and Base Lines'. This long historical experience happened mainly because of pressure coming from civil society organisations, such as teachers' unions and literacy movements. Despite that, in Brazil, adult education continues to be a devalued object within the scope of laws, programmes, and the allocation of state resources (Rummert, 2007).

Another important similarity between Germany and Portugal is related to their entering the EU. While Germany became a member of the EU in 1958, Portugal's membership started in 1986. The EU entry of Germany and Portugal has enabled new opportunities thanks to financing programmes. Additionally, the influence of the European Union has been evident in the Portuguese educational agenda and in German education policy, especially after the Memorandum of Lifelong Learning.

Therefore, the EU performs an important role in adult education programmes such as strategies of lifelong learning in Portugal and Germany. The Qualifica Programme and the ProfilPASS concept and instrument were established in the context of lifelong learning policy. According to the Lisbon Strategy, it is important to improve the employability and qualification of workers. In this sense, Lima and Guimarães (2011) stress that the Lisbon Strategy had the purpose of 'constructing the most dynamic and competitive economy in the world by 2010, based on knowledge and, simultaneously, capable of guaranteeing a sustainable economic growth, with more and better jobs and greater social cohesion' (p. 77). Thus, the fundamental aspects of the Lisbon Strategy focus on education, training, lifelong learning in articulation with labour and the knowledge society.

Following the influence of the EU, funding emerges as an important tool. Financing coming from structural funds (ESF) promotes several adult education programmes and activities directed to labour market needs. The Qualifica Programme and ProfilPASS were supported by EU structural funds and national funds. For example, Qualifica is funded by the ESF (85%) and national resources (15%). ProfilPASS is co-funded by the ERASMUS+ and/or Socrates Programmes

¹⁴ In Brazil, adult education is known and treated as 'Youth and Adult Education'. The particularities regarding this theoretical conception will not be addressed in this paper, but it is important to note that they exist.

of the EU, the German federal government and the state governments (Federal Ministry of Education).

On the other hand, Brazil is not an economically or socially developed nation. On the contrary, it is a Latin American country that had a late development inside the monopolist capitalist order of the 20th century (Mandel, 1978). Also, it does not have the financial and political support of a supranational institution such as the EU. In this context, as Rummert (2007) states, the country has a persistent tradition of undervaluing adult education policies. In fact, it is a negative historical trend that affects all social policies, including adult education in particular. Therefore, it is not surprising that RPL policies have never received much attention from the different governments. The Certific Network is a great example of that. Despite being the most important RPL experience in the country, it does not have its own funding source. This is certainly one of the main causes of difficulties and delays in the implementation and operationalisation of this policy.

Concerning the historical, political, and social context, Certific is an innovative and recent policy that addresses RPL in Brazil. In fact, it was regulated and created in 2009 as a public policy for professional education focused on social inclusion. In Portugal, several initiatives and programmes have been implemented to increase the qualification of the Portuguese population; however, they were not successful. Qualifica was launched in 2017 with the same purpose.

Relating to public policy, the government seems to have an important role in these three programmes, namely in terms of guidance and support. Moreover, the state had an important role in adult education policy implementation through the intervention of central government entities – Ministry of Education and Labour (Certific), Ministry of Education and Ministry of Labour, Solidarity and Social Security (Qualifica), and Ministry of Education (ProfilPASS). Besides that, there are other national public institutions responsible for these programmes, such as Federal Institutes of Education (Certific), National Agency for Qualifications and Vocational Education and Training (Qualifica), and German Institute for Adult Education, German Institute for International Educational Research, and Institute for Development Planning and Structural Research (ProfilPASS). In the case of Brazil, the institutions involved in Certific are federal, provincial, district, and municipal networks of vocational education, the national learning services, and non-governmental organisations.

While Certific and Qualifica are public policies for adult education, the ProfilPASS is an instrument for adults. Certific and Qualifica are regulated, whereas ProfilPASS does not have regulation. According to Nuissl and Pehl (2004), AE 'is not regulated in the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Germany' (p. 19).

Taking into account the low level of qualifications in Brazil and in Portugal, the Certific and the Qualifica are seen as political strategies. Both programmes are aimed to increase adult qualification. With the purpose of social inclusion, the Certific aims to assist workers who are interested in having their professional knowledge recognised and certified for the purpose of further studies or professional practice. This means that the knowledge that is acquired in non-formal and informal learning processes can be valued and certified – professional certification. Likewise, the Qualifica programme intends to increase adults' skills and qualifications level for the labour market. As a public provision, Qualifica's main aim is to improve the levels of education and training of adults to help advance their education and employability. In this vein, another aim of this programme is to adapt the offerings and training networks to the needs of the labour market. The aims of ProfilPASS are similar to those of Certific and Qualifica. It is designed to promote: 1) personal and professional (re)orientation; 2) (re)integration into professional life; 3) planning of professional evolution. These results show that employability seems to be an issue relevant to the adult education field. As Lima, Guimarães, and Touma (2016) point out:

[T]hese purposes arise in the context of globalisation and the restructuring of the Portuguese economy, also in keeping with the lifelong learning perspective established by the EU as part of human resources management principles, and with values related to social cohesion aimed at the integration of different participants in ALE, in line with the modernisation and social control and democratic and emancipatory models. (p. 51)

Nonetheless, these three programmes encompass an individual and reflexive approach, insofar as they want to help adults reflect on their experiences and learnings developed in non-formal and informal settings. Furthermore, this raises several issues related to individual self-esteem.

Conclusion

Recent statements about the multidimensional changes going on in our world (e.g. climate crisis, war, migration, and the COVID-19 pandemic) acknowledge lifelong learning, with an emphasis on adult education, 'as a human right – [it] must ensure the recognition, validation and accreditation of learning outcomes acquired in different contexts, democratizing the negotiation of individual and social learning demand' (UIL, 2020, p.10). To build an inclusive society, the recognition, validation, and accreditation (RVA) of prior learning is more important

than ever for specific vulnerable and disadvantaged target groups (see Table 1). In this paper, we intended to compare similarities and differences between RPL initiatives in Brazil, Portugal, and Germany:

Table 1. Summary table with the main characteristics observed in the three cases (developed by the authors)

Analytical and Comparison Axes	Brazil <i>Certific Network</i>	Portugal <i>Qualifica Programme</i>	Germany <i>ProfilPASS Concept and Instrument</i>
Context	<p>I. Late capitalist development, with low education levels, deep presence of informal labour, high levels of inequality, etc.</p> <p>II. History of devaluation in adult education and low tradition in RPL policies.</p>	<p>I. Public policy for adult education emerged after the Democratic Revolution in 1974;</p> <p>II. EU Member State since 1986, which has enabled new opportunities through financing programmes;</p> <p>III. Evident influence of EU on the Portuguese educational agenda.</p>	<p>I. EU Member State since 1958;</p> <p>II. Adult education became a central issue in the early 1970s;</p> <p>III. The state declared adult education as an independent fourth sector of education in the 1970s.</p>
Central Aims	<p>I. Offer professional certification processes, free of charge, for purposes of study or professional practice;</p> <p>II. Monitor and evaluate the implementation of professional certification processes;</p> <p>III. Articulate public policies on employment, work and income, professional training and schooling, through strategies that aim for social inclusion and equity in the creation and building of educational projects for professional certification.</p>	<p>I. Increase adults' skills and qualification levels in order to improve the employability of adults;</p> <p>II. Reduce illiteracy rates and increase the participation rates of the population in education and training;</p> <p>III. Improve the system with young adults investing more in education and training;</p> <p>IV. Bring educational attainment rates to the level of other European countries;</p> <p>V. Adapt the offer and training networks to the needs of the labour market.</p>	<p>I. Increase adults' skills and qualifications levels for the labour market;</p> <p>II. Assist people in finding out their strengths and competences;</p> <p>III. Prevent people from dropping out of training and education.</p>
Target Groups	<p>I. Young and adult workers (over 18 years old);</p> <p>II. Holders of a certificate or diploma compatible with the minimum education required for the respective professional certification process.</p>	<p>I. Adults (over 18 years old);</p> <p>II. Unemployed people and youth not in employment, education or training (NEETs);</p> <p>III. Individuals without completed basic or secondary education.</p>	<p>I. People who are transitioning: job seekers, immigrants, unqualified workers, marginalized groups, students transitioning to work, etc;</p> <p>II. Entrepreneurs can use the instrument to source employees.</p>

Analytical and Comparison Axes	Brazil <i>Certific Network</i>	Portugal <i>Qualifica Programme</i>	Germany <i>ProfilPASS Concept and Instrument</i>
Format and Structures	<p>I. Organised and developed by the Ministry of Education and Ministry of Labour;</p> <p>II. Governance and operational structures are composed of public institutions of vocational education networks and non-governmental organisations;</p> <p>III. The most important institution inside the Network is the 'Federal System of Professional, Scientific and Technological Education', which contains the units that effectively develop the certification processes (Certific Centres);</p> <p>IV. Operationalisation problems: there are no extra funds for a specific physical structure or labour force.</p>	<p>I. Organised and developed by the Ministry of Education and Ministry of Labour, Solidarity and Social Security;</p> <p>II. Implemented in Qualifica Centres, which are promoted by public and private institutions;</p> <p>III. Supported by EU structural funds and national funds.</p>	<p>I. An instrument organised by the Ministries of Education;</p> <p>II. Not regulated by the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Germany;</p> <p>III. Supported by EU structural funds and national funds.</p>

Although the countries compared here have invested in the financing of RPL, less attention has been given to the demand side, for example how companies and individuals can be encouraged to access RPL opportunities. So, what are the benefits of these RPL initiatives for learners or individuals? As Singh stated: 'From some countries we learn about difficulties in involving employers with RVA. These difficulties centre on a range of questions: Who will conduct RVA? Where will it be conducted? Who will pay for it? What actual benefits will it hold for employers? As well as the development of infrastructure and processes, aligning RVA to career and skills development (...).' (Singh, 2016, p. 144).

In general, it seems safe to say that the potential of RPL is not yet realised. One of the main topics might be furthering linkages between (adult) educational institutions working in the fields of RPL, labour market needs, workplaces, community life, and individual interests. (Critical) lessons learnt demonstrate the ongoing need for:

- high-level commitment by policymakers, institutional leaders, stakeholders and practitioners at the federal, provincial/territorial, and community levels (cf. Singh 2016);

- tools and guidance as the currency of learning (instead of the learning outcome ‘competencies’);
- awareness-raising to highlight the benefits and opportunities of RPL to learners, employees, people not in education or employment, and employers (Singh, 2016);
- processes for RVA that facilitate access for underprivileged people who lack educational opportunities (Singh, 2016);
- processes that are trustworthy, reliable, and flexible, as well as rigorous in terms of AE professional expertise;
- the provision of transparent and openly accessible RPL information and support for learners (candidates);
- the presence of strong links between the education and training sectors, the world of work, and civil society (Singh 2016).

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Konteksti priznavanja prethodnog učenja: komparativna studija inicijativa za priznavanje prethodnog učenja u Brazilu, Portugaliji i Nemačkoj

Apstrakt: Glavna svrha ovog rada jeste razmatranje i upoređivanje različitih „stvarnosti“ u vezi sa priznavanjem prethodnog učenja u informalnim i neformalnim kontekstima učenja u tri zemlje, a to su Brazil, Portugalija i Nemačka. Javna politika „Certific Network“ u Brazilu uređuje priznavanje i sertifikaciju prethodnog učenja. Program „Qualifica Programme“ u Portugaliji posvećen je priznavanju znanja i veština koji se stiču tokom celog života. Projekat „ProfilPass Project“ u Nemačkoj usredsređen je na vrednosti ili veštine koje se stiču informalnim i neformalnim putem. Što se tiče metodologije međunarodne komparativne analize, u radu se te inicijative ispituju i upoređuju u tri komparativne ose: 1) *ključni ciljevi*, 2) *ciljne grupe*, 3) *formati i strukture mera*. Ovako sprovedeno komparativno istraživanje ukazuje na značaj razumevanja koncepata priznavanja prethodnog učenja i praktičnih stvarnosti u različitim društvenim, političkim i ekonomskim kontekstima.

Ključne reči: priznavanje prethodnog učenja, Brazil, Portugalija, Nemačka.

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ARTICLES

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Older People's Transformative Learning in a Project Group

Abstract: A project group could be a foundation for a group members' transformative learning as older people in a project group foster learning, researching and acting publicly through cooperation. We see transformative learning as a key part of lifelong learning of older people because it does not only increase knowledge but also increases awareness of oneself and the local community. Transformative learning, however, may be seen as a way to help adults make sense of their experiences and make meaning of. In the article we will introduce theories of transformative learning, situated learning and biographical learning. Furthermore, we will think about the concept of ageing in place and examine the concept of inclusion of older people into society. The empirical part of the project explores the process of learning and education of older people through their active involvement into a project group of the international project *Personal Town Tours*. We found that participation in the project's activities and research of the city of Ljubljana are an incentive for transformative learning through place attachment.

Key words: transformative learning, biographical learning, situated learning, place attachment.

Introduction

Learning in later life brings new challenges in the field of culture, sustainable development, personal growth, active citizenship, etc., and with the acquired knowledge, it brings a change of beliefs, attitudes and values. It has an important emancipating role as it encourages older adults to critically evaluate their own situation and to retain control over their own lives and possibilities (Glendenning & Battersby, 1990). Learning in later life affects the quality of older people's lives as its impacts extend to the social, psychological, personal, economic, cultural, and civic spheres of life. A project group may facilitate the learning process and

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foster the development of transformative learning of older people in order to fulfil personal and professional lifelong learning (Yunga, 2019). Moreover, transformative learning can enhance older people's ability to become self-directed and to act upon assumptions and premises on which their performance, achievement, and productivity are based (Merriam & Caffarella, 1999).

In the article, we will present the value of the project *Personal Town Tours* and the importance of participation of older people in international projects affecting transformative learning and, especially, the importance of involvement of older people in the local and international environment. The emphasis of our research was the learning of older people. We were interested in the learning and educational processes in the project group and the way its members regard the process of learning, cooperation, and exchange of views within the group.

Learning of Older People through Ageing in Place

The significance of place and place attachment have been discussed by many authors (Kellaher, Peace & Holland, 2004; Peace, Holland, & Kellaher, 2005; Lewicka, 2005; Casakin & Neikrug, 2012). As philosopher Heidegger says (1958 in Relph, 2016, p. 1) "place places man in such a way that it reveals the external bonds of his existence and at the same time the depths of his freedom and reality." Place is perceived differently by each individual, depending on what the individual has experienced there, how one uses it and what it means to him. At this point, a reference can be made to the concept of place attachment, a multidimensional construct because of its physical, social, emotional, psychological and cultural aspects (Iecovich, 2014; Anton & Lawrence, 2014; Ujang & Zakariya, 2015). Place attachment is defined as the development of an affective bond between people or individuals and specific places expressed through the interplay of affects and emotions, knowledge and beliefs, and behavior and actions (Hidalgo & Hernandez, 2001; Knez, 2005; Low & Altman, 1992). It is the emotional tie that individuals develop with their place of residence, as well as other places (e.g. birthplace). Individuals attach to a place when that place is well-identified and felt significant by them and is able to provide the conditions to fulfil their functional needs and support their behavioral goals (Williams et al., 1992, in Ujang, 2012). As people age, they increasingly become attached to the place where they live, but concurrently become more sensitive and vulnerable to their social and physical environment. Rowles (1983, in Iecovich, 2014; 1983, in Wahl & Oswald, 2013) developed a theory of "insideness" to conceptualize the attachment to a place, related to three dimensions: 1) physical insideness: living

somewhere for long periods of time and developing a sense of environmental control by creating an idiosyncratic rhythm and routine; 2) social insideness: a social relationship that a person develops with others and is, therefore, known and knowing others; 3) autobiographical insideness: older people's attachment to a place because of the memories they have that shape their self-identity. Wahl and Oswald (2013) state that two processes are going on during place attachment. These are the *process of belonging* and the *process of agency*. The first one consists of the subjective experience with the place, such as interpretation, evaluation, signification, attachment, bonding and familiarity. It occurs primarily through experience that an individual has undergone in a certain place and through one's satisfaction with the living environment. In addition, the process of belonging develops through cognitive and emotional reflection of the place when an individual is giving meaning and importance to it. On the other hand, the process of agency underlines the objective experience with the place and is mostly goal-oriented behavior, such as using, controlling, adapting, creating and sustaining. It goes in the direction of a sense of a place, control over the place and proactivity of older people (Wahl & Oswald, 2013).

The concept of ageing in place includes the coexistence of older people in the community and their active involvement in it. The concept can be considered as the tendency of community development in the direction of openness to all generations and ensuring the quality of life for all members of the community. The research results (Wiler et al., 2011, in Iecovich, 2014) suggest that it is particularly important for older people to have a choice with regards to the living conditions, good access to resources, maintaining social ties, connecting with the local population, a sense of security and a sense of independence at home and in the community. In this context, we see the concept as very important in the direction of greater integration and acceptance of older people in the community. Moreover, it encourages older people to be active in shaping the community in which they live and to contribute to the community, which will be suitable and inclusive for all ages. Therefore, transformative learning occurs through the process of place attachment and aging in place as constructing, changing, and defining meaning of place. It is a lifelong process.

We can understand transformative learning as the process of using a prior interpretation to construct a new or revised interpretation of the meaning of one's experience in order to guide future action (Mezirow, 1996, in Taylor & Cranton, 2013). Transformation embraces the idea that learning goes beyond quantifiable and recognizable territories questioning our understanding of the world when there is a challenge to our belief system (Cranton & King, 2003). Transformative learning happens when critical reflection takes place: While the meanings are

being reshaped, the frame of reference is being changed and an individual has the opportunity to place his or her experiences into a new or changed frame of reference (Fleischer, 2006). This means that what we build through critical reflection is subjective and personal and, therefore, very sensitive to changes. We should find out whether our newly constructed meaning is proper, so we, consequently, enter in a rational discourse with each other, allowing us to evaluate the reality of interpretations, beliefs, attitudes, etc. We conclude that rational discourse is the medium through which transformation is promoted and developed (Mezirow, 1997; Mezirow, 2003). Action is the last act of transformative learning. Without action, transformative learning does not have meaning because learning always has to have action as its goal. Transformative learning is oriented through the individual into society. It is oriented towards the change of the socio-cultural realities.

The individual's worldview is affected by personal experiences and they are very important for the individual's general orientation in the world. Life experience is formed on the basis of the individual's activity in the environment and on the basis of knowledge, which is obtained through one's activeness. Jarvis (2003, p. 100) equates biography with life experience, which he believes represents the totality of the individual's experience. Biographical learning, however, is not just one's own process, but it is also a social process and it could also be understood as learning one's life and learning from one's life (Biesta & Tedder, 2007). Alheit (2009) says that biographical learning is like an autopoietic process (a process that goes in the direction of self-production and self-building up) in which an individual learns from his biography and from one's life. An autopoietic system protects its autonomy and stores information in order to develop within itself and preserve its identity. Information is crucial for it, much like information about identity, experiences and emotions is crucial for the individual. This information is the basis for one's learning and it triggers the process of learning. Additionally, biographical learning encompasses the interest in the influence of biography on learning processes and practices, and the interest in biography itself as a field of learning (Alheit, 1995). On the other hand, Buschmeyer (1990, in Govekar-Okoliš & Ličen, 2008) believes that through biographical learning, an individual seeks various forms of identification and personal identity, so it involves different ways of learning: transformative, experiential and narrative.

Biographical, situated and transformative learning are inextricably linked. The experience and reflection are crucial for transformative and biographical learning. Hallqvist, Ellströmand Hydén (2012) suggest that biographical learning should be composed of two elements: reflexive identity and creative action. Reflexive identity represents the use of the individual's own life experience to maintain or improve his identity, while creative action represents the individual's

planning of future activities and reflecting on his prior experiences in order to better understand his future, present and past actions. An individual incorporates one's narratives in his own life and work, therefore, has the possibility to evaluate past experiences and plan future activities. One's narratives represent a source of learning not only about history but also about life itself. Narratives were an important source for development of town tours based on personal narratives of project participants and inhabitants of Ljubljana. Those narratives were about different activities and situations happened in the city and their daily work. Learning is embedded in different situations we go through and, in fact, cannot be separated from everyday life and activities as the concept of situated learning assumes. Lave and Wenger (1991) assert that learning is part of an individual's activity and is a person's activeness in the community, whether that community is our family, friends, an organization, or leisure activities. They also claim that we are involved in many communities of practice in everyday life, where we are constantly learning, changing and developing, which is why learning is an integral and inseparable part of life (Wenger, 1998, 2009). Situated learning is informal, touching upon different areas, and requires one's responsibility for learning in different situations. Learning represents an individual's participation in different activities and social practices through which one constantly learns and shapes one's identity, although learning is often subconscious (Wenger, 1998, 2009). As stressed by Lave and Wenger (1991), we cannot focus only on the individual as an individual being, but primarily on the individual as a social being, as a member of the wider community. Learning involves the entire personality, therefore, it should never be viewed in isolation and we should never focus only on one specific activity. Schugurensky (2006) emphasizes that the majority of situated learning happens accidentally and unintentionally, and Foley (1999) adds that very important and interesting learning in the everyday life of people is informal and incidental.

Situated learning does not include only the learning of the individual but also the learning of the community. The community is being developed by the participation of individuals in communities of practice. We highlight the social dimensions of transformative learning, whereby learning is embedded in a place that is changing and reconstructing. If a community of practice is working to improve its activities, or to improve the community's life, or seeking solutions to the perceived problems, or developing new services, or exploring cultural heritage, the community is being changed together with the members of community of practice. The community is developed and, at some point, also reconstructed by the exhibition, publication, event and service. Change is what connects transformative and situated learning and, of course, we cannot avoid critical reflection or the dialogue, which are an integral part of any activity in the community.

Personal Town Tours Project

The Personal Town Tours project was held at the Slovenian Third Age University from 2012 to 2014. The project was coordinated by Zentrum für Allgemeine Wissenschaftliche Weiterbildung of University of Ulm. The Slovenian Third Age University was one of the six partners involved in the project. The project was funded by the European Commission's Lifelong Learning Program.

The purpose of the project was to train older people to become tour guides of their home towns. The project led to the development of cultural tours that can be offered to national and international guests. In Slovenia, eight older people were involved in the project group. Their mentor was Meta Kutin, a young architect and mentor of the study circle at the Slovenian Third Age University. Tours were developed on the basis of the participants' interests in art, architecture, history, cultural heritage, urban planning and their subsequent research in archives, libraries and oral history reports obtained via interviews and narratives by the project group. Members of the project group developed three town tours:

- *Following the Trace of Lettuce:* The stories of the lettuce named “Krakovo Salat” and the famous Slovenian architect Jože Plečnik are presented in this town tour. Krakovo is the home of the architect. The Krakovo settlement is full of storytelling of its dwellers who grew vegetables and transported them by cart along the Ljubljanica River to Ljubljana's open market, which is named after the architect Jože Plečnik.
- *Dwelling Culture:* The part of Ljubljana called Murgle is presented in this tour as it is known by low densely built-up settlements of single-family atrium homes open to nature and by streets named after trees. Living in the Murgle neighborhood brings an interesting connection between urban living and nature.
- *Meetings—Between Culture and Friends:* At the beginning of the 20th century, citizens used to exchange their impressions, ideas and views related to cultural events in city coffeehouses. These places are, therefore, associated with numerous stories from the cultural sphere. The ambiances of the city's past as well as present gathering places which gave birth to creative ideas are presented in this tour.

Members of the project group focused on their personal narratives and impressions of anonymous inhabitants of Ljubljana. They were eager to discover how they see their city, how visitors see it and how the official history takes part in individual stories. They introduced the city of Ljubljana in an informal and

original way, avoiding repeating stories described in chronicles. Instead, they focused on their daily activities, such as gardening and growing vegetables, boating on the river, walking around, chatting with friends over a cup of coffee in the city's cafés or taking a rest in a home atrium. Thus, Ljubljana is shown in a unique way—from the perspective of older people, who have been living in Ljubljana for a long time. A lot of different topics can leave a genuine impression of Ljubljana when presented personally. Additionally, a personal presentation contributes to better understanding the respective city and its life and culture.

The project group of the Personal Town Tours project was the primary focus in our research. We have assumed that the project group is the place of learning, and personal and community development, therefore we researched whether the project groups were incentives for transformative, biographical and situated learning. We were interested in the learning and education processes in the project group and in the way the members regarded the processes of learning, cooperation, and exchange of views within the group. Besides this, we wanted to find out three things. First, we wanted to know whether the involvement in the project provided the foundation for group members' transformative learning. Second, we wanted to observe the different ways in which the project encouraged the engagement of older people in their local environment and affected the conceptualization of active old age. And third, we were interested in the way the fact that the project and the research itself were conducted in the living quarters of older people affected the course and the results of the research.

Methodology

The research is based on the empirical data of the international project Personal Town Tours. The research was conducted in 2015, one year after the completion of the international project Personal Town Tours. The employment of qualitative methodology with a case study approach and a multi-method strategy was dictated by the nature of the research questions that explore learning processes, place attachment, and older people's involvement.

Sample

The sample for this research was chosen from the project group of the international project Personal Town Tours taking place between 2012 and 2014 at the Slovenian Third Age University. Eight older people participated in the project group and four of them (three female participants and one male participant) were

chosen to conduct semi-structured interviews with them. The interviewees were between 60 and 80 years old.

Data Collection

The employed methods for the fieldwork data-collections were interviews, observations, and visual and documentary modes. Interviews took place in April and May 2015. They were conducted individually; each took approximately 60 to 90 minutes. We also conducted several observations that purposefully covered most of the project group's work. These observations were matched with different parts of the project such as the pilot town tours, the project group meetings, the tour guiding, discussions with interest group members, etc. Visual methods and documentary sources were intended both to complement the previously described methods as well as to provide a separate strand of data. The documentary methods included written narratives on the reasons for choosing a particular theme for the exploration and development of town tours by all project group members as well as members' presentations and descriptions of the town tours. The visual methods included video clips from the project presentation at the Urban Planning Institute of the Republic of Slovenia and the photography exhibition about Ljubljana held at the Slovenian Third Age University mounted by members of the project group.

Data Analysis

We used thematic analysis method (Mesec, 1998) to deal with the collected data. Data collected from the interviews, video clips, and the written narratives was transcribed and analyzed within the aforementioned theoretical framework. The content analysis was inductive: it included open coding as well as creating categories and abstractions to enable data comparison and interpretation.

Results

Place attachment

The analysis of the interviews shows that the members of the project group are attached to Ljubljana because they all expressed their close relationship with the city. Attachment to the city is built through the physical dimension of space (houses with an atrium in Murgle, the Ljubljanica River), the emotional psy-

chological dimension (memories, anecdotes, activities) and the social dimension (contact with students, neighbors, communication with costermongers on the market). Their life story was built through outdoor and indoor activities, service use, use of public space and neighborhood life; knowing that, we can claim that a place maintains the social identity. All of the members' memories are associated with a place and people, without whom they would not be themselves. A person develops in contact with others and with a place—an individual in an empty place does not exist.

“What has marked me for all of my life? Life and the love of nature, which I have inherited from my parents and grandparents. My father was a forester and hunter all his life and has always been strongly connected with nature and living in it. I have found all this passion and love in Murgle, in this house where I have lived since 1985. The quality of living in this part of our city has met my expectations and compensated for the “splendors” of the place where I spent my childhood.”

Stokols and Shumaker (1981, in Livingston, Bailey & Kearns, 2008) say that we are attached to the place in a functional and in an emotional way, which can be confirmed by our research. The interviewees expressed that they were given opportunities by the place that has met their expectations, by enjoying the place, acquiring new knowledge about the place, etc. Additionally, they are attached to the place with a lot of memories, feelings, emotions and moods, which indicates their emotional attachment.

“Ljubljana, considered by many as one of the most beautiful cities, is my city. I feel this way walking through its streets, squares and parks, and reminiscing about pleasant walks in the Botanical Garden with my mother, who taught me to appreciate nature and enjoy it.”

Experiencing the place is always subjective and is related to past experiences and actions. Here we can refer to Relph (2016), who believes that home is a significant part of older people's identity because of the length of time living there and the amount of experiences and, therefore, has a significant impact on the quality of life in old age. We found that the project group members identify with Ljubljana and feel a special kind of fondness towards it. Some of them have experienced first love in Ljubljana, as one member revealed. She had found in the Ljubljanica River a quiet romance and nostalgia in her younger years: *“Walks to Rožnik Hill will be stamped on my memory forever because I have pleasant memories of how we kids competed among ourselves who will be the first to reach the Church of the Visitation on this hill.”*

We argued, therefore, that their place of residence has become an extension of themselves. A member of the project group emphasized that each individual must have a home somewhere because without it, one is lost. Home is irreplaceable, he says. We agree with his opinion because home gives us some sort of security, not only physical, but also psychological: It allows us to know who we are, in what aspects we are different from others, in what aspects we can be compared with others, and allows us to build our self-esteem and self-confidence (Livingston et al., 2008).

We claim that the fact that the project and the research itself were conducted in the living quarters of the interviewees greatly affected the course and the results of the research. We have found that the selection of tours originated in: a) personal attitude towards Ljubljana; b) personal experience of nature, paths and childhood; c) knowledge and use of the city; d) use of public spaces; e) narratives of friends, colleagues, family and neighbors; f) daily city activities; g) personal stories and memories.

Learning process

Based on the analysis of the interviews, we found that biographical learning encourages exploring roots, history and family stories. Buschmeyer (1990, in Govekar-Okoliš & Ličen 2008) states that an individual also uses biographical learning to discover his personal identity. One member says that the fundamental questions are hidden in art: where we come from, who we are and where we are going. These were the central questions in her youth. Only through the exploration of the Opera (she and her parents worked there), where she spent her childhood, youth and adulthood, she began to wonder who she is. Her family has been closely linked to the Opera and, as she says, she did not know much about it until the beginning of the project. Researching the colleagues' narratives and literature she was able to get to know the Opera and this research has also become a process of learning family history and narratives:

“Because of her profession (art historian, curator and documentarian), my sister Eva is a source of family stories, which I know poorly. Reminiscing with her about the past opened a new world to me and turned me back to the old stories of my grandparents and great-grandparents, and led me to the question: Where do I come from?”

The development of town tours and, consequently, the acquirement of new knowledge was not only limited to the project group's meetings. On

the contrary, it has been integrated into the daily lives of the members of the project group. New insights on topics, new ideas, new findings and inspirations emerged in the variety of everyday activities and situations. Considering Wenger and Lave's (Wenger, 1998, 2009) theory of situated learning, which states that learning is embedded in an individual's every activity and is, therefore, part of his community activities, we can argue that situated learning took place in the project. For the members of the group, participating in the Personal Town Tours meant spontaneous learning, caused with their active participation in the project group. Lave and Wenger (1991) have emphasized that we should always look at an individual as a social being, a being that is always socially constructed and embedded in various aspects of social life. Therefore, learning cannot be isolated or focused only on one activity, but is scattered in various individual and social activities and a person is continuously engaged in the learning process. The interviewees have been involved in the learning process continuously, directly or indirectly, whether in the study groups of the Third Age University study circle, drinking coffee in the Tivoli Opera House, studying at home in the Murgle area, etc.

We discovered that transformative learning could be found in all forms of learning during the project. Transformative learning is most clearly seen in the case of Z1 and his changed experience of his childhood route to Trnovo. He evaluated this experience and gave it a new meaning through researching the Trnovo district:

“In my middle age, I had an opportunity to listen to a lecture of an architect speaking about Plečnik's work and its importance for Ljubljana. My youthful perception of the Trnovo path has been changed by this lecture. The houses and monuments along the path have acquired a new meaning and have become a reminder of the times due to the new knowledge about their history and Plečnik. My journey from childhood was so filled with messages. Today, in the third stage of life, my perception of the path is full of new meanings and visions. The perception of my aunt's cherry trees and the swimming pool in Kolezija became even more rich and meaningful. I experience specific characteristics of urban streets in a different way now.”

Self-reflection is very important according to transformative learning: reflection of one's own experience and action, which is then extended to the social level. An individual cannot act towards changing the society without self-discovery and development because reflecting on one's own beliefs, attitudes and values is missing. Project group members derived from precisely this

aspect. Firstly, they originated from themselves: from their personal experience of Ljubljana, their daily activities and personal biographies. In the second step of the research, they extended the research to the inhabitants of Ljubljana. Finally, all findings, narratives, photographs and ideas were combined and formed into three town tours, covering both personal and architectural aspects. Town tours, a photo exhibition, posters and publications were their actions, with which they entered the public domain. They started a dialogue with the public to discuss urbanism and architecture as well as the importance of experiencing the city. We cannot stress enough that a city cannot exist without the narrative of its inhabitants, without place attachment and without the inhabitants' attitude towards it. The city and its residents are increasingly interdependent, co-creating each other.

*The effects of participation in the project on the individual
and the local community*

Members of the project group easily recognized the effect of their participation on themselves, but showed poor recognition of the effect on the local community. One member stated that her research helped improve communication among neighbors and their involvement in storytelling and monitoring the project results. Another member stated that her family finally accepted her active ageing and they do not complain anymore. Generally, they feel the project results (town tours, publication and exhibition) are important for Ljubljana and its tourist offer, but they are poorly recognized. The effects of participation in the project for the interviewees include better communication in foreign languages, acquiring new knowledge, easier speaking in public and tour guiding, personal development and greater self-confidence, and better teamwork as well.

Conclusion

The theory of transformative learning is one of the most developed theories in adult education because it prospers to address issues exclusive to adult learners such as the ability to reflect critically on experiences, integrate this knowledge into existing knowledge structures, and take action on these insights (Leong Kappel & Daley, 2004, p. 83). Such was the work in the project group of the international project *Personal Town Tours*. The older people, members of the project group, discovered and researched Ljubljana and its stories in various ways: inde-

pendently by reading literature and searching for archival articles in the National and University Library, they collaborated in creating topics and tours, they researched their own history, they evaluated their stories, experiences and visions of Ljubljana, they designed a photo exhibition and published a tourist guide and presented their work in partner countries.

We took the transformative learning model as an umbrella model, as we believe that changing attitudes, beliefs, assumptions, views, stereotypes, and emotions relating to one's own personality as well as architecture, history, urban space and one's participation in the local community was one of the most pronounced and intense. We claim that the participation in the Personal Town Tours project was an incentive for transformative learning. We have found that biographical and situated learning took place among project group members, while critical reflection and dialogue were central in changing their beliefs about themselves, their colleagues and their perception of Ljubljana.

We have found that not only were the project group members changed, but also their families and friends, indirectly also the city. Project group members spoke publicly about their activities, exploring the city and other actions. They pointed to the fact that the city is not the property of decision makers but is mostly in the hands of its inhabitants. They have entered in a dialogue with the local community about the city experiences and its importance for the inhabitants of Ljubljana. Moreover, they dispelled stereotypes about older people with their activeness and raised the awareness about the importance of including older people in the community.

We believe that international projects are an opportunity for greater involvement of older people in a local and international environment, a source of learning and a journey of self-discovery and self-development. They are also important from the perspective of building a European identity, breaking stereotypes and prejudices of different nationalities and promoting cooperation in a local and wider community. Participation of older people in international projects is very important for them as well as for their families, friends and the wider community. We believe, therefore, that international projects are very welcome in older adult education, thereby enriching their knowledge which is passed on to their local community. Ultimately, in today's society when transferability and mobility are high on the current agenda, jarring changes at points in an older learner's life are inevitable (Yunga, 2019). Transformative learning theory is therefore important and well-situated to the current European politics of active ageing and knowledge-based society.

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Transformativno učenje starijih ljudi u okviru projektne grupe

Apstrakt: Projektna grupa bi mogla da predstavlja temelj za transformativno učenje članova grupe, budući da stariji ljudi u projektnim grupama putem saradnje neguju učenje, istraživanje i javno delovanje. Transformativno učenje smatramo izuzetno značajnim u okviru celoživotnog učenja starijih ljudi jer ne samo da poboljšava znanje, već ujedno unapređuje svest o sebi i lokalnoj zajednici. Međutim, transformativno učenje se može smatrati sredstvom koje odraslim ljudima pomaže da njihova iskustva zadobiju smisao i da ih shvate. U ovom radu ćemo predstaviti teorije transformativnog učenja, situacionog učenja i biografskog učenja. Uz to, razmotrićemo koncept starenja u poznatom okruženju i ispitati koncept uključivanja starijih ljudi u društvo. U empirijskom delu projekta istražuje se proces učenja i obrazovanja starijih ljudi kroz njihovo aktivno uključivanje u projektnu grupu u okviru međunarodnog projekta „Personal Town Tours“. Zaključili smo da su učešće u projektnim aktivnostima i istraživanju Ljubljane podsticaj za transformativno učenje kroz vezanost za mesto.

Ključne reči: transformativno učenje, biografsko učenje, situaciono učenje, vezanost za mesto.

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Predviđanje ekološkog aktivizma – uloga znanja, stavova, afekta i ponašanja⁵

Apstrakt: U komponente ekološke pismenosti ubrajaju se znanja, stavovi, afekat, ponašanje i ekološki aktivizam. Cilj rada je da ustanovimo da li se može predvideti ekološki aktivizam na osnovu ekoloških znanja, proekoloških stavova, afekta i ponašanja. Osim toga, cilj istraživanja je i da ispitamo u kojoj meri se pojedinci različitog nivoa aktivizma razlikuju u poznavanju osnovnih ekoloških problema, ekspresiji stava ekološke apatije, antropocentrizma, pripadnosti prirodi i povezanosti sa njom, kao i uobičajenim praksama proekološkog ponašanja. Na uzorku odraslih ispitanika iz Srbije, članova grupe okupljene oko jednog ekološkog problema (N = 255), utvrđeno je da opšta ekološka znanja sama po sebi ne doprinose ni proekološkim ponašanjima ni ekološkom aktivizmu. Prediktori aktivizma jesu proekološki stavovi, afektivni odnos prema prirodi i uobičajena proekološka ponašanja, mada doprinose razlikovanju grupe slabo aktivnih članova od dve grupe aktivnijih, ali ne i razlikovanju aktivnih u virtuelnom prostoru od onih koji lično participiraju. Razliku među tim grupama po svoj prilici čine druge varijable, poput lokusa kontrole, vrednosti i fenomena kvaziaktivizma. Utvrđena povezanost znanja i emocionalnog afiniteta prema prirodi, prema svemu sudeći, predstavlja recipročni odnos i ukazuje na to da je pravi put učenja sticanje znanja, ali uz razvijanje ljubavi prema prirodi.

Ključne reči: ekološki aktivizam, opšta ekološka znanja, stavovi i afekat, proekološka ponašanja.

Uvod

Naša zemlja se poslednjih godina suočava sa brojnim ekološkim problemima, poput visokog zagađenja vazduha, velikog broja divljih deponija, nerazvijene infrastrukture za reciklažu otpada, devastacije reka radi izgradnje malih hidroelektra-

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⁵ Rad predstavlja rezultat rada definisan Ugovorom o realizaciji i finansiranju naučnoistraživačkog rada NIO u 2020. godini (broj Ugovora: 451-03-68/2020-14/200018).

na. EPI (*environmental performance index*) predstavlja međunarodno uspostavljen kompozitni pokazatelj očuvanosti ekosistema (koji se odnosi na prirodne resurse, očuvanost biodiverziteta, zagađenje vazduha, emisiju štetnih gasova i klimatske promene) i pokazatelj dostignutog zdravlja okruženja (koje obuhvata pokazatelje poput kvaliteta vazduha i pijaće vode i pojave teških metala u zemljištu). Od 180 zemalja za koje su računati indeksi EPI, Srbija zauzima 84. rang, što je smešta malo iznad proseka, pri čemu očuvanost ekosistema ima vrednost 55,03 i izjednačena je, na primer, sa Malavijem, Mongolijom, Egiptom, Rusijom i Sjedinjenim Američkim Državama, a niža od vrednosti koju ostvaruju, recimo, Albanija, Belorusija, Katar i Rumunija (Wendling et al., 2018). Imajući u vidu narušenost ekosistema, izuzetno značajno sistematski doprinosi njegovoj zaštiti i unapređenju njegove vitalnosti. S tim u vezi, projekti malih hidroelektrana javljaju se kao jedan od poduhvata koji se sa više aspekata pokazao štetnim za životno okruženje i izazvao veliko angažovanje ekoloških aktivista.

Autori nalaze da male hidroelektrane derivacionog tipa, kakve se uglavnom grade na našim rekama, donose beznačajnu energetska korist, a čine nemerljivu ekološku štetu (Ristić, Malušević, Polovina, Milčanović i Radić, 2018). Negativan stav o projektima iznele su visokoobrazovne institucije i mnogi eksperti, kao i Inženjerska komora Srbije i Akademija inženjerskih nauka Srbije, navodeći da je način određivanja ekološkog protoka vode neadekvatno određen, što dovodi do uništenja vodotokova „najdragocenijih hidrografskih i ekoloških kapilara zemlje“ (Akademija inženjerskih nauka Srbije, 2019).⁶

Uprkos brojnim drugim nedostacima u brizi o životnoj sredini, pitanje malih hidroelektrana je dostiglo veoma visoku vidljivost i predmet je kontinuiranih debata, protesta, javnih nastupa i aktivnosti na društvenim mrežama. U poslednje dve godine formirano je više grupa u virtuelnom prostoru koje se bave tom tematikom, u okviru koje se povezuju i deluju ekološki aktivisti. Jednu od takvih grupa formirao je društveni pokret „Odbranimo reke Stare planine“, koji se izdvaja po broju pratilaca, po organizovanju protestnih okupljanja i građanskoj participaciji. Taj pokret možemo da označimo kao društveni pokret jer deluje kolektivno, vaninstitucionalno i orijentisan je ka promeni i opštem dobru (Snow, Soule & Kriesi, 2004, prema Delibašić, Nikolić i Vasiljević, 2019; Vukelić, 2014). U trenutku nastanka ovog rada, ta virtuelna grupa je okupljala 102.200 članova,

⁶ Za više informacija pogledati: <https://bankwatch.org/project/destructive-hydropower-in-southeast-europe>, http://www.vodoprivreda.net/wp-content/uploads/2019/01/12-Ratko-Ristic-i-saradnici_R.pdf, <https://www.energetskiportal.rs/dekani-cetiri-beogradska-fakulteta-i-direktor-biologskog-instituta-slozni-ne-za-mhe/>, <http://prviprvinaskali.com/clanci/dren/ekologija/smernice-za-odrzivo-planiranje-i-upravljanje-slivnim-podrucjima-malih-hidroelektrana-u-zasticenim-prirodnim-dobrima-rukovodilac-izrade-projekta-dr-ratko-ristic-redovni-profesor-zavrzni-strucni-izvestaj.html?fbclid=IwAR3eTCtIGGMtI97NN7FZAUwdmgrSOY5Yh7D-pVEZ4zwwfYTy6BPK9KuZC0k>.

a u prethodnih mesec dana njih 87.249 bilo je aktivno u virtualnoj interakciji, predstavljajući svojevrsan medij sa značajnim dometom.

Ekološki aktivizam se definiše kao skup različitih ponašanja, poput članstva u grupi koja se bavi ekološkim problemima (Edward & Oskamp, 1992; Manzo & Weinstein, 1987, prema Dono, Webb & Richardson, 2010), angažovanja u političkim aktivnostima (Stern, Dietz, Kalof & Guagnano, 1995, prema Dono et al., 2010), donošenja odluka u vezi sa ekološkim pitanjima (McFarlane & Hunt, 2006, prema Dono et al., 2010) ili kao proces kolektivnih aktivnosti kojima se podržava određeni ekološki pokret (npr. Brechin & Kempton, 1994; Brulle, 1996; Crook & Pakulski, 1995, prema Dono et al., 2010). Aktivisti grupe „Odbranimo reke Stare planine” na grupi dele informacije – ekspertske analize i mišljenja, zakonske regulative koje se odnose na probleme, podatke o pokrenutim sudskim procesima, uočenim neregularnostima, ali i lične stavove. Osim toga, aktivisti tog pokreta uspostavili su saradnju sa stručnjacima iz relevantnih oblasti, pokrenuli brojne pravne procese, učestvovali na tribinama, u emisijama, organizovali protestna okupljanja, prikupljali i objavljivali informacije o poreklu investicija sa malim hidroelektranama itd. Pokret se izdvaja komunikacijom kako sa institucijama i medijima tako i sa različitim grupama – pristalicama, protivnicima, poznavateljima ekološke problematike, slabo obavještenima... (Delibašić i sar., 2019).

Imajući u vidu značaj te grupe, varijetet i učestalost njihovih aktivnosti, autorke su izabrale da upravo kod njenih članova ispituju izraženost različitih komponentni ekološke pismenosti – *znanja, stavova* (ekološke apatije, antropocentrizma, povezanosti sa prirodom), *emocionalnog afiniteta ka prirodi, uobičajenog proekološkog ponašanja*, i da ustanove u kojoj meri te komponente mogu da predvide ekološki aktivizam, kao još jednu komponentu ekološke pismenosti.

Teorijski okvir istraživanja

Ekološka pismenost (kao deo prirodno-naučne pismenosti), prema savremenim koncepcijama, umnogome prevazilazi domen poznavanja naučnih činjenica. Njene komponente su, osim znanja, i stavovi, vrednosti, afekat i ponašanje. Ekološka pismenost zahteva ponašanje zasnovano na strategiji i reprezentuje se u kritičkom odnosu pojedinca prema problemima iz sfere zaštite životne sredine i spremnosti na društveno-političko angažovanje (Marušić Jablanović & Blagdanić, 2019). Ponašanje se stoga može razmatrati na dva nivoa – u svakodnevnim postupcima kojima štitimo životnu sredinu i u društveno-političkom angažovanju čiji je cilj zaštita životne sredine. Prethodna istraživanja pokazuju da, osim ekološkog

znanja, ekološki stavovi predstavljaju jednu od glavnih determinanti ponašanja kojim se štiti životna sredina (Newhouse, 1990, prema Kaiser, Wolfing & Fuhrer, 1999; Gardner & Stern, 2002, prema Rideout, Hushen, McGinty, Perkins & Tate, 2005).

Pojedina istraživanja ukazuju na to da je veza između znanja i postupanja slaba ili da čak izostaje (na primer Negev, Sagy, Garb, Salzberg & Tal, 2008; Kollumuss & Agyeman, 2002; Stanišić, 2009). Više znanja iz oblasti ekologije ne garantuje nužno i veće učešće u ekološkim aktivnostima, odnosno ne garantuje ekološki pozitivno ponašanje. Kaiser i saradnici (Kaiser, Wolfing & Fuhrer, 1996) nalaze da znanje o životnoj sredini i ekološke vrednosti čine značajne preduslove namere ekološkog ponašanja, s obzirom na to da je 40% varijanse namere individue da se ponaša ekološki objašnjeno znanjem o životnoj sredini i ekološkim vrednostima. Autori ističu da je, da bi veza između ekološkog znanja i ekološkog ponašanja bila jača, potrebno znanje o *ekološkom ponašanju* (tj. znanje o tome šta se i kako nešto može učiniti), a ne *činjenično znanje* o okruženju (Levenson, 1974; Sia et al., 1985/86; Smith-Sebasto i Fortner, 1994 prema Kaiser, Wolfing & Fuhrer, 1996). Pokazalo se da stavovi i ponašanja umnogome zavise od toga kako ljudi zamišljaju budućnost u pogledu ekoloških problema (Milfont, Wilson & Diniz, 2012). Dakle, zavisno od toga u kojoj meri se pojedinci plaše da će se dogoditi neki nepovoljan ishod, njihovi stavovi i spremnost na delanje se razlikuju. Očekivanja određenog ishoda, svakako, zavisice od informacija kojima pojedinac raspolaže i njegovog nivoa poznavanja materije. U prvoj fazi istraživanja, autorke su došle do zaključka da znanja predstavljaju nužan ali ne i dovoljan uslov proekološkog ponašanja, iznoseći podatke o značaju ekocentričnog stava i emocionalnog afinieteta prema životnoj sredini za manifestacije poželjnih ponašanja (Stanišić & Marušić Jablanović, 2019).

U literaturi je dugo bio zastupljen stav (na primer, Milfont & Duckitt, 2004) da postoje dve suprotne pozicije kojima se definiše odnos prema prirodi – antropocentrizam, odnosno stav da je čovek najvredniji i najznačajniji deo prirode koji može koristiti prirodne resurse radi svoje dobrobiti, i – ekocentrizam, stav ljudi da je čovek deo prirode, a ne njen gospodar. Novije koncepcije, poput one usvojene u našem istraživanju, predlažu model sa dve nezavisne dimenzije, ekocentričnom (označava viđenje sebe kao dela prirode, jednakog sa njenim ostalim entiteima) i antropocentričnom (shvatanje da čovek gospodari prirodom). Dakle, model dozvoljava istovremeno očuvanje prirode, ali i korišćenje prirodnih resursa uz neremećenje prirodne ravnoteže, čime bi se mogao iskazati odgovoran odnos prema okruženju i koncept održivog razvoja (Côrtes, Dias, Fernandes, & Pamplona, 2016).

Pregledom literature došli smo do podataka o načinu na koji su povezani ekološka znanja, stavovi, afekat i proekološka ponašanja; međutim, uočen je nedostatak podataka o povezanosti tih varijabli sa ekološkim aktivizmom. Cilj našeg rada je da ustanovimo da li se može predvideti ekološki aktivizam na osnovu ekoloških znanja, proekoloških stavova i ponašanja. Osim toga, cilj istraživanja je i da ispitamo u kojoj meri se pojedinci različitog nivoa aktivizma razlikuju po: poznavanju osnovnih ekoloških problema, ekspresiji stava ekološke apatije, antropocentrizma, pripadnosti prirodi i povezanosti sa njom, kao i uobičajenim praksama proekološkog ponašanja.

Metodološki okvir istraživanja

Istraživačka pitanja. U ovom istraživanju želimo da odgovorimo na sledeća pitanja:

1. U kojoj meri se stepen aktivizma pojedinca može predvideti na osnovu njegovih opštih ekoloških znanja, ekoloških stavova i afektivnog odnosa prema prirodi i proekološkim ponašanjima?
2. Kakav je međuodnos opštih ekoloških znanja, proekoloških stavova, afekta i proekološkog ponašanja?
3. Na koji način se tri grupe različite po nivou aktivizma međusobno razlikuju po nivou opštih ekoloških znanja, iskazanih stavova i afektivnog odnosa prema prirodi, kao i proekološkom ponašanju.

Varijable i instrumenti istraživanja.

1. *Opšta ekološka znanja* predstavljaju prvu varijablu i odnose se na opšta pitanja iz oblasti ekologije, koja su ispitanici mogli da steknu u osnovnom i srednjem obrazovanju (mlađi ispitanici) ili u određenim studijama, sa interneta i iz drugih izvora (stariji ispitanici). Za merenje znanja primenjen je *Test činjeničnog znanja o životnoj sredini* (Kaiser, Ranney, Hartig, & Bowler, 1999). Test znanja sadrži deset tvrdnji u vezi sa najopštijim pitanjima iz oblasti zaštite životne sredine, a od ispitanika se zahteva da označi koje su tvrdnje tačne (na primer: *Sagorevanjem fosilnih goriva (nafte, gasa) oslobađa se ugljen-dioksid u atmosferu. Otrovni metali mogu dospeti u lanac ishrane kroz podzemne vodene tokove.*).
2. Amerigo i saradnici (Amérigo, Garcia & Cortez, 2017) razvili su metodološki okvir za merenje proekoloških stavova označenih kao briga za životnu sredinu, koji odražava stepen u kojem je priroda uključ-

na u ideju svakog pojedinca o sebi (Amérigo, Aragonés, & García, 2012). Briga za životnu sredinu obuhvata sledeće četiri varijable:

- a) *ekološka apatija*, koja se smatra stavom koji otkriva ravnodušnost ili nedostatak interesovanja za pitanja zaštite životne sredine;
- b) *antropocentrizam*, koji odražava vrednost korisne prirodne sredine za ljudska bića, opravdavajući očuvanje životne sredine kao resursa za poboljšanje kvaliteta ljudskog života;
- c) *povezanost sa prirodom* koja u literaturi ima i značenje „ekocentrizam“ i koja stavlja naglasak na vrednost jednakosti i međuzavisnosti prirodnog okruženja sa ljudskim bićima, smatrajući da je čovek povezan sa prirodom tako da oba elementa čine sastavni deo jedinstvenog sistema;
- d) *emocionalni afinitet prema prirodi*, koji podrazumeva opažanje ljudskih bića i prirodnog okruženja kao transakcionu celinu (Altman & Rogoff, 1987, prema Amérigo et al., 2017), pri čemu su granice koje ih razdvajaju zamagljene. Emocionalni afinitet zapravo ukazuje na afektivni odnos pojedinca prema prirodi.

Te četiri varijable merene su *Skalom brige za životnu sredinu* (Amérigo et al., 2012). Svaka od četiri supskale imala je po pet tvrdnji, a ispitanici su na ovoj skali imali ponuđene odgovore u rasponu od 1 do 5, kojima su iskazivali nivo slaganja sa ponuđenim tvrdnjama od potpuno se ne slažem (1) do potpuno se slažem (5).

3. Isti autori (Amérigo et al., 2017) mere samoizveštavano proekološko ponašanje pomoću *Skale proekološkog ponašanja*. Skala sadrži tri supskale: energetska efikasnosti i upravljanje resursima (na primer, *Trudim se da štedim vodu kod kuće*), upravljanja otpadom (na primer, *Kod kuće koristim različite kante za smeće zavisno od vrste otpada*) i zelena potrošnja (na primer, *Biram proizvode sa najmanjom količinom ambalaže*). Autorke su u originalni instrument dodale jedan ajtem: *Odvajam papir za reciklažu*. U našem istraživanju ukupna proekološka ponašanja posmatraju se kao jedna varijabla. Skala je trostepena, a podeoci znače sledeće: 1 – nikad, 2 – ponekad i 3 – uglavnom.

Osim pomenutih instrumenata, postavljeno je pitanje o nivou angažovanja u toj ekološki orijentisanoj grupi – ispitanici su imali zadatak da se svrstaju u jednu od tri kategorije definisane na osnovu nivoa aktivnosti: (1) prva grupa označava ljude koji povremeno prate ili uopšte ne prate vesti sa grupe; (2) druga grupa obuhvata pojedince koji su aktivni u onlajn prostoru, koji čitaju i

dele vesti i stupaju u interakciju; (3) treću grupu sačinjavaju pojedinci koji su aktivni u onlajn prostoru, ali su učestvovali i u konkretnim aktivnostima poput analize i prikupljanja dokumentacije, učešća na javnim raspravama, zvanične korespondencije, koncipiranja plakata, sakupljanje potpisa, organizovanja aktivnosti na terenu. Označene su u daljem tekstu kao grupa nisko, srednje i visoko aktivnih.

Validnost *testa znanja* za populaciju građana naše zemlje potvrdila su dva eksperta za oblast ekološkog obrazovanja, koja su se saglasila da se znanja koja se ispituju zadacima mogu smatrati opštim ekološkim znanjima sa stanovišta programa za osnovnu školu i gimnaziju.

Pouzdanost supskala proekoloških stavova je prihvatljiva, α -koeficijenti se kreću od .605 za supskalu *ekološke apatije*, do .829 za skalu *potrebe za prirodom*, dok za skalu *proekološkog ponašanja* koeficijent pouzdanosti iznosi .774. Najzad, učesnicima istraživanja su postavljena pitanja koja su se odnosila na opšte demografske podatke, motivišuće i demotivišuće faktore za aktivizam.

Uzorak. Uzorak čine članovi grupe „Ođbranimo reke Stare planine”, koja se prevashodno bavi problemom malih hidroelektrana i njihovim posledicama po životnu sredinu i stanovništvo. Podaci su prikupljeni od 255 ispitanika, a selekcija uzorka je u najvećoj meri zavisila od algoritma Facebook mreže (kojim se specifikuje vidljivost objave). Starost ispitanika varira od 18 do 72 godine, srednje vrednosti 41,15 godina; osobe ženskog pola su više zastupljene i čine 66% uzorka. Obrazovna struktura odstupa od prosečne strukture stanovništva u Srbiji jer obuhvata samo jednog ispitanika sa završenom osnovnom školom, 67 (26%) sa stečenim srednjim obrazovanjem, 30 (12%) sa višom/visokom školom, 112 (43%) sa završenim fakultetom i čak 43 (17%) ispitanika sa stečenim postdiplomskim obrazovanjem. Obrazovna struktura pokazuje da pojedinci zainteresovani za taj problem dolaze iz visokoobrazovanih slojeva društva. Značajno je napomenuti da 91% potiče iz mesta koja su ugrožena projektima MHE, čime se može objasniti njihova motivacija za participaciju u aktivnostima grupe.

Obrada podataka. U obradi podataka primenjena je deskriptivna statistika za podatke dobijene ispitivanjem znanja, proekoloških stavova i ponašanja, kanonička diskriminativna analiza za predviđanje pripadnosti grupama različitim po stepenu aktivizma, linearna korelacija za utvrđivanje stepena povezanosti među prediktorima aktivizma i analiza varijanse sa *post-hoc* testom kako bi se ustanovilo na kojim varijablama se javljaju razlike između grupa različitih po stepenu aktivizma.

Rezultati istraživanja

Deskriptivni podaci. Kao što može da se vidi u tabeli 1, ispitanici u našem istraživanju ostvarili su gotovo maksimalan skor na testu ekoloških znanja. Ekološka apatija kao odnos nezainteresovanosti za ekološka pitanja i potcenjivanja postojećih problema je niska, antropocentričan odnos prema prirodi (u kojem se ona posmatra kao resurs za ljudsku upotrebu) nije izražen, dok su osećaj pripadnosti prirodi (gde čovek sebe percipira kao deo prirode) i potrebe za prirodom (osećaj da je priroda lekovita i neophodna za ličnu dobrobit) veoma izraženi, što se podudara sa profilom grupe kojoj ispitanici pripadaju. Rezultati *Skale proekološkog ponašanja* pokazuju da je najviši skor ostvaren na energetskej efikasnosti, dok srednje vrednosti za upravljanje otpadom i zelenu potrošnju ne dostižu vrednost koja označava „ponekad“.

Tabela 1. Deskriptivna statistika za varijable: ekološko znanje, proekološki stavovi i proekološko ponašanje

Varijable		Min	Max	AS	SD
Ekološka znanja		5,00	10,00	9,19	,98
Proekološki stavovi	Ekološka apatija	1,00	3,40	1,18	,37
	Antropocentrizam	1,00	5,00	2,28	,84
	Pripadnost prirodi	1,50	5,00	4,70	,54
	Emocionalni afinitet	2,20	5,00	4,70	,49
Proekološko ponašanje	Energetska efikasnost	1,33	2,33	2,18	,21
	Upravljanje otpadom	1,00	2,00	1,70	,36
	Zelena potrošnja	1,00	2,00	1,85	,27

Predviđanje članstva po kategorijama različitog nivoa aktivizma. Ekstrahovane su dve kanoničke diskriminativne funkcije (tabela 2), ali je samo prva statistički značajna ($R = .31$, Vilksova $\lambda = .89$, $\chi^2(12) = 28,96$, $p = .004$). Vrednost Vilksove lambde ukazuje na to da je korišćenim prediktorima objašnjeno tek 11% varijanse.

Identifikovana dimenzija najviše je zasićena varijablama pripadnost prirodi, emocionalni afinitet ka prirodi i proekološka ponašanja i možemo je nazvati ekocentričan pogled na svet. Značajno je da je povezanost supskale antropocentrizma i te dimenzije srednje visoka i pozitivna, a jedina varijabla koja negativno korelira sa dimenzijom je ekološka apatija.

Tabela 2. Standardizovana kanonička diskriminativna funkcija

	Standardizovana kanonička diskriminativna funkcija
	Dimenzija 1
Pripadnost prirodi	,713
Emocionalni afinitet ka prirodi	,659
Ekološka ponašanja	,580
Antropocentrizam	,421
Ekološka znanja	,163
Ekološka apatija	-,276

Tri grupe različitog nivoa aktivizma ostvaruju različite vrednosti na izdvojenoj dimenziji ekocentričnog pogleda na svet (tabela 3). Najviše zasićenje na dimenziji ekocentričnog pogleda na svet beleži se u grupi visoko aktivnih, a nešto je manje u grupi srednje aktivnih, dok je u grupi nisko aktivnih ispitanika zasićenje identifikovanom dimenzijom negativno, što pokazuje da je u grupi neaktivnih odnos prema životnoj sredini obeležen nepostojanjem osećaja pripadnosti prirodi i emocionalnog afiniteta ka njoj, te slabijom učestalošću proekoloških ponašanja. Taj korak nam ukazuje na izražene razlike između grupe koja okuplja nisko aktivne ili neaktivne članove u odnosu na druge dve grupe ispitanika, koje su aktivne u virtuelnom i realnom prostoru. Slučajnim putem verovatnoća za tačnu klasifikaciju iznosi 33,3%, dok oslanjajući se na ekološka znanja, stavove i ponašanja verovatnoća tačne klasifikacije u jednu od tri grupe dostiže 46,3%, te je doprinos ispitivanih varijabli tačnom predviđanju članstva u jednoj od tri kategorije 13%.

Tabela 3. Vrednosti na ekocentričnom pogledu na svet za tri grupe različitog nivoa aktivizma

Nivo aktivizma	Standardizovana kanonička diskriminativna funkcija
	Dimenzija 1
Nizak	-,400
Srednji	,248
Visok	,306

Međusobna povezanost prediktora aktivizma – opštih ekoloških znanja, proekoloških stavova, afekta i proekološkog ponašanja. Opšta ekološka znanja povezana su jedino sa emocionalnim afinitetom ka prirodi, slabo pozitivno (tabela 4). Odnos ekološke apatije negativno je povezan sa proekološkim ponašanjima, stavovima i ekocentričnim pogledom na svet, dok antropocentrizam ne uspostavlja povezanost sa ove tri varijable. Jedina korelacija niskog intenziteta koju uspostavlja

antropocentrizam jeste pozitivna korelacija sa ekološkom apatijom. Proekološka ponašanja najjače koreliraju sa ekološkom apatijom i to negativno, a najjaču pozitivnu korelaciju uspostavljaju sa emocionalnim afinitetom ka prirodi.

Tabela 4. Međusobna povezanost prediktora aktivizma

		Ekološka znanja	Apatija	Antropocentrizam	Pripadnost prirodi	Emocionalni afinitet ka prirodi	Ekološko ponašanje
Ekološko znanje	Pearson Correlation	1	-,102	,042	,038	,181**	,052
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,104	,503	,551	,004	,411
Apatija	Pearson Correlation	-,102	1	,176**	-,246**	-,267**	-,318**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,104		,005	,000	,000	,000
Antropocentrizam	Pearson Correlation	,042	,176**	1	,104	,048	-,028
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,503	,005		,096	,443	,652
Pripadnost prirodi	Pearson Correlation	,038	-,246**	,104	1	,374**	,233**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,551	,000	,096		,000	,000
Emocionalni afinitet ka prirodi	Pearson Correlation	,181**	-,267**	,048	,374**	1	,276**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,004	,000	,443	,000		,000
Proekološko ponašanje	Pearson Correlation	,052	-,318**	-,028	,233**	,276**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,411	,000	,652	,000	,000	

Poređenje nisko, srednje i visoko aktivnih ispitanika u znanju, stavovima i ponašanju. Poslednji korak analize podataka obuhvatio je međusobna poređenja tri grupe ispitanika različite po nivou aktivnosti, u pogledu opštih ekoloških znanja, iskazanih stavova i afektivnog odnosa prema prirodi, kao i proekoloških ponašanja. Primenjena je analiza varijanse sa *post-hoc Tamhane* testom. Rezultati ukazuju na to da između tri grupe ne postoje razlike u znanju (Sig. = ,692), ekološkoj apatiji (Sig. = ,102) ni u antropocentrizmu (Sig. = ,072). Na ostalim varijablama postoje

statistički značajne razlike – za supskalu *pripadnosti prirodi* (Sig. =,001), *emocionalnog afiniteta* (Sig. =,072) i za skalu *proekološkog ponašanja* (Sig. =,010). *Post-hoc* test na supskali *pripadnost prirodi* ukazuje na značajne razlike između grupe nisko aktivnih i dve grupe aktivnijih – grupe virtuelno aktivnih (Sig. =,003) i grupe aktivnih u realnom prostoru (Sig. =,032), u korist dve aktivnije grupe. Takođe, obe aktivnije grupe imaju izraženiji emocionalni afinitet prema prirodi nego grupa slabo aktivnih članova (za virtuelno aktivne Sig. =,019, a za realno aktivne Sig. =,008). U proekološkim ponašanjima uočena je jedna razlika – između grupe nisko aktivnih i grupe aktivnih u virtuelnom prostoru, ukazujući na veću učestalost ekološki odgovornog ponašanja u grupi aktivnih članova (Sig. =,012). Na osnovu tih rezultata možemo da zaključimo da između grupe članova koji su aktivni samo u onlajn prostoru i onih koji su učestvovali u konkretnim poduhvatima ne postoje razlike u opštim ekološkim znanjima, odnosu prema prirodi ili uobičajenim ponašanjima pri kupovini, odvajanju otpada ili štednji energije.

Diskusija

U ovom radu ispitan je doprinos pojedinih komponenta ekološke pismenosti predviđanju nivoa aktivizma, kao još jedne komponente ekološke pismenosti. Uzorak istraživanja je selekcioniran po više osnova – potiče iz grupe orijentisane na jedan određeni ekološki problem i sačinjavaju ga u najvećem procentu visoko-obrazovani ispitanici. Stoga rezultat o skoro maksimalnom prosečnom skoru na testu znanja ne iznenađuje, a možemo ga povezati i sa formalnim obrazovanjem i sa domenom interesovanja ispitanika. Na supskali *ekološke apatije* dobijena je niska vrednost, što ukazuje na to da ispitanici nisu nezainteresovani za ekološka pitanja i ne potcenjuju postojeće probleme. Na našim prostorima decenije unazad obeležili su ratovi, stradanja i osnovni egzistencijalni problemi, čime može da se objasni apatičan odnos ljudi prema ekološkim problemima (Nadić, 2012). I iz tog razloga ispitana grupa se teško može smatrati reprezentativnom za ukupnu populaciju. Antropocentrični odnos prema prirodi, upravo zbog specifično selekcioniranog uzorka, nije zastupljen, a naši rezultati potvrđuju nalaz da se antropocentrični i ekocentrični stavovi ne isključuju međusobno (Amérigo et al., 2017; Côrtes et al., 2016). Osećaj pripadnosti prirodi (čovjek sebe percipira kao deo prirode) i potrebe za prirodom (osećaj da je priroda lekovita i neophodna za ličnu dobrobit) veoma su izraženi kod naših ispitanika, te sve ukupno naši ispitanici imaju proekološki pogled na svet. Prethodna istraživanja realizovana u našoj zemji pokazala su znatno manje izražen proekološki pogled na svet odraslih građana – budućih učitelja i vaspitača (Mišćević Kadijević i Vasiljević, 2019) i poljoprivred-

nih proizvođača (Karapandžin, 2018), što opet svedoči o specifičnosti populacije odabrane za istraživanje. Najviši skor na skali proekološkog ponašanja ostvaren je na energetskej efikasnosti, dok srednje vrednosti za upravljanje otpadom i zelenu potrošnju ne dostižu vrednost koja označava „ponekad“. Takav rezultat je po svojoj prilici posledica nedovoljnog podržavanja takvih ponašanja ekološkom politikom naše zemlje. Ukoliko u svojoj najbližoj okolini nemaju kontejnere za reciklažu ili ukoliko grad ne raspolaže mrežom biciklističkih staza, ljudi nemaju uslova da ispolje ekološko ponašanje, koje bi ispoljili u drugačijim uslovima.

Opšta ekološka znanja nisu povezana sa učestalošću proekološkog ponašanja, kao ni sa ekološkim aktivizmom i možemo ponuditi isto objašnjenje – da opšta znanja iz oblasti ekologije valja smatrati neophodnim, ali ne i dovoljnim uslovom za ekološki odgovorno ponašanje (Stanišić & Marušić Jablanović, 2019), ali i za ekološki aktivizam. Povezanost znanja sa emocionalnim afinitetom ka prirodi može se najpre tumačiti time da pojedinac koji oseća da mu je priroda potrebna, da mu donosi relaksaciju i uživanje (i ima naviku da u njoj provodi vreme) ima više motiva da stiče znanja o njoj i da je bolje upozna. Verovatno je i da postoji recipročan odnos, te da detaljnije učenje o prirodi i njenoj ugroženosti jača osećaj povezanosti sa njom. Budući da je emocionalni afinitet ka prirodi takođe značajan i za proekološka ponašanja i za ekološki aktivizam, možemo ga smatrati značajnim podsticajem raznih delovanja – od učenja do zaštite prirode.

Antropocentrični odnos prema prirodi nije povezan ni sa proekološkim ponašanjem ni sa ekološkim aktivizmom, što pokazuje da antropocentrično sagledavanje prirode nije faktor koji podstiče proekološko ponašanje ili aktivizam. Neočekivan je rezultat da se ekološka apatija ne javlja u ulozi prediktora aktivizma, budući da negativno predviđa proekološko ponašanje, i da je negativno povezana sa ekocentričnim stavovima. Osnovne razlike između aktivista i neaktivista pronalaze se u osećaju povezanosti sa prirodom i emocionalnom afinitetu ka prirodi. Pojedinci koji se aktivno (bilo u virtuelnom prostoru, bilo ličnim angažovanjem) pridružuju naporima da se očuva priroda osećaju u većoj meri da su deo prirode, skopčani su sa njom, poštuju je, priroda za njih ima lekovito svojstvo i potrebna im je. Inače se u istraživanjima često beleži diskrepanca između stavova i ponašanja, što se objašnjava podatkom da stavovi zapravo ne determinišu ponašanje direktno već utiču na nameru pojedinca da se ponaša na određeni način (Kollmuss & Agyenman, 2002). Znanja su jedan od činilaca koji doprinosi smanjenju diskrepance stavova i ponašanja – pojedinci koji poseduju više znanja o ekološkim problemima pokazuju snažniju povezanost između proekoloških stavova i ponašanja (Meinhold & Malkus, 2005), što ukazuje na neophodnost znanja kako bi se među stavovima i ponašanjima uspostavio odnos doslednosti (Marušić Jablanović i Blagdanić, 2019).

Takođe, uprkos činjenici da neka ponašanja ispitana upitnikom nisu podržana infrastrukturnim uslovima (poput reciklaže, vožnje bicikla po gradu...) ili ekonomskim mogućnostima stanovništva (kupovina organskih proizvoda) u dovoljnoj meri, odgovorno ponašanje prema životnoj sredini učestalije je u kategoriji ispitanika koji više participiraju u aktivnostima grupe nego u neaktivnoj grupi. Ipak, od pojedinaca koji imaju razvijenije ekološka navike – više vode računa da kupuju proizvode sa manje ambalaže, da štede struju i odvajaju otpad za reciklažu, ne može se očekivati da pre postanu aktivisti koji će se boriti za zaštitu prirode. Značajno je naglasiti da između dve grupe aktivnih (u virtuelnom prostoru i u praksi) nisu pronađene razlike ni u jednoj ispitivanoj varijabli: nivou obrazovanja, opštem ekološkom znanju, stavovima prema prirodnom okruženju, emocionalnom afinitetu prema prirodi ili uobičajenim ponašanjima usmerenim na njenu zaštitu. Ovaj nalaz upućuje na zaključak da među dvema grupama postoje brojne sličnosti te da činioци po kojima se razlikuju nisu razmatrani u ovom istraživanju. Među takve činioce možemo ubrojiti sistem vrednosti, motivaciju i lokus kontrole. U poznatoj Švarcovoј teoriji zaštita prirode se nalazi u okviru tipa univerzalizam, koji označava vrednovanje dobrobiti svih ljudi (uključujući i one koje ne poznajemo) i prirode, dok je njoj suprotan vrednosni tip – moć, koji označava težnju za ostvarivanjem uticaja nad ljudima i za posedovanjem materijalnih dobara (Schwartz, 2012). Rezultati ukazuju na negativnu povezanost vrednovanja moći sa ekocentričnim stavovima (Schultz & Zelezny, 1999) i na pozitivnu povezanost vrednosti univerzalizma sa proekološkim ponašanjem (Thøgersen & Olander, 2003) i utvrđuju pomenute vrednosti kao determinante ophođenja prema životnoj sredini. Neadekvatna, neekološka motivacija predstavlja barijeru ispoljavanju proekološkog ponašanja (Kollmuss & Agyeman, 2002), a težnja da sebi uštedimo vreme može nadvladati motivaciju za zaštitom životne sredine, što umnogome utiče na pojedinačne akcije i odluke koje svakodnevno donosimo. Svakako, lokus kontrole ima značajan ulogu (Kollmuss & Agyeman, 2002), a donedavno slabo razvijena građanska participacija u Srbiji (Vukelić, 2009) doprinosi nepercipiranju sebe kao agensa promene.

Društvene mreže su poligon za ispoljavanje različitih mišljenja i povezivanje velikog broja ljudi koji se međusobno ne poznaju. One s jedne strane pružaju mogućnost informisanja i izražavanja sopstvenog mišljenja, ali s druge strane stvaraju lažni osećaj da je pojedinac učinio nešto jer je aktivan u virtuelnom prostoru, što ga oslobađa odgovornosti da zaista preduzme konkretne akcije. Na fenomen kvaziaktivizma – odnosno zamene stvarnog političkog angažovanja neplodotvornim onlajn aktivizmom, ukazano je u literaturi (Christensen, 2011), a ista zapažanja navode intervjuisani aktivisti srpskih i makedonskih društvenih pokreta (Delibašić i sar., 2019). Upravo u tom fenomenu može ležati još jedno objašnjenje razlike između virtuelnih i stvarnih aktivista – ovi potonji nisu pod-

legli obmani društvenih mreža i koriste ih prevashodno kao medij, ne uzdajući se u njihov uticaj na rešavanje problema.

Zaključak

Činjenica je da veoma veliki broj činilaca različitog porekla utiče na proekološka ponašanja i ekološki aktivizam i da ih je teško obuhvatiti jednim istraživanjem (Kollmuss & Agyeman, 2002). Ovo istraživanje je pokazalo da opšta ekološka znanja sama po sebi ne doprinose ponašanju usmerenom na zaštitu životne sredine – ni proekološkim ponašanjima ni ekološkom aktivizmu, ali da prediktori aktivizma jesu proekološki stavovi i afektivan odnos prema prirodi i uobičajena proekološka ponašanja. Pomoću izdvojenih prediktora možemo sa 46% sigurnosti da predvidimo da li će pojedinac biti slabo aktivan u svakom pogledu, visoko ali virtuelno aktivan ili učestvovati u konkretnim aktivnostima. Pri tome, zabeležene razlike se odnose na grupu neaktivnih i dve grupe aktivnih članova, te ostaje predmet narednih istraživanja da se utvrdi razlika između virtuelno i stvarno aktivnih.

Dalje, zaključujemo da se odnos ekološke apatije može smatrati nepovoljnijim od antropocentričnog, budući da apatija u značajnoj meri objašnjava izostanak ekoloških navika. Usmerenost na zaštitu prirode radi čovekove dobrobiti i opstanka nije podsticaj ni za proekološko ponašanje ni za aktivnu građansku participaciju, ali jeste pozitivno povezana sa stavom ekološke apatije, te možemo zaključiti da se razvijanjem antropocentričnog odnosa prema prirodi neće dogoditi promene u ponašanju.

Povezanost znanja i emocionalnog afiniteta prema prirodi prema svemu sudeći predstavlja recipročni odnos i ukazuje na to da je pravi put učenja sticanje znanja, uz ali razvijanje ljubavi prema prirodi. Ekološka znanja nisu prediktor ponašanja, ali obezbeđuju konzistentnost stavova i ponašanja (Meinhold & Malkus, 2005), što pokazuje da znanja jesu neophodna za formiranje adekvatnih stavova i ponašanja u skladu sa njima.

Rešenje ekološke krize neće doći zbog toga što će veliki broj ljudi imati samo znanja o ekološkim problemima, već i razvijanjem stavova i vrednosti zasnovanih na ekološkim principima i njima doslednog ponašanja. Ako znamo da su povezanost sa prirodom, osećaj pripadnosti prirodi i potrebe za prirodom značajni prediktori ekološkog ponašanja i aktivizma, obrazovni sistem od vrtića do univerziteta treba da pronađe načine da budi i razvija ljubav prema prirodi kao jedan od osnovnih vaspitno-obrazovnih ciljeva. U skladu sa tim, preporučuje se organizovanje učenja o prirodi u prirodi radi upoznavanja prirodnih lepota i blagodeti koje boravak u prirodi donosi, podsticanja doživljavanja sebe kao dela prirode, ali i svedočenja aktuelnim ekološkim problemima. Dalje, budući da su ekološki problemi

sa kojima se suočava Srbija značajni i da zahtevaju hitne promene u načinu op-
hođenja prema životnoj sredini, potrebne su različite intervencije i u obrazovanju
odraslih. Takvim obrazovanjem, osim širenja opsega znanja o lokalnim i globalnim
ekološkim problemima, treba podsticati i osetljivost na problem očuvanja životne
sredine i spremnost na angažovanje, kao i veštine potrebne za aktivnu građansku
participaciju. Jedan od važnih puteva je posvećivanje pažnje ekološkim problemima
i načinima njihovog prevazilaženja u medijima, potom različitim aktivnostima
ustanova namenjenih neformalnom obrazovanju – poput prirodnjačkog muzeja,
botaničke bašte, zoološkog vrta. Istraživanja pokazuju da se podsticanje ekološke
pismenosti postiže učenjem o prirodi u prirodi, a ono učenjem zasnovanim
na iskustvu (Ballantyne & Packer, 2009) i fleksibilno postavljenom strukturom
učenja (Osman & Pudín, 2009). Razvoju građanskog aktivizma pogoduju i društvene
mreže, na kojima brojne grupe usmerene na očuvanje životne sredine nude
pozitivne primere i konkretne ideje, raznovrsne relevantne informacije i pozivaju
članove na angažovanje. Neformalno obrazovanje odraslih je vitalna komponenta
ekološkog obrazovanja odraslih, budući da ekološko obrazovanje predstavlja celo-
životni proces. Teme očuvanja životne sredine treba intergisati u sve vidove učenja
odraslih kako bi se razvio ekološki pristup celoživotnom obrazovanju (UNESCO,
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odraslom stanovništvu koje za nju mora biti spremno i osposobljeno. Pismenost
odraslih građana mora biti takva da odgovara njihovim socijalnim, ekonomskim i
političkim potrebama. Aktivnosti u okviru obrazovanja odraslih trebalo bi da pomognu
građanima iz različitih slojeva društva da sami pokreću aktivnosti usmerene
na održivi razvoj i da štite sredinu u kojoj žive.

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Prediction of Environmental Activism — The Role of Knowledge, Attitudes, Affects and Behaviors⁹

Abstract: The components of ecological literacy comprise knowledge, attitudes, affect, behavior, and environmental activism. The goal of this paper is to establish whether environmental activism can be predicted on the basis of environmental knowledge, pro-environmental attitudes, affect, and behavior. In addition to this, the goal of the research is to examine to what extent individuals of different activism levels differ in terms of knowledge of basic environmental problems, expression of the attitude of ecological apathy, anthropocentrism, belonging to nature and connection with nature, as well as usual practices of pro-environmental behavior. By surveying a sample of adult respondents from Serbia who belong to a group devoted to an environmental problem (N=255), we have discovered that general environmental knowledge alone does not contribute to pro-environmental behaviors or environmental activism. The predictors of activism are pro-environmental attitudes, an affective attitude towards nature, and common pro-environmental behaviors, even though they help distinguish a group of barely active members from two groups of more active members, but they do not help distinguish those who are active in a virtual space from those who participate personally. The groups are further distinguished by other variables, such as the locus of control, values, and the phenomenon of quasi-activism. The established connection between knowledge and emotional affinity towards nature seems to represent a reciprocal relationship, and indicates that the right way to learn is to acquire knowledge, but while developing a love for nature.

Key words: environmental activism, general environmental knowledge, attitudes and affect, pro-environmental behaviors.

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Inventar perspektiva o nastavi (TPI): validacija i mogućnosti primene skale u Srbiji⁴

Apstrakt: Istraživanja koja su usmerena na ispitivanje nastavničkih uverenja, koncepcija i perspektiva o nastavi pokazuju da ti fenomeni determinišu percepcije i ponašanje nastavnika i da imaju uticaj na učenje studenata i na efikasnost nastave. Za potrebe ispitivanja percepcija nastavnika, konstruisan je Inventar perspektiva o nastavi (TPI), a cilj ovog istraživanja jeste validacija i adaptacija ove skale na uzorku od 526 univerzitetskih nastavnika u Srbiji. Rezultati eksplorativne i konfirmatorne faktorske analize ukazuju na to da jeste potvrđen petofaktorski model koji se u određenoj meri razlikuje od strukture originalnog instrumenta. Svih pet supskala ima adekvatnu internu konzistentnost koja se kreće od .70 do .87, pri čemu je potvrđena i dobra konvergentna validnost. Modifikovanom verzijom TPI obezbeđena je validacija originalno definisanih perspektiva o nastavi i zaključeno je da ta skala može pouzdano da se koristi u obrazovnom kontekstu Srbije.

Ključne reči: perspektive o nastavi, univerzitetski nastavnici, TPI, psihometrijske karakteristike, Srbija.

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Uvod

U oblasti visokoškolskog obrazovanja poslednjih nekoliko decenija se, sa ciljem podizanja kvaliteta univerzitetske nastave, aktuelizuje pitanje usavršavanja univerzitetskih nastavnika u području vođenja nastavnog procesa (ENQA, 2015; Sursock, 2015). Reč je o tome da, osim naučnoistraživačkog rada i razvoja naučne oblasti, nastavno angažovanje predstavlja drugu osnovnu delatnost univerzitetskih nastavnika. Otuda se u raspravama o kvalitetu nastave na univerzitetima otvara pitanje ovladanosti nastavničkim kompetencijama od kojih direktno zavise efikasnost studiranja i kvalitet pripremljenosti stručnog i naučnog kadra. To pitanje postaje veoma važno, budući da rezultati empirijskih istraživanja (Gibbs & Coffey, 2004; Postareff, Lindblom-Ylänne & Nevgi, 2007) pokazuju da pedagoško obrazovanje univerzitetskih nastavnika može doprineti razvoju nastavničkih kompetencija. U tom se kontekstu prepoznaje i naglašava značaj razvoja nastavničkih kompetencija te tako usavršavanje univerzitetskih nastavnika dospeva u žižu interesovanja pojedinih fakulteta, naučnih skupova i projekata (Alibabić, 2010). Mnoge su inicijative u profesionalnom razvoju, pri tome, usmerene na osveščivanje koncepcija nastave univerzitetskih nastavnika, to jest njihovih uverenja o nastavi i učenju (Amundsen & Wilson, 2012).

Iako fundamentalna, istraživanja nastavničkih uverenja, filozofija, koncepcija ili perspektiva o nastavi aktuelizuju se od devedesetih godina 20. veka. Među različitim nastojanjima da se prikupe podaci o uverenjima nastavnika i njihovoj nastavnoj praksi (Pearson, 1998; Samuelowicz & Bain, 1992) izdvajaju se istraživanja Gawa i Kembera (Gow & Kember, 1993; Kember & Gow, 1994), koji su na osnovu dobijenih podataka razvili instrument za utvrđivanje uverenja o nastavi univerzitetskih nastavnika. Rezultati sprovedenih studija omogućili su da se identifikuju dve koncepcije nastave koje su označene kao facilitacija učenja i transmisija znanja (Kember & Gow, 1994). Još jedan značajan poduhvat u razumevanju uverenja o nastavi univerzitetskih nastavnika jeste dvodimenzionalni model Prosera i Trigvela (Prosser & Trigwell, 1999; Trigwell & Prosser, 2004). Taj model udružuje namere koje usmeravaju nastavnike i strategije koje nastavnici primenjuju radi ostvarenja tih namera. Ovi su autori razvili upitnik za procenu pristupa nastavi (*Approaches to Teaching Inventory – ATI*), koji uključuje karakteristike pristupa nastavi fokusiranoj na nastavnika nasuprot pristupu nastavi fokusiranoj na studenta.

Predmet ovog istraživanja odnosi se pak na instrument *Inventar perspektiva o nastavi (Teaching Perspectives Inventory – TPI)*, koji su razvili Danijel Prat i saradnici (Collins & Pratt, 2011; Pratt & Associates, 1998) sa ciljem da utvrde koncepcije (perspektive) koje nastavnici poseduju o nastavi i učenju. U radu koji

je vodio ka razvoju modela pet perspektiva o nastavi, Pratt je (Pratt, 1992, str. 204) definisao koncepcije kao značenja koja se pridaju fenomenu, a koja potom posreduju odgovor u situacijama koje dati fenomen uključuju. Prema uverenju istog autora, pojedinci poseduju koncepcije o različitim aspektima koje opažaju u svetu; zapravo, svaki pojedinac gleda na svet kroz sočivo vlastitih koncepcija koje usmeravaju njegova tumačenja situacije i uobličavaju akcije. U tom je smislu Pratt (Pratt, 2002) kasnije, u kontekstu istraživanja nastavnčkih koncepcija o nastavi, odredio perspektive o nastavi kao međusobno povezan skup uverenja i namera koje usmeravaju i opravdavaju aktivnosti nastavnika. Ispitivanja Prata (Pratt, 1998) pokazala su da perspektive o nastavi nisu međusobno isključive; slične akcije, namere, pa čak i uverenja mogu se pronaći u više perspektiva. Takođe, pokazalo se da ne postoji jedinstven odgovor na pitanje šta je dobra nastava, to jest da taj odgovor u velikoj meri zavisi od širih kulturnih specifičnosti i konteksta u kojem se govori o nastavi.

U tom smislu, u ovom se radu opisuje razvoj *Inventara perspektiva o nastavi* i predstavljaju podaci o psihometrijskim karakteristikama tog instrumenta koji su dobijeni na uzorku od stotinu hiljada ispitanika u različitim kulturološkim kontekstima. Jedna od osnovnih namena ovog istraživanja jeste psihometrijska evaluacija prevoda tog instrumenta na srpski jezik, na uzorku univerzitetskih nastavnika i saradnika u našem sociokulturnom i obrazovnom kontekstu. Značaj ovog istraživanja može se sagledati na dva načina. S jedne strane, istraživanje i praćenje temeljnih uverenja i pretpostavki nastavnika o nastavi i učenju jeste veoma važno pitanje, budući da rezultati mnogih istraživanja (Ho, Watkins & Kelly, 2001; Martin & Lueckenhausen, 2005; Trigwell & Prosser, 2004) pokazuju da ta uverenja i pretpostavke utiču na percepcije i procene nastavnika, što posledično utiče na njihovo ponašanje u učionici. S druge strane, ovim bi se istraživanjem utvrdila mogućnost upotrebe Inventara perspektiva o nastavi kao alata za samoprocenu koji bi mogao da pokrene proces refleksije univerzitetskih nastavnika o sopstvenim uverenjima o nastavi koja usmeravaju i opravdavaju njihov rad.

Inventar perspektiva o nastavi: razvoj instrumenta

Inventar perspektiva o nastavi (TPI) nastao je kao rezultat višedecenijskih napora i velikog broja ispitivanja Prata i njegovih saradnika koji su devedesetih godina 20. veka istraživali načine na koje nastavnici u oblasti obrazovanja odraslih i visokog obrazovanja konceptualizuju nastavu (Collins & Pratt, 2011; Pratt, 1998). U nastojanjima da istraže načine na koje nastavnici vide nastavu u veoma različitim okruženjima učenja, oni su primenili tehniku sistematskog posmatranja i obavili

intervjue sa više od 250 nastavnika koji su se bavili obrazovanjem odraslih, na dva kontinenta i na desetine lokacija u pet zemalja – Sjedinjenim Američkim Državama, Kanadi, Singapuru, Kini i Hong Kongu. Ispitanicima su postavljena pitanja o tome kako razumeju nastavu, uključujući i pitanja o učenju, motivaciji, ciljevima obrazovanja, prirodi učenika i uticaju konteksta na nastavu i učenje. Analizom istraživačkih podataka identifikovano je pet kvalitativno različitih perspektiva o nastavi koje predstavljaju teorijsku osnovu instrumenta TPI. Tih pet perspektiva o nastavi u literaturi (Pratt, Collins & Jarvis-Selinger, 2001, str. 3) najčešće se opisuje na način koji je sažeto predstavljen u tabeli 1.

Tabela 1. Pet perspektiva o nastavi

Perspektiva	Opis
<i>Transmisiona</i>	Efikasna nastava pretpostavlja veliku predanost sadržaju ili predmetu poučavanja. Nastavnici koji primenjuju tu perspektivu poseduju vrhunsko poznavanje predmetnog sadržaja i njihova primarna odgovornost je da jasno i precizno predstave određeni sadržaj, dok je zadatak studenata da ovladaju tim sadržajem.
<i>Uvođenje u praksu</i>	Efikasna nastava pretpostavlja proces enkulturacije, to jest uvođenje studenata u kulturu i norme nove zajednice prakse. Dobri nastavnici treba da budu vrhunski praktičari iz oblasti koju predaju i njihov zadatak je da otkriju ono što se nalazi u osnovi izuzetnog praktikovanja veština i da to prevedu na jezik i zadatke koji su pristupačni studentima.
<i>Podsticanje (kognitivnog) razvoja</i>	Efikasna nastava treba da bude planirana i realizovana iz perspektive onih koji uče. Dobri nastavnici bi trebalo da shvate način na koji njihovi studenti razmišljaju o predmetnom sadržaju. Cilj je da se pomogne studentima da razviju složenije kognitivne strukture koje su važne za razumevanje sadržaja.
<i>Briga o studentima</i>	U okviru ove perspektive polazi se od stava da studenti postaju motivisani i produktivni kada rade na rešavanju problema, bez straha od neuspeha. Nastavnici koji primenjuju ovu perspektivu brinu o svojim studentima i neguju klimu međusobnog poštovanja. Oni pružaju ohrabrenje i podršku, postavljajući jasna očekivanja i izazovne ali dostižne ciljeve.
<i>Društvena reforma</i>	Efikasna nastava bi trebalo da bude više usmerena na promene u društvu nego na pojedinačne studente. Dobri nastavnici osvešćuju kod studenata vrednosti i ideologije koje su ugrađene u predmetne sadržaje i uspostavljene prakse. Oni dovode u pitanje postojeće stanje i ohrabruju studente da razmotre vlastiti položaj u određenim diskursima i praksama.

Prikupljanje temeljnih opisa načina na koji nastavnici konceptualizuju nastavu zahtevalo je višesatne intervjuje, sistematska posmatranja i naknadne analize, te se vremenom iznedrila ideja o konstruisanju instrumenta koji će nastavnicima služiti kao pomoćno sredstvo za samoprocenu nastavnih ciljeva i metoda, kao i za utvrđivanje ličnog profila perspektiva o nastavi (Collins & Pratt, 2011). Na osnovu prikupljenih iskaza sačinjen je početni skup od 200 stavki, a kasnijim analizama ta kolekcija je prečišćena. Dalja ispitivanja sprovedena su na uzorku od 471 nastavnika večernje škole za obrazovanje odraslih, pri čemu je utvrđeno da, od ukupno 75 stavki, 63 uspešno operacionalizuju

perspektive o nastavi te da dobijenim podacima najviše odgovara šestofaktorsko rešenje; perspektiva o nastavi kao uvođenju u praksu podelila se u dva faktora: praksa i modelovanje (Chan, 1994; Collins & Pratt, 2011). Nakon kasnije urađenih analiza u finalnu verziju instrumenta TPI uvršteno je ukupno 45 stavki, to jest po devet karakterističnih stavki koje svojim značenjem operacionalizuju svaku od pet perspektiva o nastavi. Pri tome, svaka pojedinačna perspektiva o nastavi predstavljena je u upitniku sa po tri stavke na supskalama koje se odnose na uverenja, namere i akcije.

Psihometrijske karakteristike i primena instrumenta u različitim obrazovnim kontekstima

Dok se rani istraživački izveštaji o psihometrijskim karakteristikama instrumenta TPI nalaze u literaturi (Chan, 1994; Pratt & Collins, 2000), deset godina prikupljanja podataka na uzorku od preko stotinu hiljada ispitanika različitih profesionalnih profila u preko 100 zemalja osiguralo je dalju proveru njegove pouzdanosti i validnosti. Autori instrumenta objavili su podatke koji ukazuju na njegova zadovoljavajuća psihometrijska svojstva (Collins & Pratt, 2011, str. 366). Mere pouzdanosti, validnosti (konvergentne i diskriminativne) i senzitivnosti sugerišu da instrument operacionalizuje i meri one perspektive o nastavi koje su identifikovane u početnim kvalitativnim pristupima na velikom uzorku nastavnika koji se bave obrazovanjem odraslih. Vrednosti Kronbahove alfe kao pokazatelja interne konzistencije za svaku od supskala iznose: podsticanje kognitivnog razvoja (0,70), transmisija (0,72), uvođenje u praksu (0,73), briga o učenicima (0,82), društvena reforma (0,83), sa prosečnom vrednošću 0,76.

Utvrđeno je da skala TPI poseduje i zadovoljavajuću validnost. U ranoj fazi konstruisanja instrumenta proverena je prividna validnost (Collins & Pratt, 2011) na uzorku od 75 diplomiranih studenata upoznatih s modelom pet perspektiva o nastavi. Ispitanici su dobili zadatak da potencijalne stavke rasporede u jedan od pet klastera, od kojih je svaki reprezentovao po jednu perspektivu o nastavi. Rezultati pokazuju da je tačnost u klasifikaciji iznosila 95%, što sugeriše da stavke dobro operacionalizuju ispitivane perspektive o nastavi. Psihometrijske karakteristike instrumenta proverene su i primenom faktorske analize kojom je potvrđeno da dobijenim podacima najviše odgovara petofaktorsko rešenje koje objašnjava 39,7% varijanse upitnika. Primena faktorske analize potvrdila je sledeće: svaki rotirani faktor objašnjava gotovo podjednaki procenat varijanse (5,0% do 9,9%); svaka stavka pridružena je ispravno svojoj odgovarajućoj skali; faktor-

ski skorovi visoko koreliraju sa skorovima na skali ($r \sim .83$) i svaka stavka ima veće zasićenje na odgovarajućoj perspektivi o nastavi nego na supskalama koje se odnose na uverenja, namere i akcije.

Instrument TPI je našao široku primenu u istraživanjima u mnogim zemljama, na uzorcima ispitanika koji pripadaju različitim kulturološkim kontekstima i govore različite jezike. Pri tome, autori instrumenta ukazuju na dosadašnju primenu skale TPI i izvan oblasti samoprocenjivanja; instrument se koristi i kao alat za unapređenje i evaluaciju rada na pojedinim fakultetima i za samoevaluaciju i međusobnu evaluaciju nastavnika (Collins & Pratt, 2011). U oblasti visokog obrazovanja taj je instrument primenjivan za utvrđivanje razlika u dominantnim perspektivama o nastavi univerzitetskih nastavnika u odnosu na njihovu pripadnost obrazovno-naučnom polju i akademskoj disciplini (Deggs, Machtmes & Johnson, 2008; Rotidi, Collins, Karalis & Lavidas, 2017), ali i za istraživanje relacija između nastavničkih uverenja i njihove nastavne prakse (Rotidi, Canto, Rodríguez & Burgos, 2011). Takođe, instrument je korišćen radi ispitivanja efekata programa stručnog usavršavanja univerzitetskih nastavnika u području vođenja nastavnog procesa, kao pomoćno sredstvo u promišljanju implicitnih teorija i nastavne prakse i kao alat za praćenje promena koje mogu nastati u uverenjima i stavovima o nastavnom radu (Hubbal, Collins, & Pratt, 2005; Potter, Kustra, Ackerson, & Prada, 2015).

Svrha i cilj istraživanja

Perspektive nastavnika utiču i na učenje studenata i na efikasnost nastave (Pecore & Shelton, 2013) i, u skladu s tim, važno je ukazati na značaj i mogućnosti upotrebe skale TPI, kao pouzdanog instrumenta koji se može koristiti u visokoškolskoj nastavi. U Srbiji su veoma malo zastupljena istraživanja u kojima se koristi TPI (Oljača, 2007; Stančić, Jovanović i Simić, 2013), a do sada nije prikazana empirijska studija kojom se vrši validacija instrumenta. Iz tog razloga, prvi cilj ovog istraživanja bio je da se proveriti i utvrdi faktorska struktura instrumenta TPI na uzorku univerzitetskih nastavnika u Srbiji. Pretpostavljeno je da će originalna petofaktorska struktura upitnika biti potvrđena i na tom uzorku. Međutim, ukoliko se utvrdi da očekivani petofaktorski model nije adekvatan za obrazovni kontekst i nastavnike u Srbiji, dodatni cilj ovog rada je i da ukaže na mogućnosti modifikacije skale kako bi se identifikovao i predložio optimalan model skale za upotrebu u našem kontekstu visokog obrazovanja. Drugi cilj istraživanja bio je da se utvrdi pouzdanost srpske verzije TPI. Očekivano je da će instrument i na

našem uzorku pokazati visoku internu konzistentnost, kao i u relevantnim prethodnim istraživanjima (Chan, 1994; Collins & Pratt, 2011).

Metod

Uzorak i procedura istraživanja

Uzorak istraživanja je činilo ukupno 526 univerzitetskih nastavnika i saradnika, od kojih je 342 (65%) ispitanika sa Univerziteta u Novom Sadu i 184 (35%) sa Univerziteta u Nišu. Strukturu uzorka prema polu čini 57,2% (N = 301) ispitanika ženskog pola i 42,8% (N = 225) muškog pola. Ispitanici su prema zvanju zastupljeni na sledeći način: univerzitetskih nastavnika je ukupno 346 ili 65,8% uzorka, a saradnika 180 ili 34,2%. Strukturu uzorka prema naučnoj oblasti čini 163 ispitanika ili 31% iz oblasti društveno-humanističkih nauka, 133 ispitanika ili 25,3% iz oblasti medicinskih nauka, 80 ispitanika ili 15,2% iz oblasti prirodno-matematičkih nauka, 144 ispitanika ili 27,4% iz oblasti tehničko-tehnoloških nauka i šest ispitanika ili 1,1% iz oblasti umetnosti. Uzorak je bio prigodan, a na osnovu sociodemografskih karakteristika ispitanika zaključeno je da su uzorkom obuhvaćene sve reprezentativne grupe univerzitetskih nastavnika i saradnika u Srbiji. Anketiranje je bilo anonimno i realizovano je onlajn; ispitanici su mogli da popunjavaju upitnik kada je to njima najviše odgovaralo u periodu od tri nedelje. Nastavnicima i saradnicima poslato je obaveštenje o cilju, potrebama i značaju realizacije istraživanja.

Instrument

U ovom istraživanju korišćen je instrument TPI uz prethodno dobijenu dozvolu i saglasnost autora originalnog instrumenta. Instrument je preveden na srpski jezik korišćenjem metoda povratnog prevođenja od strane stručnjaka iz oblasti obrazovnih nauka. Taj metod prevođenja instrumenta najčešće se preporučuje za validaciju instrumenata u kroskulturalnim istraživanjima (Cha, Kim, & Erlen, 2007). Nakon upoređivanja srpske i engleske verzije skale, unete su manje promene kako bi pojedine stavke bile dodatno prilagođene obrazovnom kontekstu u Srbiji.

Instrument sadrži 45 stavki koje svojim sadržajem ispituju pet perspektiva o nastavi i procenjuju se na petostepenoj Likertovoj skali (1 = nikada, 5 = uvek; 1 = uopšte se ne slažem, 5 = potpuno se slažem). Osim toga, instrument je struktu-

risan na tri nivoa, na kojima se ispituju uverenja, namere i akcije univerzitetskih nastavnika i svaki nivo ima po 15 stavki.

Analiza podataka

Faktorska struktura TPI ispitana je eksplorativnom faktorskom analizom uz primenu metode glavnih komponenti i zadatu Promax rotaciju faktora. Kao kriterijum za ekstrakciju broja faktora korišćena je Hornova paralelna analiza. Dodatno, faktorska struktura ispitana je i konfirmatornom faktorskom analizom u programskom paketu Mplus, verzija 7,32 (Muthén & Muthén, 2015), primenom estimacije parametara metodom maksimalne verodostojnosti sa robusnim standardnim greškama – MLR, koja je robusna na odstupanje skorova od normalne distribucije i na zavisnost opservacija. Da bi se evaluirali upoređeni modeli, korišćeno je nekoliko indikatora fita: vrednost Yuan-Bentler χ^2 testa treba da bude statistički neznačajna da bi ukazivala da model dobro fituje podatke, vrednost kvadriranog korena prosečne kvadrirane greške aproksimacije (RMSEA) manja od .06, vrednost standardizovanog kvadratnog korena prosečnog kvadrata reziduala (SRMR) ispod .08, kao i vrednosti Indeksa komparativnog fitovanja (CFI) i Taker-Luison indeksa (TLI) veće od .95, što ukazuje na dobar fit modela (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Za utvrđivanje interne konzistencije srpske verzije TPI korišćen je Kronbahov alfa koeficijent, dok je Pirsonov koeficijent korelacije korišćen da bi se utvrdila korelacija među izdvojenim faktorima.

Rezultati

Eksplorativna faktorska analiza

Eksplorativna faktorska analiza, uz primenu metode glavnih komponenti i zadatu Promax rotaciju faktora, predstavljala je prvi korak u validaciji instrumenta TPI. Bartlettov test sferičnosti ($\chi^2 = 9889,63$; $p < .01$) statistički je značajan, što ukazuje na opravdanost sprovođenja postupka sažimanja podataka. Kaizer–Mayer–Olkin (KMO) pokazatelj reprezentativnosti iznosi .924, čime se sugeriše da je uzorkovanje adekvatno i da je reprezentativnost upitnika visoka. Kao kriterijum za ekstrakciju broja faktora korišćena je Hornova paralelna analiza, budući da se ta metoda pokazala superiornijom u ekstrakciji broja faktora od najčešće primenjanog Gutman–Kajzerovog kriterijuma, kao i od Scree testa (Subotić, 2013). Gutman–Kajzerov kriterijum ukazuje na to da vrednost karakterističnog korena

veću od jedan ima ukupno 11 faktora, dok paralelna analiza pokazuje da pet faktora ima vrednost karakterističnog korena veću od one koja bi se dobila na osnovu slučajnih vrednosti dobijenih na analognim podacima (tabela 2). Najveća zamerka Gutman–Kajzerovom kriterijumu ekstrakcije faktora odnosi se na to da se tom analizom precenjuje broj dimenzija (Subotić, 2013) te je u skladu s tim prihvaćeno petofaktorsko rešenje sugerisano paralelnom analizom, koje objašnjava 45,93% varijanse upitnika.

Tabela 2. Ukupna varijansa upitnika objašnjena faktorima i rezultati paralelne analize

Faktor	Svojstvena vrednost	Procenat varijanse	Kumulativni % varijanse	Paralelna analiza	Odluka
1.	12.075	26,833	26,833	1.608	Prihvaćen
2.	3.519	7,819	34,653	1.544	Prihvaćen
3.	2.004	4,453	39,106	1.496	Prihvaćen
4.	1.607	3,570	42,676	1.455	Prihvaćen
5.	1.465	3,256	45,932	1.418	Prihvaćen
6.	1.377	3,059	48,991	1.385	Odbačeni
7.	1.210	2,689	51,680		
8.	1.156	2,569	54,249		
9.	1.091	2,425	56,674		
10.	1.059	2,353	59,027		
11.	1.024	2,277	61,303		
12.	.990	-	-		

U skladu sa dobijenim podacima, prihvaćeno je i zadržano petofaktorsko rešenje i na osnovu matrice komunaliteta utvrđeno je da iz daljih analiza treba izostaviti stavke D2 (Dovodim u pitanje to kako su studenti razumeli sadržaj) i T8 (Dobro poučavanje nastavnih sadržaja je nalik izvođenju pozorišne predstave), čije su vrednosti ispod .30. Komunaliteti preostalih stavki kreću se u rasponu od .305 do .712.

Na osnovu matrice sklopa registrovano je da jedna stavka (S9) nema značajno zasićenje ni na jednom od faktora i da osam stavki ima značajna kroszasićenja. Ti podaci pokazuju da skalu treba dodatno skraćivati, izostavljanjem onih stavki koje imaju zasićenja na dva ili više faktora. S obzirom na to da se matrica sklopa menjala nakon izostavljanja svake pojedinačne stavke, u radu će biti prikazano samo krajnje rešenje. Budući da su se tokom izbacivanja jedne po jedne stavke registrovala kroszasićenja na pojedinim stavkama, u radu će biti naveden redosled kojim su stavke bile izostavljane; prioritet su imale one stavke čija su kroszasićenja bila najujednačenija. Iz analize su izostavljane sledećim redom: S9

(Poučavanje je za mene moralni čin, isto koliko je i intelektualna aktivnost – bez značajnih zasićenja), D7 (Učenje, u najvećoj meri, zavisi od prethodnog znanja osobe – tri zasićenja). Nakon toga su izostavljene stavke sledećim redosledom: S4 (Moj posao je da podstičem studente da ozbiljno preispituju svoje vrednosti), N9 (Uloženi trud tokom učenja treba da bude nagrađen jednako kao i postignuće), D3 (Ohrabrujem studente da preispituju mišljenje jedni sa drugima), A6 (Želim da studenti razumeju realnost rada u stvarnom svetu), N1 (U radu ili doprinosu svakog studenta pronalazim nešto da pohvalim), D1 (Postavljam mnogo pitanja dok predajem), D5 (Očekujem od studenata da kreiraju nova objašnjenja o nastavnom sadržaju ili predmetu), N4 (Moja namera je da izgradim samopouzdanje i samopoštovanje studenata kao onih koji uče) i S1 (Koristim sadržaj predmeta kao način da poučavam o višim idealima). Nakon izostavljanja tih stavki dobijena je faktorska struktura bez kroszasićenja. Dalje, utvrđeno je da četiri supskale imaju zadovoljavajuću i dobru pouzdanost (od 0,70 do 0,87), a da pouzdanost pete supskale iznosi 0,69. Izbacivanjem stavke D9 (Poučavanje bi trebalo graditi na osnovama onoga što studenti već znaju) koja i sadržanski najmanje pripada petoj supskali, njena pouzdanost povećana je na 0,71.

U tabeli 3 prikazana je matrica sklopa nakon skraćivanja skale izostavljanjem stavki sa niskim komunalitetima i visokim kroszasićenjima. Izdvojeno je pet faktora, od kojih četiri faktora po svojoj strukturi i sadržaju odgovaraju faktorima iz originalne studije. Međutim, faktor koji predstavlja perspektivu o nastavi kao uvođenju u praksu u našem istraživanju podeljen je na dva faktora, od kojih se jedan odnosi na nastavu kao uvođenje u praksu, dok se drugi odnosi na perspektivu o nastavi kao modelovanju, što je potvrđeno i u ranijem istraživanju (Chan, 1994). Značajno je naglasiti da najveći broj izostavljenih stavki zbog visokih kroszasićenja originalno pripada perspektivi kognitivnog razvoja (razvojna perspektiva). Kao posledica toga, u petofaktorskoj strukturi koja je utvrđena u našem istraživanju, nije izdvojen faktor koji se odnosi na razvojnu perspektivu o nastavi.

Tabela 3. Matrica sklopa

	Društvena reforma	Briga o studentima	Transmisija	Uvođenje u praksu	Modelovanje
S5 Očekujem od studenata da budu posvećeni tome da menjaju naše društvo.	.836				
S8 Individualno učenje bez društvene promene nije dovoljno.	.815				
S3 Pomažem studentima da uoče potrebu za promenama u društvu.	.773				
S7 Moje poučavanje usmereno je na društvene promene, a ne na pojedinačnog studenta.	.753				
S6 Želim da osvestim ono što studenti uzimaju zdravo za gotovo o društvu.	.736				
D8 Poučavanje bi trebalo da bude usmereno na razvoj kvalitativnih promena u mišljenju.	.519				
N2 Ohrabrujem izražavanje osećanja i emocija tokom nastave.		.897			
N3 Delim svoja osećanja i očekujem da moji studenti isto čine.		.830			
N7 Važno mi je da uvažim emocionalne reakcije svojih studenata.		.714			
S2 Tokom nastave više naglašavam vrednosti nego znanja.		.707			
N6 Kada poučavam, trudim se da uspostavim ravnotežu između brižnosti i postavljanja izazova.		.638			
A3 Organizujem nastavu tako da početnici mogu da uče od iskusnijih.		.503			
N8 Kada poučavam, prioritet mi je izgradnja samopouzdanja studenata.		.434			
N5 Očekujem da studenti unaprede svoje samopouzdanje kao rezultat njihovih predavanja.		.351			
T6 Želim da studenti postignu dobre rezultate na ispitu kao rezultat mog poučavanja.			.762		
T4 Moj posao je da prezentujem sadržaj i pripremim studente za ispite.			.703		
T1 Planirani sadržaj obrađujem precizno i u jasno određeno vreme.			.583		
T5 Očekujem od studenata da ovladaju brojnim informacijama u vezi sa predmetom.			.580		
T3 Studentima jasno stavljam do znanja šta treba da nauče.			.491		
T2 Pažljivo pratim sadržaj i ciljeve predmeta.			.464		
T7 Učenje se može unaprediti ukoliko se unapred odrede ciljevi.			.312		

	Društvena reforma	Briga o studentima	Transmisija	Uvođenje u praksu	Modelovanje
A1 Svoj predmet stavljam u kontekst prakse ili primene.				.771	
A5 Očekujem od studenata da znaju kako da primene sadržaje u okviru mog predmeta u realnoj situaciji.				.637	
D4 Moja namera je da pomažem studentima da razvijaju složenije načine razmišljanja.				.636	
A4 Moja namera je da demonstriram kako treba da se ponaša ili radi u realnim situacijama.				.628	
D6 Želim da studenti uvide koliko su stvari kompleksne i međusobno povezane.				.429	
A2 Primenjujem veštine i metode efektivnog poučavanja.				.357	
A7 Da bi bio efikasan nastavnik, pojedinac mora biti efikasan praktičar.					.776
A8 Najbolje se uči u radu sa dobrim praktičarima.					.756
A9 Znanje i njegova primena ne mogu se razdvajati.					.593
T9 Efikasni nastavnici moraju najpre biti eksperti u oblasti koju predaju.					.431

U tabeli 4 komparativno su prikazani podaci koji su dobijeni u prethodnoj najobimnijoj studiji autora skale (Collins & Pratt, 2011) i podaci dobijeni u našem istraživanju. Podebljane su šifre onih stavki koje su zajedničke i pripadaju istim faktorima u originalnoj i našoj studiji.

Tabela 4. Lista stavki TPI: istraživanje autora skale i naše istraživanje

Studija	Faktori					
	Društvena reforma	Briga o studentima	Transmisija	Razvojna perspektiva	Uvođenje u praksu	Modelovanje
Collins & Pratt, 2011	S1, S2, S3, S4, S5, S6, S7, S8, S9	N1, N2, N3, N4, N5, N6, N7, N8, N9	T1, T2, T3, T4, T5, T6, T7, T8, T9	D1, D2, D3, D4, D5, D6, D7, D8, D9	A1, A2, A3, A4, A5, A6, A7, A8, A9	
Naše istraživanje	S3, S5, S6, S7, S8, D8	N2, N3, N5, N6, N7, N8, S2, A3	T1, T2, T3, T4, T5, T6, T7		A1, A2, A4, A5, D4, D6	A7, A8, A9, T9

Konfirmatorna faktorska analiza

Faktorska struktura instrumenta TPI dalje je testirana konfirmatornom faktorском analizom. Kriterijumi koji su korišćeni za prihvatljiv fit modela su sledeći: RMSEA između .06 i .08, SRMR između .08 i .10, kao i CFI i TLI iznad .90

(Hu & Bentler, 1999). Petofaktorsko rešenje iz originalne studije pokazivalo je prihvatljive vrednosti fita u slučaju RMSEA i SRMR indikatora fita, međutim vrednosti CFI i TLI indikatora su bile znatno niže od prihvatljivih vrednosti (tabela 5). Petofaktorski model dobijen eksplorativnom faktorskom analizom u našem istraživanju pokazuje dobar fit kada su u pitanju RMSEA i SRMR indikatora fita, međutim vrednosti CFI i TLI su niže od prihvatljive vrednosti za te indikatore, iako znatno više od vrednosti za originalno petofaktorsko rešenje (tabela 5).

Petofaktorski model dobijen u ovom istraživanju modifikovan je koreliranjem grešaka za stavke sa sličnim značenjem, što je sugerisano visokim vrednostima modifikacionih indeksa (preko 30). Stavke za koje je sugerisana korelacija grešaka su N5 i N8 (Očekujem da studenti unaprede svoje samopouzdanje kao rezultat mojih predavanja i Kada poučavam, prioritet mi je izgradnja samopouzdanja studenata); stavke A7 i A8 (Da bi bio efikasan nastavnik, pojedinac mora biti efikasan praktičar i Najbolje se uči u radu sa dobrim praktičarima); stavke S7 i S8 (Moje poučavanje usmereno je na društvene promene, a ne na pojedinačnog studenta i Individualno učenje bez društvene promene nije dovoljno); stavke T4 i T6 (Moj posao je da prezentujem sadržaj i priprelim studente za ispite i Želim da studenti postignu dobre rezultate na ispitu kao rezultat mog poučavanja); stavke D4 i D6 (Moja namera je da pomazem studentima da razvijaju složenije načine razmišljanja i Želim da studenti uvide koliko su stvari kompleksne i međusobno povezane). Takođe, modifikacionim indeksima sugerisano je da stavku A3 (Organizujem nastavu tako da početnici mogu da uče od iskusnijih) treba prebaciti iz supskale *briga o studentima*, kako je prethodno dobijeno eksplorativnom faktorskom analizom, u supskalu *uvodjenje u praksu*, kojoj inače po svojoj sadržini i originalnom modelu pripada. Indikatori fita modifikovanog petofaktorskog modela ukazuju na dobar fit kada su RMSEA i SRMR u pitanju, kao i na prihvatljiv fit kada su TLI i CFI u pitanju (Tabela 5).

Tabela 5. Indikatori fita konfirmatorne faktorske analize

Model	YB χ^2 (df)	CFI	TLI	RMSEA (90% CI)	SRMR
Originalni petofaktorski model	2803.03 (935)	.755	.740	.062 (.059, .064)	.085
Petofaktorski model u našoj studiji	1154.74 (424)	.863	.849	.057 (.053, .061)	.062
*Modifikovani petofaktorski model	963.13 (419)	.919	.901	.050 (.046, .054)	.060

* N5 sa N8, A7 sa A8, S7 sa S8, T4 sa T6, D4 sa D6; A3 na N

Standardizovana faktorska opterećenja za modifikovani petofaktorski model su iznad .32 (10% objašnjene varijanse) u slučaju svih stavki. Za supskalu *transmisija* vrednosti standardizovanih faktorskih opterećenja kreću se u rasponu od .434 do .573, za supskalu *uvodjenje u praksu* u rasponu od .494 do .658, za supskalu *modelovanje* od .524 do .627, za supskalu *briga o studentima* raspon

faktorskih opterećenja kreće se od .630 do .779, a za supskalu *društvene reforme* u rasponu od .579 do .848.

Na osnovu rezultata prikazanih u tabeli 6, zaključuje se da su međusobne korelacije svih izdvojenih supskala pozitivnog predznaka. Korelacije se kreću od niskih (.15) do umerenih (.55) i nisu registrovane korelacije iznad .85, što jeste indikator da svi izdvojeni faktori mere različite konstrukte, odnosno perspektive.

Tabela 6. Korelacije između faktora

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.
1. Društvena reforma	-				
2. Briga o studentima	.547	-			
3. Transmisija	.150	.334	-		
4. Uvođenje u praksu	.404	.496	.382	-	
5. Modelovanje	.149	.305	.386	.251	-

Pouzdanost

Vrednosti Kronbahovog alfa koeficijenta kao pokazatelja interne konzistencije za svaku od supskala, kao i njegove vrednosti ukoliko bi se izostavila jedna od stavki (*ajtem analiza*) prikazane su u tabeli 7. Svih pet supskala postižu zadovoljavajuću ili dobru pouzdanost. U originalnom istraživanju dobijeni su vrlo slični rezultati, pri čemu je najniža pouzdanost registrovana na supskali *razvojna perspektiva* (.70), a najveća na supskali *društvena reforma* (.83), dok je prosečna vrednost Kronbahove alfe na celoj skali .76 (Collins & Pratt, 2011). U našem istraživanju takođe je utvrđeno da supskala *društvena reforma* ima najveću pouzdanost (.87), a najnižu *modelovanje* (.70), dok je pouzdanost celokupne skale .908.

Tabela 7. Pouzdanost skala i ajtem analiza

	Društvena reforma	Briga o studentima	Transmisija	Uvođenje u praksu	Modelovanje				
	<i>Pouzdanost skala</i>								
Supskala	.873	.862	.706	.748	.701				
	<i>Ajtem analiza</i>								
S5	.834	N2	.846	T1	.678	A1	.706	A7	.592
S8	.846	N3	.850	T2	.683	A4	.687	A8	.608
S3	.844	S2	.858	T3	.679	D4	.712	A9	.621
S7	.868	N6	.855	T4	.654	A5	.706	T9	.654
S6	.842	N7	.857	T5	.681	D6	.720		
D8	.870	A3	.876	T6	.663	A2	.738		
		N8	.855	T7	.683				
		N5	.857						

Osim toga, utvrđena je dobra pouzdanost za sve tri supskale koje se odnose na uverenja (.79), namere (.78) i akcije (.77). U originalnom istraživanju (Collins & Pratt, 2011), dobijeni su vrlo slični podaci – supskala *uverenja* (.72), *namere* (.78) i *akcije* (.80).

Diskusija

U ovom radu analizirano je da li je instrument TPI primenljiv u obrazovnom kontekstu u Srbiji, a primarni cilj je bio da se utvrde validnost i pouzdanost prevoda skale na srpski jezik. Ovo je prvi put da se vrši validacija TPI na uzorku univerzitetskih nastavnika u Srbiji i, u skladu s tim, prvi korak u validaciji bila je primena eksplorativne faktorske analize. Rezultati su pokazali da je skalu neophodno skratiti izostavljenjem dve stavke (D2 i T8) čije su vrednosti ispod .30. Te su stavke verovatno različito protumačene od ispitanika, pa je moguće da su iz tog razloga neutralno odgovarali. Primer za to je stavka T8 (Dobro poučavanje nastavnih sadržaja je nalik izvođenju pozorišne predstave), koja može biti pogrešno interpretirana ili čak može imati negativnu konotaciju u kontekstu obrazovanja u Srbiji. Dalje, utvrđeno je da su određene stavke svrstane u dve ili tri latentne dimenzije skale. Te stavke, kada se prevedu na srpski jezik, svojim sadržajem mogu pripadati različitim supskalama i mogu se odnositi na više perspektiva o nastavi. Primer za to je stavka S4 (Moj posao je da podstičem studente da ozbiljno preispituju svoje vrednosti), koja originalno pripada supskali *društvena reforma*, ali u našem istraživanju pripada i toj i supskali *briga o studentima*.

Takvi nalazi mogu ukazivati na to da određene stavke imaju drugačije značenje za ispitanike u Srbiji nego za ispitanike u Sjedinjenim Američkim Državama i drugim zemljama anglofonog govornog područja. U ovakvim istraživanjima javljaju se izazovi prevođenja i adaptacije instrumenata u kroskulturnom kontekstu, o čemu svedoče relevantna istraživanja (Cha et al., 2007; Sousa & Rojjanasrirat, 2011). U skladu s tim, pronalaženje ekvivalentnih reči i termina prilikom prevoda upitnika ne obezbeđuje automatski i ekvivalentnost u značenju tih reči, pri čemu se istraživači nadaju da su uočene nedoslednosti proizvod razlika između grupa ispitanika, pre nego dve verzije instrumenta (Kristjansson, Desrochers & Zumbo, 2003).

Drugi korak u validaciji TPI bila je primena konfirmatorne faktorske analize. Rezultati ukazuju na to da originalni petofaktorski model nije imao odgovarajući fit jer su vrednosti CFI i TLI indikatora bile znatno niže od prihvatljivih. Testiranjem petofaktorskog modela, koji je dobijen eksplorativnom faktorskom analizom u našem istraživanju, potvrđen je bolji fit tog modela, iako su i dalje

vrednosti CFI i TLI bile niže od prihvatljivih. Visokim vrednostima modifikacionih indeksa sugerisano je spajanje stavki sa istim ili sličnim značenjem, što se može očekivati u slučaju dužih upitnika kao što je TPI. S obzirom na to da se svako spajanje odnosilo na stavke koje pripadaju istoj supskali i da je analizom utvrđena velika sličnost u sadržaju, dozvoljena je korelacija grešaka. Time je potvrđeno da modifikovani petofaktorski model koji je utvrđen u našem istraživanju ima bolji fit nego petofaktorski model sugerisan u originalnom istraživanju. Rezultati su potvrdili rezultate dobijene eksplorativnom faktorskom analizom, uz potrebu za dodatnim skraćivanjem skale i sažimanjem stavki koje imaju vrlo slične sadržaje.

Faktorska struktura instrumenta dobijena u ovom istraživanju razlikuje se od originalne faktorske strukture i sličnija je rezultatima validacije skale u drugim studijama (Brown, Lake & Matters, 2009; Chan, 1994; Rebelo et al., 2007, prema: De Lima, Rebelo, & Barreira, 2014; Misieng, 2013). U originalnom istraživanju pretpostavljena je petofaktorska struktura skale koja odgovara teorijskom konceptu o pet perspektiva o nastavi. U našem istraživanju potvrđena je petofaktorska struktura skale, ali izdvojenih pet faktora ne odgovara potpuno onima koji su originalno pretpostavljeni. Naime, utvrđeno je da četiri izdvojena faktora, kao i većina stavki koje ti faktori okupljaju, odgovaraju originalnoj strukturi skale. Međutim, faktor koji se odnosi na supskalu *razvojna perspektiva* nije izdvojen kao zaseban u našem istraživanju jer je čak šest stavki iz ove supskale imalo visoka kroszasićenja. Iz tog razloga je celokupna TPI skala redukovana i te stavke su izostavljene iz dalje analize. Preostale tri stavke iz ove supskale rasporedile su se na druge supskale (*društvena reforma* i *uvodenje u praksu*).

Značajno je napomenuti da su isti rezultati dobijeni i prilikom adaptacije TPI skale za portugalsku populaciju, gde su takođe izdvojena četiri faktora, a stavke koje su se odnosile na supskalu *razvojna perspektiva* raspoređene su na druge faktore (Rebelo et al., 2007, prema: De Lima et al., 2014, str. 219). Slični rezultati dobijeni su i u istraživanju na Novom Zelandu. Autori studije utvrdili su četvorofaktorsku strukturu skale, pri čemu je, istovetno našim rezultatima, supskala *razvojna perspektiva* najviše redukovana i pripojena je supskali *uvodenje u praksu* (Brown et al., 2009).

Razvojna perspektiva o nastavi odnosi se na kvalitativne promene u mišljenju studenata. U skladu s tim, poučavanje treba da se planira iz perspektive onoga koji uči i primarni cilj nastavnika jeste da razume kako njegovi studenti razmišljaju o sadržajima i da im pomogne da razviju kompleksne kognitivne strukture (Pratt, Arseneau & Collins, 2001). Stavke koje pripadaju supskali *razvojna perspektiva* ispituju koliko često i u kojoj meri nastavnici tokom nastave podstiču razmišljanje, preispitivanje, omogućavaju razumevanje, ukazuju na kompleksnost

pojava i očekuju od studenata da kreiraju svoja objašnjenja i da preispituju mišljenje drugih. Kada se sve stavke analiziraju zajedno, jasno je da pripadaju jednoj supskali i da se odnose na iste fenomene. Međutim, svaka od tih stavki svojim sadržajem može pripadati i drugim supskalama, posebno u kontekstu visokog obrazovanja. U svakoj od preostalih perspektiva, bilo da je u pitanju uvođenje u praksu, društvena reforma, transmisija ili briga o studentima, očekuje se da studenti pokažu složenije načine mišljenja i da samostalno uviđaju kompleksnost sadržaja izučavanih fenomena. Na osnovu rezultata, može se zaključiti da univerzitetski nastavnici u Srbiji posvećuju dosta pažnje razvojno-kognitivnim aspektima nastave, da su oni nerazdvojni deo nastavnih aktivnosti i da se primenjuju u različitim perspektivama. Profesija univerzitetskog nastavnika jeste strukturalno složena i višedimenzionalna – naučnoistraživačka, nastavna, društveno-javna (Alibabić, 2010, str. 81) i podrazumeva mnoge uloge i perspektive koje se međusobno prožimaju.

Nakon redukcije skale, daljom sadržinskom analizom stavki i zadržanih faktora nije utvrđeno neslaganje s originalnim istraživanjem. Modifikovana skala sadrži 31 stavku koje su raspoređene u pet izdvojenih faktora: *društvena reforma*, *briga o studentima*, *transmisija*, *uvođenje u praksu* i *modelovanje*. Ti faktori dobro reprezentuju celu skalu perspektiva o nastavi jer obuhvataju četiri faktora iz originalne skale (Collins & Pratt, 2011) i peti faktor koji je izdvojen i detaljno opisan u drugom značajnom istraživanju (Chan, 1994).

Prvi izdvojeni faktor okuplja stavke koje se odnose na perspektivu o nastavi usmerenoj ka društvenoj reformi. To je faktor koji sadrži pet stavki iz originalne supskale *društvena reforma* i stavku D8 (Poučavanje bi trebalo da bude usmereno na razvoj kvalitativnih promena u mišljenju), koja originalno pripada supskali *razvojna perspektiva*. Kako je ova perspektiva usmerena na promene i izazove u društvu a nastava teži tome da suštinski promeni društvo (Pratt & Collins, 2000), nije iznanađujuće što je stavka koja se odnosi na kvalitativne promene u mišljenju studenata pridružena toj perspektivi, iako originalno pripada drugoj. Svojim sadržajem, ta stavka ukazuje na značaj kvalitativnih promena u razmišljanju studenata koje dalje mogu da utiču na njihovo ponašanje i delovanje u široj društvenoj zajednici.

Perspektiva o nastavi kao brizi o studentima predstavlja drugi izdvojeni faktor koji sadrži šest stavki iz originalne supskale *briga o studentima* i dve stavke koje ne pripadaju originalno toj skali. U pitanju su stavke S2 (Tokom nastave više naglašavam vrednosti nego znanja) i A3 (Organizujem nastavu tako da početnici mogu da uče od iskusnijih). Konfirmatornom faktorskom analizom je sugerisano da se stavka A3 iz te supskale prebaci u supskalu *uvođenje u praksu*. U okviru ove perspektive, nastavnici su posvećeni tome da kreiraju takvo okruženje za učenje

koje obezbeđuje podršku svim studentima, ali i izazov u smislu napretka i učenja (Pratt & Collins, 2000). Takođe, nastavnici su usmereni na to da pružaju podršku i omogućavaju studentima da imaju kontrolu nad sopstvenim obrazovanjem, kao i da saraduju sa drugima u procesu učenja (Pratt & Associates, 1998). Zaključuje se da sadržaj pridruženih stavki u značajnoj meri odgovara karakteristikama ove perspektive jer se takođe odnosi na kreiranje stimulativnog okruženja za učenje putem naglašavanja određenih vrednosti u odnosu na znanje i u saradnji sa drugima.

Treći izdvojeni faktor potpuno odgovara originalnoj supskali *transmisija*. Taj faktor obuhvata šest stavki iz originalne skale i odnosi se na perspektivu koja je zasnovana na uverenju da određeno znanje i nastavne sadržaje treba efikasno i tačno preneti studentima. U skladu sa tim, efikasna nastava najviše zavisi od stručnosti i ekspertize samog nastavnika (Pratt, 1998).

Četvrti i peti faktor okupljaju najviše stavki iz originalne supskale *uvođenje u praksu*. Međutim, u našem istraživanju originalna supskala podeljena je na dva faktora pri čemu se oba odnose na praksu, ali je utvrđeno da mere dva različita konstrukta. Veoma slična faktorska struktura dobijena je i u ranijem istraživanju (Chan, 1994), u kojem je istovetno ova perspektiva podeljena na dva faktora i to: *uvođenje u praksu* i *modelovanje*. U našem istraživanju, stavke grupisane oko četvrtog faktora odnose se na perspektivu o nastavi kao uvođenju u praksu. Ovaj faktor obuhvata četiri stavke iz originalne skale i dodatna dve stavke D4 (Moja namera je da pomažem studentima da razvijaju složenije načine razmišljanja) i D6 (Želim da studenti uvide koliko su stvari kompleksne i međusobno povezane). Stavke okupljene oko tog faktora ukazuju na to da se učenje najbolje realizuje praktičnom primenom i da su znanje i praksa nerazdvojni koncepti (Chan, 1994). Takođe, pretpostavka ove perspektive jeste da se najefikasnije uči u radu na konkretnom, autentičnom zadatku u realnom okruženju i da podrazumeva kombinaciju demonstracije, posmatranja i vođene prakse, pri čemu studenti gradualno obavljaju sve kompleksnije zadatke (Pratt & Collins, 2000). Karakteristike ove perspektive povezane su direktno sa sadržajem dve pridružene stavke iz originalne supskale *razvojna perspektiva*.

Peti faktor obuhvata tri stavke iz originalne supskale *uvođenje u praksu* i stavku T9 (Efikasni nastavnici moraju najpre biti eksperti u oblasti koju predaju). Sadržinskom analizom je utvrđeno da se stavke prevashodno odnose na ulogu nastavnika kao dobrog praktičara koji predstavlja određeni model u nastavi. U tom smislu, u okviru ove perspektive „uloga nastavnika jeste da predstavlja svojevrsni model i da demonstrira poželjan način i vrednosti rada” (Chan, 1994, str. 145). Osim toga, perspektiva o nastavi kao uvođenju u praksu podrazumeva da nastavnici kojima je to dominantna perspektiva organizuju nastavu tako da

studenti mogu da posmatraju njihov rad dok praktično demonstriraju ono što bi trebalo da se nauči (Pratt & Collins, 2000). Zbog toga ne iznenađuje činjenica da je stavka koja originalno pripada supskali *transmisija* a koja se odnosi na ekspertsku ulogu nastavnika pridružena tom faktoru. Taj izdvojeni faktor odgovara perspektivi o nastavi kao modelovanju, izdvojenom i definisanom u prethodnom istraživanju (Chan, 1994).

Dodatno je utvrđeno da srpska verzija skale TPI zadovoljava i ostale ispitivane psihometrijske kriterijume. Naime, pouzdanost celokupne skale izražena Krombahovim alfa koeficijentom vrlo je visoka i iznosi .908 i veća je u odnosu na istraživanje autora skale (.76). Takođe, utvrđena je dobra pouzdanost sve tri supskale koje se odnose na uverenja, namere i akcije (iznad .70), kao i dobra pouzdanost svih pet supskala koje se odnose na perspektive o nastavi (iznad .70). Ti su rezultati u skladu sa istraživanjima na drugim populacijama (Chan, 1994; Misieng, 2013), pri čemu najveću pouzdanost imaju skale *društvena reforma* i *briga o studentima*, a najmanju supskale *uvođenje u praksu* i *modelovanje*, što je potvrđeno i u našem istraživanju. U poređenju sa istraživanjem koje je takođe rađeno u Srbiji, ali na uzorku studenata (Stančić, Jovanović i Simić, 2013), u našem istraživanju na uzorku univerzitetskih nastavnika dobijena je veća pouzdanost pojedinačnih supskala koje se odnose na perspektive o nastavi. Ti podaci govore da je stepen srodnosti svih zadržanih stavki u revidiranom upitniku visok, odnosno da imaju isti jedinstven predmet merenja. Visoka pouzdanost supskala jeste indikator da tako grupisane stavke mere isti konstrukt, to jest perspektivu o nastavi kojoj pripadaju.

Značajno je istaći i da svi faktori međusobno pozitivno koreliraju, i to u rasponu od niskih ($r = .15$) koje ostvaruju faktori *transmisija* i *društvena reforma*, do umerenih korelacija ($r = .547$), između faktora *briga o studentima* i *društvena reforma*. Veoma slični rezultati dobijeni su u originalnom istraživanju, gde je utvrđeno da se korelacije takođe kreću od niskih ($r = .15$) između *transmisija* i *briga o studentima* do umerenih ($r = .58$) između *uvođenje u praksu* i *razvojni perspektiva* (Collins & Pratt, 2011). Umerene i niske korelacije jesu indikatori da su izdvojeni faktori u modifikovanoj verziji skale međusobno odvojeni i različiti konstrukti, pri čemu svaki od njih meri drugu perspektivu o nastavi. Takođe, niske i umerene korelacije koje su utvrđene između faktora ukazuju na to da i univerzitetski nastavnici jasno prave razliku među tim konceptima (Brown et al., 2009).

Dobijeni podaci nedvosmisleno pokazuju da je verzija TPI skale na srpskom jeziku primenljiva u našem kontekstu, da ima dobru pouzdanost i validnost, ali da zahteva modifikacije kada su u pitanju konstrukti koje ispituje. U skladu s tim, univerzitetski nastavnici u Srbiji vrlo jasno prepoznaju i definišu svoju ulogu kao nastavnika koji prenosi nastavne sadržaje, koji brine o studen-

tima i njihovom razvoju, koji obraća pažnju na društvene vrednosti i promene i univerzitetsko obrazovanje direktno povezuje sa praksom i radom u realnom kontekstu. Takođe, izdvojeni faktor koji se odnosi na perspektivu o nastavniku kao ekspertu koji usmerava studente i modeluje procese njihovog saznavanja ukazuje na to da se u našem obrazovnom kontekstu značajnije ističe uloga nastavnika. Može se zaključiti da uloga nastavnika u visokom obrazovanju i perspektive o nastavi imaju delimično drugačija tumačenja u različitim obrazovnim sistemima i društvenim kontekstima. U Srbiji bi tu skalu trebalo primeniti uz dodatno naglašavanje konstrukta i aspekta koji se odnose na ekspertsku ulogu nastavnika i njihov značaj u visokoškolskoj nastavi.

Zaključak

Na osnovu podataka dobijenih u ovom istraživanju, opravdano je zaključiti da je TPI validan i pouzdan instrument za utvrđivanje perspektiva o nastavi univerzitetskih nastavnika. Dodatni značaj i vrednost skale jeste to što su, na osnovu takvih psihometrijskih pokazatelja, rezultati dobijeni u Srbiji uporedivi sa rezultatima u drugim zemljama. Takođe, srpska verzija skale TPI predstavlja skraćenu verziju, što omogućava jednostavniju i efikasniju primenu u nastavnoj praksi i naučnim istraživanjima. Iako rezultati ukazuju na nešto drugačiju latentnu strukturu skale u odnosu na originalno istraživanje, opšti je zaključak da je ovim istraživanjem obezbeđena validacija pet perspektiva o nastavi (Pratt, 1998), u okviru kojih je i faktor izolovan u drugim istraživanjima (Brown et al., 2009; Chan, 1994). Na osnovu toga se zaključuje da perspektive o nastavi jesu merljivi konstrukti i da se mogu procenjivati pouzdanim i validnim instrumentom koji sadrži 31 stavku. Tim je instrumentom potvrđeno da postoje četiri originalne perspektive o nastavi, a utvrđena je i peta perspektiva o nastavi kao modelovanju, značajna za naš obrazovni kontekst.

Iako dobijeni rezultati pokazuju da je uzorkovanje adekvatno (Kaizer–Mayer–Olkin iznosi .924), jedno od ograničenja sprovedenog istraživanja odnosi se na činjenicu da su ispitanici na dobrovoljnoj osnovi ispunjavali onlajn upitnik, što otvara mogućnost da su upitnik popunjavali univerzitetski nastavnici i saradnici koji su veoma zainteresovani i motivisani za nastavnu delatnost. Još jedno ograničenje se sastoji u tome što su u istraživanje uključeni ispitanici zaposleni na dva univerziteta u Srbiji; uzorak koji bi osigurao širu zastupljenost univerziteta u Srbiji svakako bi uvećao mogućnost uopštavanja dobijenih rezultata. Konačno, iako je TPI validiran na uzorku od 526 univerzitetskih nastavnika u Srbiji pokazao dobru pouzdanost i valjanost, pronađene su blage razlike u faktorskoj struk-

turi u odnosu na prethodna istraživanja (Chan, 1994; Collins & Pratt, 2011; Misieng, 2013). Budući da je reč o primeni instrumenta u sredini s drugačijom kulturnom tradicijom, dobijene rezultate treba tumačiti sa posebnim oprezom. Otuda bi se moglo reći da su rezultati ovog istraživanja omeđeni specifičnim kulturološkim, obrazovnim i istraživačkim kontekstima.

Značajno je istaći da ova studija, osim naučnih, ima i praktične implikacije za pedagoški i nastavni rad sa odraslima jer potvrđuje da upotreba TPI skale pruža dodatnu podršku univerzitetkim nastavnicima u kontekstu razumevanja sopstvenih uverenja, namera i akcija, kao i dominantnih perspektiva o nastavi. U tom smislu nastavnici mogu da koriste skalu i kao alat za samoprocenu i samoevaluaciju radi unapređenja nastavnog rada i saradnje sa studentima, kako su autori originalne skale i pretpostavili (Collins & Pratt, 2011). To je posebno značajno u kontekstu unapređenja kvaliteta visokog obrazovanja i nastave na univerzitetima u Srbiji i dodatnog osnaživanja uloge i značaja univerzitetskih nastavnika.

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Teaching Perspectives Inventory (TPI): Validation and Possibilities of Scale Application in Serbia⁸

Abstract: Research directed at an examination of teachers' beliefs, conceptions, and perspectives on teaching demonstrate that these phenomena define teachers' perceptions and behavior, as well as influence students' learning and teaching efficiency. For the purposes of testing teachers' perceptions, we created the Teaching Perspectives Inventory (TPI). The goal of this research is the validation and adaptation of this scale on a sample of 526 university professors in Serbia. The results of exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis confirm the five-factor model, which to a certain extent differs from the structure of the original instrument. All five sub-scales demonstrate adequate internal consistency in the range from .70 to .87, whereby good convergent validity is also confirmed. The modified version of TPI ensured the validation of originally defined teaching perspectives, and it was concluded that this scale may be used reliably in the educational context of Serbia.

Key words: teaching perspectives, university professors, TPI, psychometric characteristics, Serbia.

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Iskustva učitelja tokom stručnog usavršavanja uz podršku facilitatora³

Apstrakt: U savremenim koncepcijama stručnog usavršavanja nastavnika naglašava se značaj podrške facilitatora. Polazeći od toga da je sagledavanje perspektive nastavnika ključno za razumevanje tog procesa, cilj našeg istraživanja je bio da ispitamo kakva su iskustva učitelja tokom kontinuiranog stručnog usavršavanja za primenu inovativnih metoda u nastavi, uz podršku facilitatora. Primenom kvalitativne tematske analize, analizirani su transkripti audio-snimaka proizvedenih tokom 18 individualnih razgovora koje su facilitatori obavili sa tri učitelja jedne osnovne škole u Beogradu. Rezultati istraživanja ukazuju na to da su iskustva učitelja u tom procesu generalno pozitivna i da je došlo do preispitivanja postojeće prakse i implicitnih pedagoških uverenja, kao i do pozitivnih pomaka u njihovom radu. Individualni rad facilitatora sa učiteljima, koji uključuje uzajamno poverenje, ima potencijal kada je u pitanju podsticanje i održavanje motivacije učitelja za primenu inovacija i dalje stručno usavršavanje. Ukazano je na ključne implikacije dobijenih nalaza i date su smernice za dalja istraživanja u toj oblasti.

Ključne reči: stručno usavršavanje, učitelj, facilitator, inovativne nastavne metode, refleksivni pristup nastavnoj praksi.

Uvod

Cilj stručnog usavršavanja nastavnika jeste da nadogradi znanja koja su stekli u inicijalnom obrazovanju, da osigura razvoj novih veština i da obogati njihove profesionalne uvide (OECD, 2008). U osnovi savremenih koncepcija stručnog usavršavanja nastavnika su postavke teorije iskustvenog učenja i teorije transformativnog učenja. Prema teoriji iskustvenog učenja (Kolb, 2014), do istinskih saznanja dolazi se upravo putem iskustva, direktnog doživljaja i lične povezanosti sa novim spoznajama i konceptima, pa znanje koje nastavnici stiču tokom pro-

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fesionalnog učenja „treba da počiva na iskustvenim događajima koji se dešavaju u kontekstu svakodnevnog rada, a ne na teorijskim pojmovima preuzetim izvan profesionalne prakse” (Džinović i Đerić, 2012, str. 119). Da bi proces učenja doveo do novih zaključaka i spoznaja i da bi se održala motivacija za dalje učenje, iskustvo treba da bude izazovno i različito od već postojećeg. Proces iskustvenog učenja počinje uvidom u to da postojeći konstrukti i znanja nisu dovoljni za rešavanje nekih novih problema i izazova sa kojima se nastavnici suočavaju, nakon čega slede aktivnosti posmatranja, analiziranja i reflektovanja novog iskustva koje dovode do novih spoznaja i zaključaka. Ciklus se završava isprobavanjem novih koncepata u praksi. Teorija transformativnog učenja (Mezirow, 1997) naglašava značaj učenja iz prethodnog iskustva upravo njegovom reinterpretačijom i transformacijom postojećih pretpostavki koje su u osnovi značenja koje pojedinac pridaje određenim pojavama, pa je u procesu učenja ključna kritička refleksija koja može da izazove promenu i unapređivanje. Promena perspektive je „emancipatorni proces u kojem osoba postaje kritički svesna kako i zašto strukture psihokulturnih pretpostavki (počinju da) ograničavaju način na koji osoba vidi sebe i svoje odnose, istovremeno rekonstituišući spornu strukturu da bi se omogućila inkluzivnija i diskriminativnija integracija iskustva i ponašanja zasnovanog na novom razumevanju” (Jovanović i Popović, 2019, str. 91). Polazeći od teorija iskustvenog i transformativnog učenja, u savremenim koncepcijama stručnog usavršavanja nastavnika naglašava se važnost učenja putem iskustva i isprobavanja novih rešenja u nastavi, kao i zauzimanja kritičkog odnosa prema svom radu putem preispitivanja sopstvene prakse i implicitnih pedagoških uverenja. Drugim rečima, od nastavnika se očekuje da nova znanja i veštine do kojih dođu u ovom procesu transformišu u nastavnu praksu, s ciljem da unaprede ukupan razvoj i postignuća učenika (Avalos, 2010; Desimone, 2009).

Unapređivanje nastavne prakse, kao jedan od osnovnih ciljeva stručnog usavršavanja nastavnika, predstavlja složen i neizvestan proces koji je često prožet različitim izazovima i teškoćama. Jedna grupa teškoća proističe iz koncepcije samih programa stručnog usavršavanja koji često nisu u skladu sa konkretnim potrebama nastavnika, njihovim prethodnim znanjima i postojećim pedagoškim uverenjima (Dori, Tal & Peled, 2002). Takođe, implementiranje inovativnih metoda u nastavnu praksu dodatno je otežano ukoliko se u okviru programa stručnog usavršavanja ne obezbede potreban vremenski kontinuitet (Džinović, 2009) i permanentna podrška nastavniciima (Borko, 2004). Osim teškoća koje proizlaze iz prirode programa, izdvajaju se problemi koji se dovode u vezu sa nastavnikom i njegovim odnosom prema profesionalnom razvoju i inoviranju nastavne prakse. Tako, nastavnik može osećati strah od nepoznatog i nesigurnost u uvođenju inovacija, naročito na početku tog procesa (Vujačić, Đević i Stanišić,

2017). Kao faktor koji često ometa proces uvođenja inovacija u nastavu prepoznaje se i nedostatak motivacije nastavnika da se dodatno profesionalno angažuju (Malinić, Đerić i Šefer, 2018). Čak i nastavnici koji na početku procesa pokazuju motivisanost skloni su odustajanju i padu motivacije u situacijama kada treba da odstupe od ustaljenih uverenja i navika. Dodatnu poteškoću može da predstavlja i negativan odnos nastavnika prema inovacijama, s obzirom na to da se negativne percepcije mogu nepovoljno odraziti na njihovu motivaciju da istraju u ovom procesu (Džinović, 2017).

Da bi se tokom procesa stručnog usavršavanja obezbedilo ostvarivanje postavljenih ciljeva profesionalnog učenja, neophodno je uvažavati lične karakteristike nastavnika i osobene specifičnosti konteksta u kojem se taj proces odvija (Stanković i Pavlović, 2010). Tako, nastavnici su više motivisani da učestvuju u nekom obliku stručnog usavršavanja ukoliko su angažovani u onim profesionalnim aktivnostima koje smatraju smislenim i za koje su zainteresovani (Schwarz, 2001). Osim uvažavanja aktuelnih profesionalnih potreba nastavnika, efektivno stručno usavršavanje nastavnicima bi trebalo da omogući da unaprede opšte pedagoško-psihološke veštine i predmetna znanja i da preispitaju postojeća uverenja, što će im omogućiti da postepeno prevazilaze određena ograničenja u svom radu (Darling Hammond & McLaughlin, 2011; Mitchell & Cubey, 2003). Takođe, da bi stručno usavršavanje imalo dugoročne efekte na rad nastavnika i da bi omogućilo da inovativne metode zažive u nastavnoj praksi, treba obezbediti adekvatan sistem podrške na nivou škole (Stanković i Vujačić, 2011). Posebno je važno da određeni program stručnog usavršavanja ima vremenski kontinuitet i jasno definisane procedure za sagledavanje iskustava nastavnika tokom profesionalnog učenja i za evaluaciju efekata samog programa (Guskey, 2003; Guskey, 2000). Adekvatno sagledavanje efekata realizovanog programa podrazumeva proces evaluacije koji je zasnovan na različitim metodologijama, izvorima i načinima prikupljanja podataka (Pavlović i Vujačić, 2012).

Kako bi potrebe savremenog nastavnika bile zadovoljene tokom procesa stručnog usavršavanja, nastavnicima je prilikom profesionalnog učenja neophodno omogućiti da refleksivno revidiraju sopstvena pedagoška uverenja (Korthage & Vasalos, 2005) te da unapređuju i transformišu obrazovnu praksu aktivnim istraživačkim pristupom. U osnovi tog shvatanja je povezivanje istraživanja i prakse s ciljem da obrazovni akteri proučavaju svoju praksu kao istraživači i da teškoće na koje nailaze prevazilaze kontinuiranim traganjem i testiranjem različitih rešenja u nastavi (Džinović, 2016). Primenjujući nova rešenja u nastavi, nastavnici u sopstvenom iskustvu uviđaju da ona mogu dovesti do boljih rezultata u radu sa učenicima, nego što je to slučaj sa rešenjima koja su do tada primenjivali u nastavi i na koja su naviknuti (Džinović i Đerić, 2012). To iskustveno učenje pomaže

nastavnicima da postojeća implicitna pedagoška uverenja preispitaju i promene, što u krajnjoj liniji vodi ka unapređivanju nastavnog procesa (Pajares, 1992).

S obzirom na složenost procesa stručnog usavršavanja koji od nastavnika zahteva izlazak iz „zone komfora” te preispitivanje i menjanje duboko ukorenjenih uverenja o prirodi deteta, njegovom razvoju i procesu učenja, neophodno je da u tom procesu dobiju kontinuiranu stručnu i organizacionu podršku (Džinović, 2017; Borko, 2004). Naime, njihovo usavršavanje je uspešnije i efikasnije ukoliko je u taj proces uključen i facilitator (ekspert, istraživač). Polazeći od toga da u savremenom shvatanju stručnog usavršavanja nastavnika akcenat nije na tome šta nastavnik uči, već kako uči, značajno se menja i uloga edukatora u tom procesu. Za razliku od tradicionalne uloge prenosioca znanja, edukator postaje nastavnikov partner i facilitator razvojnih procesa. Facilitator nastavnicima obezbeđuje stručnu podršku tako što upoznaje nastavnike sa savremenim metodičko-didaktičkim znanjima, pomaže im u primeni tih znanja u praksi, podstiče ih da razvijaju nove pedagoške veštine i omogućava im da bolje razumeju ono što uče (Cordingley *et al.*, 2007). Osim toga, facilitator obezbeđuje psihološku podršku nastavnicima i predstavlja važan motivacioni agens koji ohrabruje i osnažuje nastavnike kako bi im pomogao da prevaziđu različite prepreke koje su neizostavan deo procesa uvođenja inovacija u nastavi (Tan, 2014; Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 2011) i kako bi ubrzao njihov profesionalni razvoj (Džinović, 2016). Istraživanja pokazuju da je tokom procesa facilitacije korisno koristiti različite motivacione postupke, kao što su javna pohvala, promovisanje uspeha i nagrađivanje, i davati podržavajuće povratne informacije nastavnicima (Đerić, Malinić i Šefer, 2017).

Cilj istraživanja. U teorijskom uvodu smo ukazali na to da stručno usavršavanje učitelja koje podrazumeva iskustveno učenje, putem primene inovativnih rešenja u nastavi, refleksivnog pristupa i podrške facilitatora, stvara dugoročnije efekte na nastavnu praksu. Sagledavanje iskustava učitelja tokom ovako organizovanog stručnog usavršavanja ključno je za razumevanje tog procesa. Polazeći od toga, cilj našeg istraživanja je da ispitamo kakva su iskustva učitelja tokom kontinuiranog stručnog usavršavanja za primenu inovativnih metoda u nastavi, uz podršku facilitatora.

Metod

Kontekst istraživanja. Istraživanje koje ćemo prikazati u ovom radu deo je šire istraživačke studije koja je obavljena u jednoj osnovnoj školi u Beogradu, u kojoj je primenjen model Trolist. Taj model predstavlja pedagoški pristup obrazovanju u kome su objedinjena i isprepletana tri opšta cilja: razvijanje saradnje, stvaralaš-

tva i inicijative (Šefer, 2012). Kao deo modela Trolist, realizovan je i dugoročni program stručnog usavršavanja sa ciljem da se učitelji i nastavnici podstaknu da primene inovativne nastavne metode (metode saradničkog učenja, kreativnu igru, otvorene zadatke, dijalog u nastavi i istraživački rad) kako bi podstakli inicijativu, saradnju i stvaralaštvo učenika. Taj program stručnog usavršavanja obuhvatio je tri usko povezane celine: (a) instruktivne dane, tokom kojih su učitelji i nastavnici sukcesivno izučavali pomenute inovativne metode; (b) izradu priprema za časove i realizaciju časova na kojima su primenjene inovativne nastavne metode i (c) sastanke stručnih veća, na kojima su, osim učitelja i nastavnika, prisustvovali i facilitatori koji su imali ulogu da pokrenu dijalog među nastavnicima, da ih podstaknu da kritički razmišljaju o svojoj praksi i da im pomognu da inovativna rešenja povežu sa svojim postojećim znanjima i uverenjima.

Aktivnosti u fazi održivosti modela Trolist u model školi, u okviru koje je obavljeno istraživanje koje prikazujemo u ovom radu, bile su usmerene na stručno usavršavanje učitelja i nastavnika koji nisu prošli inicijalnu obuku i program stručnog usavršavanja zajedno sa ostalim kolegama. Početna aktivnost je podrazumevala organizovanje sastanka kome su prisustvovali svi istraživači (facilitatori) i odabrani učitelji i nastavnici. Na tom sastanku učitelji i nastavnici su informisani o procesu planiranog stručnog usavršavanja i upoznati sa aktivnostima koje su predviđene. Nakon toga, učiteljima i nastavnicima je podeljena inicijalna anketa u kojoj se očekivalo da označe one Trolist metode koje su primenjivali u radu i da opišu svoja iskustva u primeni tih metoda, imajući u vidu koristi i nedostatke, reakcije učenika i primenjivost na postojeći plan i program. Anketa je poslužila i tome da se dobije uvid u interesovanja učitelja i nastavnika za primenu konkretne inovativne metode iz Trolista. Naime, ponuđena im je mogućnost da izaberu jednu od Trolist metoda čiju primenu bi želeli da unaprede u saradnji sa facilitatorima. Na osnovu interesovanja učitelja i nastavnika napravljeni su timovi facilitatora kojima su raspoređeni odabrani učitelji i nastavnici. Svaki facilitatorski tim sastojao se od dva facilitatora koji su radili sa onim učiteljima i nastavnicima koji su odabrali Trolist metodu koja je deo njihove ekspertize. U ovom radu biće prikazani rezultati individualnog facilitatorskog rada sa tri učitelja koji su odabrali da se usavršavaju za primenu kreativne igre⁴. S obzirom na to da kreativna igra uvek počinje nekim nestrukturiranim zadatkom i da podrazumeva saradnju među učenicima, učitelji su

⁴ Igra, kao aktivnost koja je poučna i ima elemente zabave, istovremeno može biti i kreativna aktivnost koja pogoduje razvoju stvaralaštva, kao što su, na primer, likovno-konstruktivne igre, igre sa materijalima, igre koje angažuju različita čula, maštu i osećanja, igre koje oživljavaju različite prostore i vreme, igre koje povezuju različita značenja, igre u kojima se pojava posmatra iz različitih uglova, logičke igre u kojima postoji izvestan stepen divergencije i istraživačke igre (Šefer, 2015a).

se uporedo usavršavali i za primenu otvorenih zadataka⁵ i metoda saradničkog učenja u nastavi⁶.

Facilitatorski rad sa učiteljima obuhvatio je nekoliko usko povezanih celina: inicijalni razgovor sa učiteljima, osmišljavanje priprema za časove na kojima će biti primenjena kreativna igra, realizacija časova (sve časove su posmatrali facilitatori), refleksija nakon njihove realizacije i završni razgovor sa učiteljima. Tokom procesa stručnog usavršavanja sva tri učitelja su uz podršku facilitatora pripremila i realizovala po četiri časa na kojima su primenili kreativnu igru.

Učitelji su bili podstaknuti da aktivno učestvuju u procesu osmišljavanja i realizacije nastavnih časova na kojima je primenjena kreativna igra i da tokom i nakon realizacije časova refleksivno promišljaju o sopstvenoj praksi. U individualnim razgovorima sa učiteljima, facilitatori su ih na različite načine ohrabivali i podsticali da dođu do novih uvida o različitim aspektima svoje nastavne prakse i da nove uvide do kojih su došli povežu sa postojećim uverenjima. Uloga facilitatora podrazumevala je i ukazivanje na dobre strane rada učitelja, pa su tokom individualnih razgovora iznosili pozitivne utiske o času, isticali ono što je učitelj dobro isplanirao i realizovao. Facilitatori su posebno naglašavali pozitivne efekte na učenike koji su rezultat rada učitelja i primene inovativnih metoda. Osim što su isticali dobre strane časa, facilitatori su ukazivali i na ona rešenja koja nisu bila u potpunosti dobro isplanirana i realizovana i podsticali učitelje da daju nove, adekvatnije predloge. Facilitatori su učiteljima bili podrška i u osmišljavanju ideja za realizaciju narednih časova, koje su se u procesu osmišljavanja pripreme za čas nadovezivale na inicijalne ideje učitelja. U tom procesu podsećali su ih na Trolist ciljeve i ukazivali im na mogućnosti primene Trolist metoda u nastavi.

Učesnici istraživanja. Učesnici istraživanja su učitelji prvog i drugog razreda (tri učitelja) i dva facilitatora. Oba facilitatora imaju dugogodišnje iskustvo u oblasti obrazovanja i naučnoistraživačkog rada. Facilitatori su birani na osnovu njihovih stručnih kompetencija za određene teme i sadržaje koji se odnose na Trolist metode, u ovom slučaju za primenu kreativne igre. Što se tiče pola, u istraživanju su participirale dve učiteljice i jedan učitelj. Kada je u pitanju dužina radnog iskustva, učitelji koji su učestvovali u našem istraživanju imali su od jedne do pet godina radnog staža u školi. Za potrebe ovog istraživanja analizirano je ukupno 18 individualnih razgovora sa učiteljima (po šest individualnih razgovora sa svakim učiteljem).

⁵ Kreativna igra uvek počinje otvorenim nestrukturiranim zadatkom kojim nastavnici usmeravaju učenike da nešto izmisle, dopune ili dorade, čime pokreću divergentno mišljenje i upućuju učenike da traže više različitih rešenja koja su originalna i nova u odnosu na rešenja koja su drugi učenici već ponudili kao svoj odgovor (Šefer, 2015b).

⁶ Metode saradničkog učenja podrazumevaju interakciju među učenicima, saradnju, razmenu mišljenja i uzajamnu pomoć u rešavanju zajedničkog zadatka (Vujačić, Đević i Stanišić, 2017).

Instrumenti. Za potrebe ovog istraživanja kreirano je šest instrumenata: inicijalna anketa, tri vodiča za inicijalni razgovor sa učiteljima (poseban vodič za svakog učitelja), vodič za individualne razgovore sa učiteljima o utiscima nakon realizacije časova i vodič za završni razgovor sa učiteljima. Svi istraživački instrumenti bili su polustrukturirani i poslužili su samo kao okvir za individualne razgovore.

Inicijalna anketa je data učiteljima sa ciljem da se dobije uvid u njihova interesovanja za primenu konkretne inovativne Trolist metode. Sadržala je pitanja u kojima se od učitelja očekivalo da: (a) označe one Trolist metode koje su već primenjivali u radu; (b) opišu svoja iskustva u primeni tih metoda imajući u vidu koristi i nedostatke, reakcije učenika i primenjivost na postojeći plan i program i (c) odaberu konkretnu inovativnu Trolist metodu čiju primenu bi voleli da unaprede u saradnji sa facilitatorima, uz obrazloženje svog izbora.

Na osnovu odgovora datih u inicijalnoj anketi, za svakog učitelja je posebno kreiran vodič za prvi razgovor. Ti vodiči su poslužili da se o odgovorima koje su učitelji dali u inicijalnoj anketi dodatno prodiskutuje, što je facilitatorima bilo od pomoći u daljem individualnom radu sa učiteljima.

Vodič za individualne razgovore sa učiteljima o utiscima nakon realizacije časova sadržao je pitanja kojima su učitelji podsticani da kritički razmišljaju o svojoj praksi i da inovativna rešenja povežu sa svojim postojećim znanjima i uverenjima (Šta ste time hteli da postignete? Šta Vam je bila namera? Zašto Vam je bilo važno da to uradite? Šta ste želeli da ih naučite? Koja su bila Vaša očekivanja? Kako ste se osećali na času, a kako posle časa? Kako mislite da biste kroz 10 godina gledali na ovaj čas? Čime niste zadovoljni? Koji je najsvetliji momenat sa ovog časa? Kako su deca razmišljala tokom časa? Da li biste želeli još nešto da nas pitate? Šta biste voleli da Vas dodatno pitamo?).

Vodič za završni razgovor sa učiteljima poslužio je da se dobije uvid u njihova mišljenja o celokupnom procesu stručnog usavršavanja (Kako gledate na celokupan proces stručnog usavršavanja i facilitacije koji smo prošli sa Vama? Kako sada, nakon ovog iskustva, posmatrate kreativnu igru u nastavi? Šta smatrate osnovnim prednostima primene ove nastavne metode? Šta su osnovne teškoće u primeni ove metode? Da li ćete u Vašem daljem radu primenjivati ovu nastavnu metodu? Kakva podrška Vam je dalje potrebna za primenu ove nastavne metode?).

Način prikupljanja podataka. Individualni razgovori sa učiteljima prvog i drugog razreda realizovani su od februara do juna 2019. godine. Svi razgovori su vođeni u školi, uglavnom jednom u dve nedelje i trajali su u proseku 45 minuta. Za sve individualne razgovore napravljeni su audio-snimci koji su potom transkribovani.

Analiza podataka. Primenjena je kvalitativna tematska analiza sadržaja (Braun & Clark, 2006), koja je obuhvatila nekoliko faza: (1) detaljno upoznavanje sa transkribovanim materijalom radi dobijanja uvida u njegov sadržaj; (2) izdvajanje ključnih značenja i poruka iz teksta – kodiranje; (3) grupisanje kodova u kategorije i (4) grupisanje kategorija u teme. U trećoj fazi analize podataka autori ovog rada su izdvojene kodove svrstali u šest kategorija. Transkripti i lista kategorija prosleđeni su nezavisnom procenitelju sa ciljem da postojeće iskaze ispitanika svrsta u ponuđene kategorije. Dogovoreno je da kao najmanja jedinica analize bude uzet iskaz koji je izgovoren od jednog učitelja u kontinuitetu i da jedan iskaz može biti svrstan u jednu ili više kategorija. Postupak je korišćen radi utvrđivanja intersubjektivne saglasnosti i izračunavanja vrednosti kappa za svaku kategoriju.

Rezultati

U četvrtoj fazi analize podataka izdvojene kategorije⁷ grupisane su u tri teme: (1) izazovi i teškoće u procesu stručnog usavršavanja; (2) preispitivanje i menjanje nastavne prakse i implicitnih pedagoških uverenja i (3) motivacija za dalje stručno usavršavanje i primenu inovativnih rešenja u nastavi. U tabeli 1 prikazani su klasifikacija kodova u kategorije i teme, kao i učestalost pojavljivanja kodova u kategorijama.

Tabela 1. Klasifikacija kodova u kategorije i teme i učestalost pojavljivanja kodova unutar njih

TEME	KATEGORIJE	KODOVI
	Nesigurnost učitelja u primeni inovativnih metoda	Nesamostalnost učitelja (20) Primena inovativnih metoda je veliki izazov (12) Procena trajanja planiranih aktivnosti (18) Potreba za podrškom facilitatora (12)
Izazovi i teškoće u procesu stručnog usavršavanja	Implicitna pedagoška uverenja učitelja kao otežavajući faktor u primeni inovativnih metoda	Naglasak na usvajanje sadržaja (15) Kreativna igra kao <i>igrarija</i> , a ne metod za ozbiljno učenje (8) Učenici nisu dovoljno sposobni za teže zadatke (13) Ograničenja primene inovativnih metoda u pojedinim predmetima (10) Previše slobode učenicima – problem sa disciplinom (14)

⁷ Podaci ukazuju na to da je postignuta intersubjektivna saglasnost zadovoljavajućeg nivoa, s obzirom na to da su kappa vrednosti za pomenute kategorije između 0,8 i 1.

TEME	KATEGORIJE	KODOVI
Preispitivanje i menjanje nastavne prakse i implicitnih pedagoških uverenja	Novi uvidi učitelja kao podsticaj za preispitivanje nastavne prakse i implicitnih pedagoških uverenja	Igru je moguće primeniti na časovima svih nastavnih predmeta (7) Nastavnik treba da obezbedi mehanizme kontrole grupnog rada (6) Za saradničko učenje su potrebne razvijene socijalne veštine učenika (8) Uvid da se primenom inovativnih metoda može postići uspeh u učenju (10) Uvid učitelja u to šta je mogao drugačije da uradi (27) Učenje ne treba shvatati kao proces prenošenja znanja (5)
	Pozitivni pomoci u radu učitelja	Učitelj je zadovoljniji svojim radom (19) Veća fleksibilnost učitelja (11) Jačanje samopouzdanja učitelja (7) Intenzivnija saradnja sa kolegama (14) Spremnost za nove izazove (23)
Motivacija za dalje stručno usavršavanje i primenu inovativnih rešenja u nastavi	Pozitivni efekti realizovanih časova na učenike kao motivacioni činilac	Učenici su aktivniji (14) Učenici su više motivisani (18) Zainteresovanost učenika (43) Podstaknute su kreativnost i maštovitost učenika (17) Veća autonomija i samostalnost učenika (14) Veća otvorenost učenika (16) Bolja interakcija među učenicima (13)
	Podrška facilitatora kao motivacioni pokretač promene	Stručna podrška facilitatora (17) Psihološka podrška facilitatora (8) Pozitivna povratna informacija (13) Objektivnost facilitatora – ukazivanje na ono što nije dobro (7)

Izazovi i teškoće u procesu stručnog usavršavanja

U iskazima učitelja primetno je da su se u procesu stručnog usavršavanja suočavali sa određenim teškoćama i izazovima te da su u osmišljavanju i realizaciji časova na kojima su primenili inovativne metode osećali određenu dozu nesigurnosti. Postojeća pedagoška uverenja učitelja koja nisu u skladu sa inovativnim načinom rada bila su im prepreka u pripremi i realizaciji časova.

Nesigurnost učitelja u primeni inovativnih metoda. Nedostatak prethodnog iskustva u primeni inovativnih nastavnih metoda uticao je na to da se učitelji u

planiranju i realizaciji časova osećaju nesigurno i nepripremljeno za taj proces. Nesigurnost učitelja odnosila se na to kako će se učenici i oni lično snaći u novim aktivnostima i da li će uspešno realizovati ono što je planirano.

Osećala sam se nesigurnije nego inače, upravo zato jer sam se plašila kako će oni to napisati i da li će se snaći u nečemu novom, u tom pisanju uloga i scenarija. To me je malo brinulo (učiteljica drugog razreda).

U nekom trenutku kada sam videla da imaju malo poteškoća u pisanju samog teksta i kada su počele razmirice među njima, svako bi da nametne nešto svoje, to me je onako malo zabrinulo... (učiteljica drugog razreda).

...verovatno zbog straha, verovatno zbog toga što se bojimo da oni ne mogu odmah da stvaraju, ako ih mi nismo malo uputili (učiteljica drugog razreda).

Učitelji su bili nesigurni i u proceni trajanja planiranih aktivnosti koje su realizovane primenom inovativnih nastavnih metoda. Tako, dešavalo se da je za pojedine aktivnosti bilo potrebno znatno više vremena nego što su učitelji predvideli u pripremi časa, pa se to odrazilo na aktivnosti koje su sledile, a koje, usled nedostatka vremena, nisu mogli potpuno da realizuju.

Da, da, to hoću da kažem da sam malo bila zbunjena... Za ovu prvu igru ja sam onako gledala na sat jer je vreme već prolazilo, a ja nisam isplanirala toliko vremena za tu igru. Ja sam, iskreno, mislila da će to ići brže, ali nisu oni mašine (učiteljica prvog razreda).

Zbog nesigurnosti i nedostatka prethodnog iskustva, učiteljima su bile potrebne podrška i pomoć u procesu osmišljavanja i realizacije časova na kojima je trebalo da primene inovativne nastavne metode. Primetno je da su imali potrebu za kontinuiranom podrškom facilitatora.

...ali pomoglo bi mi da vidim kako su to neki drugi učitelji primenivali... pomoglo bi mi jer bih od toga mogla da krenem. Ja ne mogu sada da sednem i da kažem eh, hajde, hoću ovu igru da smislim za ovu nastavnu jedinicu, a niti znam kako to treba da izgleda, niti znam šta ću time postići (učiteljica prvog razreda).

Mislim da mi je potrebna velika pomoć zato što mislim da je teško voditi kreativnu igru kao proces (učiteljica prvog razreda).

Implicitna pedagoška uverenja učitelja kao otežavajući faktor u primeni inovativnih metoda. U iskazima učitelja primetno je da su bili opterećeni sadržajima koji su predviđeni planom i programom, pa su u primeni inovativnih metoda

naglasak stavljali primarno na ono što učenici treba da nauče, a ne na način na koji mogu da uče.

Moja očekivanja su bila da shvate tu nastavnu jedinicu koju smo obrađivali, da uoče razliku između za toliko manje i za toliko puta manje (učitelj drugog razreda).

Mi bismo uradili na tabli nekoliko primera i onda bi oni uradili sami, ja ih obilazim, zadam dva primera i oni rade sami. To je kao vođeno vežbanje, gde ja mogu da vidim ukoliko neko nije baš shvatio, a meni je delovalo da je shvatio, da mu opet dodatno objasnim kako bi on posle samostalno mogao da rešava zadatke (učiteljica prvog razreda).

Početno uverenje učitelja da kreativna igra kao nastavna metoda nema veliki potencijal za učenje i usvajanje nastavnih sadržaja ograničavalo ih je da tu nastavnu metodu češće primene tokom časa. S jedne strane, učitelji smatraju da je igra korisna za primenu u nastavi, ali samo u određenim nastavnim situacijama čiji je cilj da učenike zabave i rasterete. S druge strane, kada procenjuju da prilikom obrade novog gradiva učenici treba dobro da razumeju i uvežbaju ono što se učilo na tom času, igru ne vide kao ozbiljnu metodu kojom se može obezbediti razumevanje i uvežbavanje novog gradiva.

Prvo će da provežbaju, pa kad budemo provežbali par primera, da ja vidim da to njima ide, onda ću da ubacim možda još neku igricu koju još uvek osmišljam da bi bilo zanimljivije, pošto se sad trudimo da bude igra... (učiteljica prvog razreda).

Nedostatak iskustva učitelja u primeni kreativne igre i početno nerazumevanje suštinskih potencijala te nastavne metode ključni su razlozi zbog kojih su učitelji smatrali da se ta metoda ne može adekvatno primeniti na časovima svih nastavnih predmeta, te da su časovi utvrđivanja gradiva pogodniji za primenu te metode nego časovi obrade novih nastavnih sadržaja.

Mislím da kreativna igra može mnogo da dođe do izražaja na časovima srpskog jezika, zbog ovih vežbaonica. Oni tu svašta mogu da smišljaju i stihove i svašta nešto, a ne znam kako bi moglo za matematiku da oni stvaraju, pogotovo na ovom uzrastu (učiteljica prvog razreda).

Koliko mi je bilo teško da uz primenu igre odradim onaj čas obrade nove nastavne jedinice... Meni je lepši bio čas kada je bilo utvrđivanje. Generalno je lakše primeniti kreativnu igru na časovima utvrđivanja gradiva (učiteljica prvog razreda).

Kako da primenim igru, pogotovo na času obrade? Na času utvrđivanja i znam otprilike kako bi to moglo da ide, ali na času obrade stvarno

mi ne pada na pamet jer ne shvatam kako može igra da traje sve vreme (učiteljica prvog razreda).

Postojeće uverenje učitelja da su učenici nedovoljno zreli i sposobni za veće izazove koji iziskuju samostalnost i autonomiju često ih je sputavalo da učenicima ponude izazovnije zadatke i da im daju više autonomije.

Da, ja sam se baš tu iznenadila. Ja sam mislila da će im to biti teško. Nisam očekivala da će moći mape tako dobro da urade (učiteljica prvog razreda).

Moje pitanje je u stvari bilo kako će se oni snaći... onako, očekivala sam da će se snaći pola-pola, ali da će imati problem oko drugog zadatka, a ispostavilo se pogrešno. Znači, oni su se snašli odlično (učiteljica prvog razreda).

Učitelji su imali problem da se naviknu na to da primena kreativne igre, otvorenih zadataka i metoda saradničkog učenja podrazumeva intenzivniju komunikaciju među učenicima, galamu, diskusiju i razmenu mišljenja jer su smatrali da u tim situacijama neće moći da kontrolišu proces učenja.

Ali nadam se da ću opet moći da iskontrolišem to da čas bude uspešan, a ne da bude kao igra, a u stvari onda ne postignem ono što sam planirala... jer ja u prvom razredu moram njih da naučim neke osnove i onda mi je to onako problematično da baš toliko pustim da budu samostalni (učiteljica prvog razreda).

...jer mnogo je lakše raditi kada nije buka, a primena kreativne igre podrazumeva probleme sa disciplinom. Mislim da mi je tu potrebna velika pomoć, zato što je teško voditi igru kao proces. Učenici su uzbuđeni tokom igre, pa mi se čini da malo izgube kontrolu, zaborave šta je dozvoljeno šta nije, upadaju u reč, ustaju. U tom smislu je teže održati čas (učiteljica prvog razreda).

I kada se radi tako nešto novo kao što je kreativna igra, oni žele da kažu nešto, komešaju se, nisu baš koncentrisani na pisanje (učitelj drugog razreda).

Preispitivanje i menjanje nastavne prakse i implicitnih pedagoških uverenja

Tokom procesa stručnog usavršavanja učitelji su sticali nove uvide o svom radu i nastavnom procesu, što ih je u velikoj meri podstaklo da kritički preispituju svoja pedagoška uverenja i različita rešenja u nastavi koja su ranije rutinski pri-

menjivali na svojim časovima. Proces kritičkog preispitivanja sopstvene prakse i postojećih pedagoških uverenja bio je pokrenut samim iskustvima učitelja tokom isprobavanja novih rešenja u nastavi i učešćem facilitatora u zajedničkim razgovorima pre i nakon realizacije časova. Kao rezultat iskustvenog učenja primenom novih rešenja u nastavi i stručne podrške facilitatora, učitelji su uspeali da prevaziđu početne dileme i nesigurnosti i da naprave određene pomake u svom radu.

Novi uvidi učitelja kao podsticaj za preispitivanje nastavne prakse i implicitnih pedagoških uverenja. Uvidi do kojih su učitelji dolazili u procesu stručnog usavršavanja podstakli su ih da preispitaju svoju nastavnu praksu i postojeća uverenja.

Jedan od zanimljivih uvida do kojih su učitelji došli tokom primene inovativnih metoda jeste da učenici mogu uspešnije da usvoje gradivo primenom kreativne igre nego frontalnim predavanjem.

Oni su to i naučili igrajući se onim karticama, oni su tek tada shvatili kako to ide. A ne tokom srednjeg dela časa, kada je bilo suvoparno obrađivanje (učiteljica prvog razreda).

U stvari oni na neformalan način dolaze do znanja kroz igru. Ne klasično kada ja stojim pričam i objasnim, proverim da li je nešto jasno ili nije jasno nego uče upravo kroz igru, igrajući se (učitelj drugog razreda).

Učitelji su uvideli da je u nastavi korisno primenjivati otvorene zadatke, koji nemaju unapred dat, tačan odgovor, jer se takvim pitanjima i zadacima mogu podsticati kreativnost i interesovanje učenika.

Zanimljivo je deci, evo sad su ponovo pitali jeste poneli lopticu? Njima je ta loptica ko zna šta... u stvari, malo je potrebno, videli ste i sami, da se oni motivišu, onda mi je prosto žao što im ranije nisam davala otvorene zadatke, ali eto nikad nije kasno (učiteljica prvog razreda).

Takođe, važan uvid do kojeg su došli jeste i to da se kreativna igra može primeniti na sve predmete i sadržaje.

Prvi čas je svet oko nas. Ja sam se malo plašila sveta oko nas. Međutim, ispalo je da u ovom predmetu stvarno imamo prostora za kreativnu igru i da je dobro što prilikom planiranja časova menjamo predmet, tako da sam postigla ono što sam želela (učiteljica prvog razreda).

Učitelji su uvideli da je prilikom organizovanja grupnog rada neophodno obezbediti mehanizme kontrole kvaliteta, odnosno osigurati ravnopravno učešće svih učenika, adekvatnu podelu uloga i poštovanje određenih pravila

ponašanja. Tokom primene grupnog rada učitelji su stekli uvid u to da je veoma važno da učenici već imaju izgrađene socijalne veštine, neophodne za saradničko učenje.

Ja sam zato napravila da bude šest grupa, te da ih bude četvoro u grupi. Onda mogu da pratim ko šta radi jer grupe nisu prevelike. Svaki pojedinačni član treba da ima svoj zadatak i svoje zaduženje, na osnovu pitanja koje je dobila cela grupa (učiteljica drugog razreda).

Učitelji su tokom realizacije časova uvidali da neka rešenja koja su isplanirali nisu bila dobra i sticali uvid u to da su planirane aktivnosti mogle da budu realizovane na drugačiji, uspešniji način.

Samo što sam mogao da malo razvučem taj naslov, tu sliku iza. Kada su otvorili žuto polje, njima se pokazao ceo naslov. Mogao sam malo da razbacam po ekranu da ne pogode tako lako (učitelj drugog razreda). Mislim da je kviz mogao da se realizuje drugačije. Nešto je moglo tu da bude živahnije, kreativnije. Tad su mi malo utihnuli. Koliko su bili zagrejani za onu igru izvlačenja... ili da sam bar nastavila sa nekim takvim pitanjima (učiteljica prvog razreda).

Pozitivni pomaci u radu učitelja. U razgovorima sa učiteljima nakon realizovanih časova na kojima su primenili inovativne nastavne metode uočavalo se da su zadovoljni održanim časovima. U njihovim iskazima preovladavali su pozitivni utisci o realizovanim aktivnostima tokom časa i pomacima koji su napravljeni u njihovom radu. Učiteljima je bilo zanimljivo da rade na drugačiji način, da izađu iz svakodnevne rutine i uobičajenog načina rada. Uvid u to da su učenici bili zadovoljni ponuđenim aktivnostima i načinom rada bio je ključni razlog njihovog zadovoljstva časom, ali i pokretač za dodatno ulaganje truda u osmišljavanje novih časova i aktivnosti.

Sa njima sam razgovarala da vidim kakvi su njihovi utisci. Kada sam videla da su oni zadovoljni, to je i moje zadovoljstvo (učiteljica drugog razreda).

Ne samo učenicima, i meni je bilo interesantno da nešto novo, drugačije probamo. Baš sam zadovoljna (učiteljica drugog razreda).

Iskustveno učenje koje su prošli tokom primene inovativnih metoda u nastavi i podrška koju su dobijali od facilitatora pomogli su učiteljima da prevaziđu početnu nesigurnost i postanu sigurniji u planiranju i realizaciji časova. Prevazilaženje početnih teškoća i problema i doživljaj da su sigurniji u sebe i svoje sposobnosti doveli su do njihove veće spremnosti da se suoče sa novim izazovima. Tako,

učitelji su bili spremniji da isprobaju i ona inovativna rešenja koja su na početku stručnog usavršavanja doživljavali kao isuviše teška i izazovna.

Ja bih volela, ako bude opet matematika, da bude utvrđivanje, pa da probamo zajednički da realizujemo te otvorene zadatke (učiteljica drugog razreda).

Značiće mi sigurno da nastavim da primenjujem inovativne metode. Pokušaću dalje isto ovako da radim, a probaću i nešto novo što nisam radio (učitelj drugog razreda).

Kada razmišljam o kreativnoj igri, mislim da sam na dobrom putu da to još više unapredim, mic po mic. Promišljala sam šta bih mogla iz matematike da popravim, koje zadatke da ubacim (učiteljica prvog razreda).

Kako je proces stručnog usavršavanja odmicao, učitelji su postajali opušteniji i fleksibilniji. Veća fleksibilnost se ogledala u manjem opterećivanju pripremom za čas, pa su tokom realizacije časa spontano uvodili neke promene kada su primetili da je određeno rešenje bolje od onog koje su isplanirali pre časa.

Ja sam imala svoj plan, ali vrlo lako sam znala da mogu da odstupim od njega i mislim da sam bila potpuno opuštena u odnosu na dva prethodna časa (učiteljica prvog razreda).

Takođe, učitelji su bili fleksibilniji i prema rasporedu nastavnih jedinica, pa se dešavalo da se ne pridržavaju uvek redosleda sadržaja koji je dat u planu i programu.

Ja sam dala sebi slobodu da zamenim časove, bitno je da se te nastavne jedinice obrade u tom mesecu. Neku nastavnu jedinicu realizujem pre, neku kasnije, u zavisnosti od potreba (učiteljica drugog razreda).

Tokom procesa stručnog usavršavanja, učitelji su imali potrebu da razmenjuju iskustva sa kolegama i diskutuju o novim rešenjima u nastavnoj praksi. Dakle, primena inovativnih metoda podstakla je učitelje da intenzivnije sarađuju sa kolegama.

Koleginica i ja smo stvarno sarađivale u smislu šta si ti sada spremila, šta misliš o ovoj ideji, dobro će proći tako... Uvek smo u toku ko šta radi, dokle je ko stigao sa pripremanjem časa i šta je novo smislio (učiteljica prvog razreda).

Mi smo razmenjivali iskustva, razgovarali smo o tome šta smo radili. Sarađivali smo, davali smo jedni drugima neke ideje, neke savete, tako da sarađujemo svakako (učitelj drugog razreda).

Motivacija za dalje stručno usavršavanje i primenu inovativnih rešenja u nastavi

Iskustva učitelja stečena tokom stručnog usavršavanja uz podršku facilitatora pozitivno su uticala na njihovu želju da unapređuju svoju praksu i da primenjuju inovativne metode u radu. Generalno, u svojim iskazima učitelji naglašavaju da je primena inovativnih metoda imala pozitivne efekte na učenike i njihov razvoj, što ih je podstaklo da se intenzivno angažuju i pripremaju za realizaciju časova na kojima su primenjivali inovativne metode. Važan motivacioni pokretač učitelja bila je i stručna i psihološka podrška koju su dobijali od facilitatora. U iskazima učitelja uočava se njihova motivacija za dalju primenu inovativnih metoda u nastavi i za dalje stručno usavršavanje i napredovanje.

Pozitivni efekti realizovanih časova na učenike kao motivacioni činilac. Prema mišljenju učitelja, realizacija časova na kojima su primenjene inovativne nastavne metode imala je pozitivne efekte na učenike. Učitelji su stekli utisak da su učenici bili angažovaniji i motivisaniji u procesu učenja, da vole da uče kroz igru i saradnju sa vršnjacima i da su bili zadovoljni ponuđenim aktivnostima.

I učenici su bili zadovoljni, videla sam da ih je zanimalo, da su radili, da je svako dao svoj doprinos (učiteljica drugog razreda).

Da, oni su baš bili srećni. Kada smo završili čas, kada sam ih pitala kako im se dopao čas, oni su rekli da je čas bio prelep, da su se baš oduševili (učiteljica drugog razreda).

Prema mišljenju učitelja, planirane aktivnosti na ovim časovima podstakle su učenike da saraduju tokom učenja, da razmenjuju mišljenja i ideje i da daju doprinos prema svojim mogućnostima. Primena inovativnih metoda pozitivno je uticala na kreativnost, maštovitost, samopouzdanje, samostalnost i autonomiju učenika.

Postigla sam ono što sam želela, a to je da deca budu zainteresovana sve vreme i da to zaista bude igra... ono crtanje mapa, po mom mišljenju, stvarno je bilo stvaralačko. Oni su potpuno sami sve radili (učiteljica prvog razreda).

A onda sam im bukvalno dala slobodu da oni sami osmisle i dopalo mi se na kraju kako su uradili jer ništa od toga nije bilo ono što je učiteljica rekla. Nije bilo nešto moje nego je zaista bilo njihovo (učiteljica drugog razreda).

A prosto prednost primene igre je u tome što su oni aktivniji, što oni jedva čekaju, što oni ispituju kada će opet biti takvi časovi. Stvarno

mi deluje da su to trajna znanja, znači da to zaista ostaje (učiteljica prvog razreda).

Podrška facilitatora kao motivacioni pokretač promene. U planiranju i realizaciji časova na kojima su primenili inovativne nastavne metode učiteljima je bila veoma značajna podrška koju su dobijali od facilitatora, naročito kada su nailazili na određene teškoće u pripremi i realizaciji časova. U svojim iskazima učitelji naglašavaju da im je mnogo značilo to što su od facilitatora dobijali konkretne ideje za realizaciju časa.

Naučila sam neke nove stvari, u smislu nekih ideja i saveta koje sam dobijala od vas. To su neke stvari na koje prosto nisam toliko obraćala pažnju kada sam pripremala i održavala časove bez vaše podrške (učiteljica drugog razreda).

Ono što ste mi predložili da radim tokom centralnog dela časa i da dam učenicima da sami osmisle zadatke, eto tu ste mi dosta pomogli (učitelj drugog razreda).

Takođe, učitelji su imali potrebu da od facilitatora dobijaju kontinuirane pozitivne povratne informacije o tome da li su isplanirane aktivnosti ispravne. Ohrabrivanje i potvrđivanje ispravnosti rešenja koja su osmislili bili su važan motivacioni pokretač učiteljima da ulože dodatni trud u planiranje i realizaciju časova.

Ali šta sada mislite? Mislite da ostavim ovu lopticu na početku? To sam htela da vas pitam jer mislim da može da bude dobro, ali uz vašu pomoć (učiteljica prvog razreda).

Je l' može da bude, ne znam da li je to stvaralački, da oni, na primer, uoče grešku, da izbace uljeza, da moraju da objasne zašto. Je l' to polu-otvoreni zadatak? (učiteljica prvog razreda)

Osim toga što je pozitivna povratna informacija za učitelje bila važan pokretač za dalji rad i primenu inovativnih metoda, oni su imali potrebu da čuju i mišljenja facilitatora o onome što nisu dobro osmislili i realizovali.

I volela bih da vi imate slobodu da sve kažete što mislite da je moglo bolje da se uradi. Da nemate utisak da ću ja to shvatiti lično (učiteljica prvog razreda).

Uvek je nekako dobro kada ti neko drugi ukaže na greške jer ne možeš samog sebe da vidiš, da doživiš... (učiteljica drugog razreda).

Uspostavljanje uzajamnog poverenja i pozitivnog odnosa tokom facilitacije olakšavalo je učiteljima da obavljaju aktivnosti koje su predviđene stručnim usavršavanjem.

...i generalno vaš pristup, porazgovarali smo, predložili ste šta može da se radi, ja sam vam rekao šta planiram i onda smo zajedno došli do pripreme (učitelj drugog razreda).

Uglavnom mislim da je bilo dobro, a naročito saradnja sa vama, to sam vam već rekla, vas dve ste baš onako prijatne osobe i u tom smislu nisam imala tremu. Da je možda bila neka osoba koja je stroga, možda mi ne bi bilo svejedno kada treba da dođe da posmatra čas, a ovako sa vama nisam imala nikakvu tenziju (učiteljica drugog razreda).

Stvarno sam se osećala lepo tokom ovog procesa. Uopšte nisam imala neku tenziju, negativnu. Možda je bilo neke pozitivne treme, ali ništa preterano. (učiteljica prvog razreda).

Diskusija

Sagledavanje promena koje se dešavaju u nastavnoj praksi i radu učitelja tokom stručnog usavršavanja uz podršku facilitatora ima ključni značaj za razumevanje tog procesa. Kontinuirano podsticanje učitelja da nova rešenja isprobavaju u nastavi i da refleksivno razmišljaju o sopstvenoj praksi uticalo je na određene pomake u njihovom radu. U analizi podataka izdvojile su se tri teme koje reflektuju iskustva učitelja tokom stručnog usavršavanja uz podršku facilitatora: (1) izazovi i teškoće u procesu stručnog usavršavanja; (2) preispitivanje i menjanje nastavne prakse i implicitnih pedagoških uverenja i (3) motivacija za dalje stručno usavršavanje i primenu inovativnih rešenja u nastavi.

Nalazi našeg istraživanja ukazuju na to da su na početku procesa stručnog usavršavanja učitelji bili suočeni sa određenim izazovima i teškoćama u primeni inovativnih nastavnih metoda. Početna nesigurnost učitelja, osećaj nesamostalnosti i određena doza straha i opreza nisu iznenađujući podaci, s obzirom na to da istraživanja potvrđuju da je proces uvođenja inovacija u nastavu jedan od najvećih izazova za učitelje, u kojem se suočavaju sa brojnim teškoćama i preprekama (Džinović, 2017; Bitan-Friedlander, Dreyfus & Milgrom, 2004). Teškoće sa kojima su se naši ispitanici susretali na početku stručnog usavršavanja mogu se objasniti i nedostatkom njihovog samopouzdanja, koje je, smatra Mezirov, tvorac teorije transformativnog učenja, ključno za isprobavanje novih uloga i promenu postojećih perspektiva (Mezirow, 1997).

Postojeća implicitna pedagoška uverenja za učitelje su predstavljala prepreku da inovativna rešenja sa lakoćom prihvate i primene u svom radu sa učenicima. U primeni inovativnih rešenja u nastavi učitelji su se suočavali sa teškoćama upravo zbog toga što njihova uverenja o detetu, njegovom razvoju, procesu

učenja i sopstvenim ulogama u nastavnom procesu nisu bila potpuno u skladu sa novinama koje je trebalo da primene u praksi, što je potvrđeno i u drugim studijama (Dori, Tal & Peled, 2002; Vujačić, Đević i Stanišić, 2017). Polazeći od rezultata istraživanja koja pokazuju da implicitna pedagoška uverenja u velikoj meri utiču na rad nastavnika (Leroy, Bressoux, Sarrazin & Trouilloud, 2007), očekivano je da su ona uverenja učitelja koja nisu u skladu sa savremenom pedagoškom paradigmom otežavala primenu inovativnih metoda u nastavi (Glušac, Milić i Pilipović, 2017). Na primer, u njihovo tradicionalno razumevanje učeničke discipline (učenici su na času mirni, tihi, slušaju učitelja) ne uklapa se glasna i živa komunikacija među učenicima koja se dešava tokom primene kreativne igre, otvorenih zadataka i metoda saradničkog učenja. Takvo shvatanje discipline praćeno je potrebom učitelja da čvrsto kontrolišu ponašanje učenika u procesu učenja, što se može dovesti u vezu i sa njihovim opterećenjem da dati plan i program u celini realizuju i ostvare, odnosno sa uverenjem da je važnije šta će deca naučiti od toga na koji način će se učenje odvijati. Samim tim, primena inovativnih metoda za učitelje predstavlja problem i teškoću jer imaju utisak da tada ne mogu da kontrolišu ostvarivanje postavljenih ciljeva i da steknu uvid u to da li su učenici naučili ono što je planirano.

Naši nalazi su potvrdili da stručno usavršavanje nastavnika, u čijem osmišljavanju se polazi od teorija iskustvenog i transformativnog učenja i koje uključuje učenje putem direktnog iskustva u praksi, isprobavanja novih rešenja u radu sa učenicima, kontinuirane podrške facilitatora i refleksivnog osvrta na realizovane časove može da dovode do određenih pomaka u radu učitelja. Drugim rečima, novi uvidi koje učitelji stižu tokom primene inovativnih rešenja u nastavi podstiču ih da preispituju svoju ustaljenu praksu i pedagoška uverenja jer se suočavaju sa situacijama u kojima otkrivaju da su nova rešenja, u čiju efikasnost oni do tada nisu verovali, bolja od onih koja su primenjivali. Uvidi u to da postojeći konstrukti i znanja nisu dovoljni za rešavanje nekih novih problema i izazova sa kojima se nastavnici suočavaju su, prema teoriji iskustvenog učenja, ključni i predstavljaju početni korak ka preispitivanju i menjanju postojećih uverenja i usvajanju novih koncepata. Proces preispitivanja implicitnih pedagoških uverenja i njihovog menjanja bio je podstaknut i uvidima koji su učiteljima dali potvrdu da primena inovacija ima pozitivne efekte na same učenike i njihovo postignuće. Ovaj nalaz je u skladu sa rezultatima drugih istraživanja kojima je potvrđeno da su nastavnici spremni da svoja postojeća uverenja preispitaju i promene onda kada uvide da nova rešenja u nastavi imaju pozitivne efekte na učenike (Pajares, 1992). Utisci učitelja da su učenici na časovima na kojima su primenili inovativna rešenja zadovoljniji, aktivniji i zainteresovaniji bili su važan izvor njihovog ličnog i profesionalnog zadovoljstva, kao i motivacioni pokretač da inovativan način

rada prihvate i internalizuju kao sastavni deo svoje prakse. Ovi nalazi potvrđuju da učenje putem iskustva u toku kojeg učitelji stižu uvid u efekte primenjenih inovativnih rešenja (Džinović i Đerić, 2012; Kolb, 2014), posebno kada su u pitanju učenici i njihov razvoj, predstavlja snažan motivacioni pokretač njihovog profesionalnog razvoja i unapređivanja nastavne prakse. Tokom procesa stručnog usavršavanja učitelja došlo je do njihovog osnaživanja, osamostaljivanja, veće fleksibilnosti i lakšeg suočavanja sa izazovima, što je u velikoj meri uticalo na njihovu motivaciju da i nakon završetka programa stručnog usavršavanja nastave da primenjuju inovativna rešenja u nastavi i unapređuju svoju nastavnu praksu. Ovi nalazi potvrđuju Mezirovu tvrdnju da je samopouzdanje ključno u procesu transformativnog učenja (Mezirow, 1997), i za promenu postojećih perspektiva i uverenja, i za isprobavanje novih uloga.

U našem istraživanju je potvrđeno da uključivanje facilitatora u proces stručnog usavršavanja predstavlja važnu podršku učiteljima za primenu inovativnih rešenja. U iskazima učesnika našeg istraživanja uočava se zadovoljstvo tom podrškom, koja se najpre ogledala u upoznavanju učitelja sa savremenim rešenjima u nastavi i pružanju pomoći u njihovoj primeni. Ovi nalazi potvrđuju značaj stručne podrške facilitatora čiji je rezultat razvijanje novih veština učitelja i bolje razumevanje onoga što uče (Cordingley et al., 2007). Osim stručne podrške, učiteljima je veoma važno bilo to što su ih facilitatori tokom celokupnog procesa stručnog usavršavanja ohrabivali i podsticali da se suoče sa izazovima, što je predstavljalo važan motivacioni pokretač njihovog profesionalnog razvoja. Ovi nalazi su u skladu sa rezultatima prethodno obavljenih istraživanja kojima se ističe značaj psihološke podrške koju učitelji dobijaju od facilitatora tokom stručnog usavršavanja (Džinović, 2017; Džinović, 2016). Posebno značajan deo podrške facilitatora učitelji vide u pravovremenim i kontinuiranim povratnim informacijama koje su dobijali, što je u skladu i sa nalazima prethodno obavljenog istraživanja u našoj zemlji (Đerić, Malinić i Šefer, 2017).

Zaključak

Glavni zaključak našeg istraživanja je da su iskustva učitelja u procesu stručnog usavršavanja uz podršku facilitatora generalno pozitivna. Našim istraživanjem je potvrđeno da učenje putem iskustva i novih uvida do kojih učitelji dolaze u primeni inovativnih nastavnih metoda dovodi do preispitivanja i menjanja njihove postojeće nastavne prakse i implicitnih pedagoških uverenja. Nalazi našeg istraživanja potvrđuju da podrška facilitatora tokom kontinuiranog individualnog rada sa učiteljima predstavlja važan motivacioni pokretač u procesu stručnog

usavršavanja. Potvrđeno je da je učiteljima, osim stručne podrške, izuzetno važna bila i psihološka podrška koju dobijaju od facilitatora, naročito u prevazilaženju teškoća i problema sa kojima se suočavaju tokom primene inovacija. Uspostavljanje odnosa koji uključuje poverenje, razumevanje i poštovanje od facilitatora predstavlja važan podsticaj učiteljima da suštinski preispitaju svoj način rada i postojeća uverenja, da sa većim samopouzdanjem isprobavaju nova rešenja i da održe motivaciju za dalje stručno usavršavanje i unapređivanje nastavne prakse.

Polazna iskustva učitelja u procesu stručnog usavršavanja uz podršku facilitatora mogu se sagledati i kroz prizmu organizacije celokupnog procesa, koji je podrazumevao individualni rad sa učiteljima. Na taj način, facilitatori su bili u prilici da se više posvete učiteljima nego što bi to bio slučaj da je proces stručnog usavršavanja organizovan u grupnim formama učenja, kao što su, na primer, stručna veća. Intenzitet i kvalitet interakcije i komunikacije sa facilitatorima te veća odgovornost učitelja kao rezultat individualnog rada mogući su razlozi koji su doprineli njihovoj motivisanosti i pozitivnom odnosu prema celokupnom procesu stručnog usavršavanja koji su prošli.

Polazeći od rezultata našeg istraživanja, možemo izdvojiti nekoliko važnih implikacija za praksu stručnog usavršavanja nastavnika, i na sistemskom nivou i na nivou škola. Na sistemskom nivou treba naglasiti dugoročne programe stručnog usavršavanja, koji polaze od potreba konkretnih nastavnika i koji uključuju njihovo iskustveno učenje u primeni inovacija u nastavi, uz stručnu i psihološku podršku. Drugim rečima, treba postepeno prevazilaziti dominantnu ulogu koju kratkoročni programi imaju u našem sistemu stručnog usavršavanja nastavnika. Na nivou škola treba osmišljavati i realizovati aktivnosti kojima se nastavnici podstiču na individualni razvoj i učenje, reflektivni pristup nastavnoj praksi, učenje putem saradnje sa kolegama, istraživanja nastavne prakse i isprobavanja novih rešenja u nastavi. Stručne službe treba osnažiti da preuzimaju ulogu facilitatora, naročito tokom usavršavanja mlađeg nastavnog kadra, te da podstiču nastavnike da reflektivno promišljaju o nastavnoj praksi, odnosno da joj istraživački pristupe i da *nauče da uče* iz sopstvenog iskustva. Osim grupnih oblika učenja, u kojima se podstiče saradnja među nastavnicima, važno je iskoristiti i potencijale individualnog facilitatorskog rada kojim se, osim praćenja napretka svakog pojedinačnog nastavnika i prilagođavanja njegovim osobenim potrebama, mogućnostima i interesovanjima, obezbeđuje i viši nivo lične odgovornosti nastavnika za uspeh primenjenih inovacija u nastavi.

Imajući u vidu da je naše istraživanje realizovano u pripremljenom kontekstu (celokupan kolektiv škole je prethodno realizovao dugoročni program stručnog usavršavanja), što se verovatno pozitivno odrazilo na pripremljenost, motivaciju i senzibilizaciju naših ispitanika, istraživanje bi trebalo obaviti i u onim

školskim kontekstima u kojima nije obezbeđena prethodna podrška i priprema nastavnog kadra. Bilo bi zanimljivo ispitati i iskustva nastavnika predmetne nastave tokom stručnog usavršavanja uz pomoć facilitatora, imajući u vidu razlike koje između njih i učitelja postoje u inicijalnom obrazovanju i načinu organizacije rada u školi. Takođe, u daljim istraživanjima fokus bi trebalo staviti i na sagledavanje perspektive facilitatora u facilitatorskom radu sa nastavnicima kako bi se dobio uvid u njihova iskustva i izazove sa kojima se suočavaju u tom procesu.

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Teachers' Experiences Throughout Professional Training with the Help of Facilitators¹⁰

Abstract: The importance of facilitator support is given particular emphasis within the modern conceptions of professional teacher training. Starting with the premise that perceiving teachers' perspective is of vital importance for understanding this process, the goal of our research was to examine the experiences of teachers throughout continual professional training for the application of innovative teaching methods with the help of facilitators. By applying qualitative thematic analysis, we have examined audio recording transcripts created during 18 individual conversations that the facilitators conducted with three teachers from a primary school in Belgrade. The results of the research show that the experiences of teachers in this process are overall positive and that it prompted them to reconsider existing practices and implicit pedagogical beliefs, and introduced positive developments in their work. The individual work of facilitators with teachers founded on trust demonstrates potential when it comes to encouragement and maintaining teachers' motivation for implementing innovations and undergoing further professional training. We have highlighted the key implications of the obtained findings and provided guidelines for further research in the area.

Key words: professional training, teacher, facilitator, innovative teaching methods, reflective approach to teaching practice.

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HRONIKA, POLEMIKA, KRITIKA

CHRONICLE, POLEMICS, REVIEW

Evropska komisija: Saopštenje za medije

Komisija predstavlja Evropsku agendu veština za održivu konkurentnost, društvenu pravednost i otpornost¹

Brisel, 1. jul 2020.

Komisija je predstavila Evropsku agendu veština za održivu konkurentnost, društvenu pravednost i otpornost. Ova agenda je postavila ambiciozne i kvantitativne ciljeve za poboljšanje postojećih veština i sticanje novih veština u periodu od narednih pet godina. Dvanaest mera iz Agende veština tiče se poslovnih veština. One su definisane u saradnji sa državama članicama, kompanijama i socijalnim partnerima koji nastoje da uvedu promene i podstaknu ljude na celoživotno učenje. U te svrhe primeniće se budžetska sredstva Evropske unije, koja će obezbediti priliv javnih i privatnih investicija u veštine ljudi.

Cilj je da se omogući da pravo na obrazovanje i celoživotno učenje, koje je oličeno u evropskom stubu socijalnih prava, postane stvarnost u celoj Evropi, počev od gradova do udaljenih i seoskih sredina, na korist svih učesnika. Komisija smatra da su veštine najvažnija komponenta agende politike EU, zahvaljujući čemu se investicije usmeravaju u ljude i njihove veštine radi održivog oporavka nakon pandemije koronavirusa. Kompanijama su potrebni zaposleni koji poseduju veštine neophodne za suočavanje sa zelenim i digitalnim tranzicijama, a ljudi moraju da imaju prilike da steknu adekvatno obrazovanje i obuku kako bi ostvarili uspeh.

Margaritis Šinas, potpredsednik Evropske komisije zadužen za promovisanje evropskog načina života, rekao je: „Ova kriza nezapamćenih razmera iziskuje potpuno novi pristup. Takav pristup će nam pomoći i danas i ubuduće. Evropska komisija sada traži od država članica EU da investiraju u veštine. Milijarde evra iz fondova EU koji su predloženi u evropskom planu ekonomskog oporavka i predstojeći dugoročni budžet EU nude jedinstvenu priliku za to. Znamo da veštine omogućavaju ljudima i našoj privredi da ostvare napredak. Sada je vreme da se

¹ https://ec.europa.eu/commission/presscorner/detail/en/IP_20_1196

udružimo i da se upustimo u revoluciju sticanja veština, pri čemu nikoga nećemo zapostaviti.“

Nikolas Šmit, komesar za radna mesta i socijalna prava, izjavio je: „Nivo veština naše radne snage jedan je od najvažnijih faktora oporavka. Samim tim, pružanje prilike za sticanje potrebnih veština neophodno je u pripremi za zelene i digitalne tranzicije. Tako svako može da ima koristi od novih prilika na tržištu rada koje se ubrzano razvija.“

Veštine za poslove u zelenoj i digitalnoj ekonomiji

Kombinacija zelene i digitalne tranzicije i demografskih trendova transformiše način na koji živimo, radimo i ostvarujemo interakciju. Želimo da se uverimo da ljudi poseduju veštine koje su im potrebne da bi ostvarili napredak. Pandemija koronavirusa je ubrzala te tranzicije i donela nove karijerne izazove za brojne državljanke Evrope. Kada se kriza privede kraju, mnogi Evropljani će morati da stiču nove kvalifikacije ili da unaprede postojeće kvalifikacije kako bi se prilagodili promenama na tržištu rada. Agenda veština nastoji da poboljša relevantnost veština u EU kako bi se ojačala održiva konkurentnost, osigurala društvena pravednost i izgradila otpornost. U te svrhe je osmišljeno dvanaest mera.

1. Pakt za sticanje veština
2. Jačanje inteligencije o veštinama
3. Podrška EU za stratešku nacionalnu akciju poboljšanja postojećih veština
4. Predlog preporuke Saveta o stručnom obrazovanju i obuci za održivu konkurentnost, društvenu pravednost i otpornost
5. Predstavljanje inicijativa na evropskim univerzitetima i poboljšanje postojećih veština naučnika
6. Veštine za pružanje podrške za zelene i digitalne tranzicije
7. Povećanje broja diplomaca u području STEM i negovanje preduzetničkih i transverzalnih veština
8. Veštine za poboljšanje kvaliteta života
9. Inicijativa o individualnim iskustvima učenja
10. Evropski pristup mikrokvalifikacijama
11. Nova platforma *Europass*
12. Poboljšanje okvira za omogućavanje pristupa investicijama država članica i privatnim investicijama u veštine

Nova platforma *Europass* je lansirana danas kao prva implementirana mera u okviru Evropske agende veština. Ta platforma od danas nudi smernice za pisanje CV-a, predlaže prilagođene poslove i prilike za učenje, pruža informacije o trendovima i veštinama i dostupna je na 29 jezika.

Osim toga, Komisija je danas usvojila predlog preporuke Saveta o stručnom obrazovanju i obuci.

Ambiciozni ciljevi

Komisija je u odvažnoj novoj politici o veštinama postavila ambiciozne ciljeve za narednih pet godina. Oni se zasnivaju na postojećim indikatorima koji će omogućiti praćenje napretka na godišnjem nivou tokom evropskog semestra. U ovoj fazi ne postoje kvantitativni indikatori o zelenim veštinama, tako da će ih Komisija naknadno osmisliti.

Indikatori	Ciljevi za 2025.	Trenutni nivo (poslednja godina za koju postoje raspoloživi podaci)	Povećanje (u %)
Učešće odraslih osoba uzrasta 25–64 u učenju tokom perioda od 12 meseci	50%	38% (2016)	+ 32%
Učešće odraslih osoba uzrasta 25–64 sa niskim nivoom kvalifikacija u učenju tokom perioda od 12 meseci	30%	18% (2016)	+ 67%
Udeo nezaposlenih odraslih osoba uzrasta 25–64 sa nedavnim iskustvom učenja	20%	11% (2019)	+ 82%
Udeo odraslih osoba uzrasta 16–74 koje poseduju barem jednu osnovnu digitalnu veštinu	70%	56% (2019)	+ 25%

To znači da bi trebalo da očekujemo 540 miliona aktivnosti obuke za odrasle do 2025. godine, uključujući 60 miliona aktivnosti za odrasle sa niskim nivoom kvalifikacija i 40 miliona za nezaposlene. Broj odraslih osoba koje poseduju osnovne digitalne veštine trebalo bi da se poveća do 230 miliona.

Pristup investicijama u veštine ljudi

Da bi se mere implementirale i ispunili ciljevi Agende veština, procenjuje se da će EU zahtevati još oko 48 milijardi evra na godišnjem nivou u vidu javnih i privatnih investicija. Predlog Komisije za *NextGenerationEU* predviđa značajne resurse u sklopu opsežne budžetske inicijative, s ciljem da se prebrode ekonomske i socijalne posledice krize.

Fondovi EU mogu da imaju ulogu katalizatora za investiranje u veštine ljudi. U evropskom planu ekonomskog oporavka predložena su nezapamćena finansijska sredstva kako bi se podržao održivi oporavak. Investicije u veštine treba da čine srž tih napora. U periodu od 2021. do 2027. godine, mogu da se primene svi instrumenti EU, poput *Evropskog socijalnog fonda plus*, sa predloženim budžetom od 86 milijardi evra, programa *Erasmus*, sa predloženim budžetom od 26 milijardi evra, i programa *InvestEU* za socijalne investicije i veštine, sa predloženim budžetom od 3,6 milijardi evra, kako bi se ljudima pomoglo da steknu naprednije ili nove veštine. Novi „Program za digitalnu Evropu“, sa predloženim budžetom od 9,2 milijardi evra, investiraće u razvoj naprednih digitalnih veština s ciljem ovladavanja tehnologijama. Osim toga, Mehanizam za oporavak i otpornost, iza kojeg stoji 560 milijardi evra u grantovima i pozajmicama, državama članicama pruža obilje mogućnosti da finansiraju inicijative za poboljšanje postojećih veština i sticanje novih veština, uz podršku adekvatnih reformi.

Osnovne informacije

Tranzicija na digitalizovanu privredu, koja efikasno koristi resurse, cirkularne je prirode i ima nizak ugljenični otisak, može da stvori više od milion poslova do 2030. godine. Samo u području veštačke inteligencije i robotike stvoriće se gotovo 60 miliona novih poslova u celom svetu u narednih pet godina. Ostali poslovi bi mogli da se promene, pa čak i da nestanu. Pandemija koronavirusa povećala je potrebu za veštinama na tržištu rada, čime se ujedno ubrzavaju potreba i prilike za promenu. Celoživotno učenje mora da postane stvarnost na tržištu rada i u društvu koje se ubrzano menja.

Današnje inicijative zasnivaju se na Evropskom stubu socijalnih prava, koji su institucije i predvodnici EU usvojili u novembru 2017. i Komunikaciji o snažnoj socijalnoj Evropi za pravedne tranzicije, koja je objavljena u januaru 2020. godine.

Prevod
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Sustainable Development through Lifelong Learning: A Good Practice about Women Entrepreneurship from Turkey

Abstract: Women form half of the world's population, but the same cannot be said for their active participation in economic development. Sustainable, strong economies can be achieved through equally active involvement in the process by developing or keeping up to date the skills of individuals in society. This paper focuses on women's contribution to sustainable development as entrepreneurs through Lifelong Learning. The paper consists of two sections. The first section discusses the relationship between accessibility to digital age-appropriate education and sustainable development in Lifelong Learning. The second section is a good practice of the impact of the "Women First in Entrepreneurship" project on developing women's entrepreneurship. It covers the reasons for the project and its implementation process, outputs, and impact. To increase women's participation in the labor market as part of sustainable development in today's economy, the project, which began in 10 pilot provinces, is currently being implemented across Turkey. The project has been implemented under the coordination of the Turkish Directorate General for Lifelong Learning since 2015. The General Directorate of Lifelong Learning is the highest policymaking authority in Turkey to strengthen the adult education system.

Key words: women entrepreneurship, lifelong learning, sustainable development, digital access.

Introduction

Education is the most decisive factor in a country's development. Improving the welfare of individuals living in society, improving their socio-cultural status, equipping individuals with the skills required by rapidly changing technology can only be achieved through education. Education increases the socio-cultural

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levels of communities and enables them to keep up with the new skills needed by business life, which also develops in line with the continually changing information-communication technology. From this point of view, increasing the competencies of individuals who are not within the formal education system is crucial to countries' social development to achieve their sustainable development goals. Therefore, it would not be wrong to suggest that its level of education measures the country's level of development.

The European Union's 2020 Education strategy document (ET, 2020) is based on information and innovation, sustainable economy, increased employment, and social engagement, and has made these issues a priority for society's development. It also emphasizes that lifelong Learning should be used as a tool to ensure that the stated priorities meet the objectives. Therefore, developed countries have made Lifelong Learning a policy basis to promote social development and positive change and to promote sustainable development by enabling individuals to refresh their existing knowledge and skills.

The main objective of the Lifelong Learning approach is to ensure the development of the socio-economic life of both individuals and the society in which they live. From this perspective, a culture of Lifelong Learning will enable the development of human resources that will be or are employed, and in this way, support the sustainability of national economic growth (Samancı, 2017).

In recent years, women, who are more active in the labor market and engaged in entrepreneurial activities, have "strategic" importance for developing economies (Serel, 2017). It is said that women's entrepreneurship needs to be encouraged by academic circles in the business world to mobilize the unutilized potential in the business world and create ways for new jobs (The Republic of Turkey, 2019). Today, economic, social, and technological developments worldwide have increasingly led to more women actively participating in work life. According to the World Population Prospect 2019 (OECD, 2018) report, there are an average of 3 billion 889 thousand men and 3 billion 825 thousand women in the world. The OECD. STAT 2018 employment/population rate data by gender and age group gives the employment average in the OECD countries as 65.5% in men and 49.6% in women (OECD, 2018). The data shows that the population distribution by gender is equal, but that the employment participation lacks the same equilibrium in that the male employment rate is 15.9% higher than the female employment rate. Although women make up half of the world's population, they are not represented in the economy proportionately. Underutilizing the human resources that form half

of the population in terms of potential labor, knowledge, skills, and experience without benefiting both the country's economy and the family economy is a severe loss. One of the most important reasons for this loss is that women cannot access information and support related to work-life and entrepreneurship before entering work life as a female entrepreneur.

However, the dazzling development of information and communication technology makes education easily accessible regardless of time and place. Distance learning platforms and mobile educational apps deliver information much faster. Involving women in Lifelong Learning is the easiest and most effective way to make it easier for them to access the information they need when entering into work life.

According to the 2018 Eurostat data (EU, 2019), Turkey is a high-to-medium income country with a population of 81.258 million. 52.08% of this population consists of adults aged 25–64. When we look at gender ratios in the total population, 50.1% of the total population consists of men and 49.9% of the population consists of women. According to the picture drawn for Turkey by the OECD. Stat 2018 employment/population rate data by gender and age group, the employment rate of men is 65.7% and that of women is 29.4% (Eurostat, 2018). According to the employment rate by gender on a country basis, the employment rate difference between women and men is 36.3%. According to the comparison of average female employment in the OECD countries and average female employment by country, Turkey's female employment rate is 13.3% lower than the OECD average. From the general numerical framework, the population rates of women and men are almost equal within the total population. However, the employment rate, unfortunately, does not draw a good picture of women's participation in work life. In order to show the current global situation in access to education in light of the indicators, the OECD Centre for Educational Research and Innovation's (CERI) *Report on Educational Opportunity for All: Overcoming Lifelong Inequality* points to adult education (The Republic of Turkey, 2019). The report focuses on the ever-growing gap between socio-economic classes worldwide and on increasing accessibility of adults to educational opportunities as a solution to closing this gap.

As a key message, the *Third Global Report on Adult Learning and Education* (UNESCO, 2016) refers to the impact of adult education on health and well-being, employment and labor market and society, citizenship and social life. The report generated by the United Nations UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning from the participation in the monitoring survey of 139 member states is prepared every three years. This report states that Lifelong Learning is the key

component and lead actor of the 2030 agenda in ensuring sustainable development (UN, 2019). The report provides an overview of the various positive benefits that Lifelong Learning can bring to individuals, employers, and economies, and presents its benefits to the labor market through evidence-based good practices. The report also highlights a global technological change, as well as a demographic shift in the country's population. It also discusses another striking result of the research: that individuals need information and guidance in order to create a solid-based society and have the population keep up with these changes. Based on research on the impact of adult education on economic development, lifelong learning programs contribute positively to developing individuals as well as institutional and socio-economic structure (Korkmaz, 2019). As for individual effects, it increases employability, facilitates career steps, and keeps professional competencies up to date. Institutional impact increases employee satisfaction, ensures workforce stability, and ensures employee alignment with evolving technology. In terms of socio-economic impact, it helps strengthen the economy, increases the labor market's functionality, and increases entrepreneurship activities along with the number of entrepreneurs in the sector. In view of the broader benefits, it has positive impacts such as increasing employment, strengthening the economy of households and the country, increasing the level of prosperity, and increasing human resources' quality as the main elements of sustainable development. According to the results of the GRALE III monitoring survey (UNESCO, 2016), the global perspective shows that adult education is directly proportional to the labor market and socio-economic growth. From Figure 1, it appears that member states participating in the monitoring survey agree that adult education has a strong and medium positive impact on individuals in increasing productivity and employment. On the other hand, 15% of the surveyed countries do not know the effects of adult education. Therefore, greater efforts are needed to raise awareness of adult education.

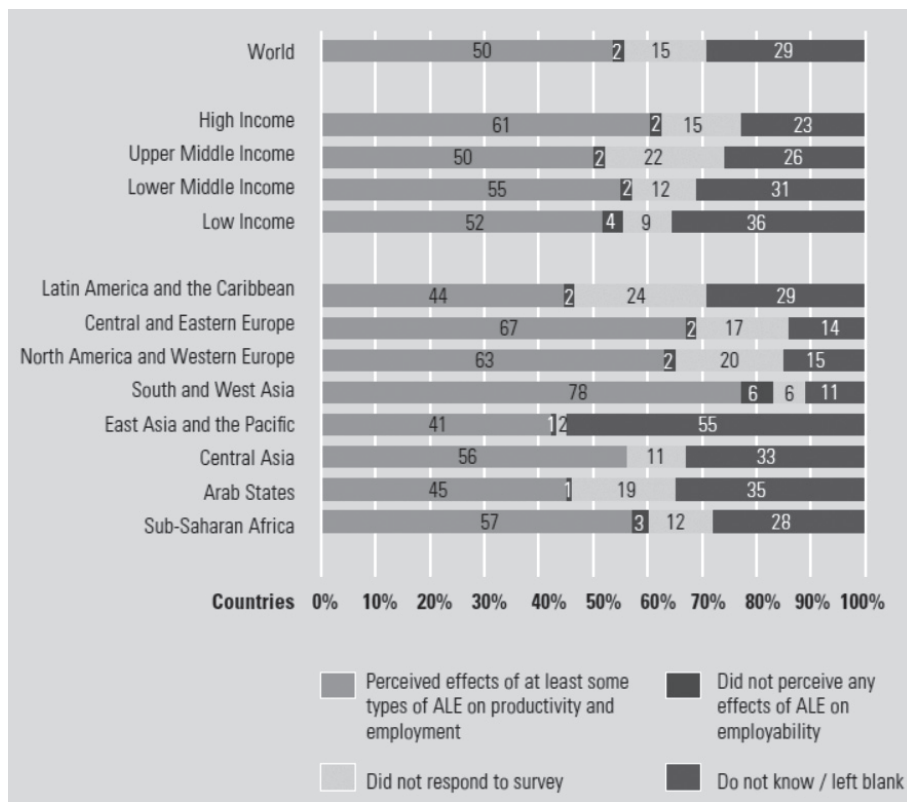


Figure 1. UNESCO, Grale III, 2016 Monitoring report, ALE’s contribution to productivity and employment

Method

In the present research, the personal experience-based method was used in addition to the document review technique. The document review technique used in the first section summarizes research dealing with the impact of Lifelong Learning on sustainable development and the importance of women in achieving sustainable development by developing their entrepreneurial skills through non-formal education. Besides, Turkey’s national top policy documents were reviewed, which study the importance of developing entrepreneurial skills in women through Lifelong Learning, increasing female employment, and empowering women socio-culturally. Following the first section’s research, the data obtained

is summarized and interpreted. The following are the national top policy documents used during the research phase of section one.

1. 10th Development Plan (Presidency of Turkey, 2014–2018)
2. Lifelong Learning Strategy Document (EPALE, 2018)
3. Specialization Commission Report on Women’s Role in Development (The Republic of Turkey, 2019)
4. The Ministry of National Education 2023 Education Vision (MoNE, 2018b)

The second section summarizes the author’s personal knowledge and experience acquired in two years as a district entrepreneurship counselor and county project coordinator in the “Women First in Entrepreneurship Project.” In the section discussing the impacts of the project in section two, the national documents, international documents, and the views of the women involved in the project are reviewed, summarized, and discussed, allowing the reader to look at it from the eyes of those who have experienced it.

Policy Documents

The common goal of policy documents prepared to be implemented nationwide is to increase individuals’ knowledge and competence based on a Lifelong Learning approach, to increase employment rates, and to ensure sustainable development. The policy documents section of the research will provide an overview of policy documents related to promoting sustainable development in Turkey through Lifelong Learning and the role of female employment in sustainable development. The documents covered in the section are used as top Turkish policy documents, and the priorities discussed in the documents are based on a Lifelong Learning approach.

10th Development Plan

The Tenth Development Plan states that the increased level of women’s participation in work and social life, mainly through non-formal education, is one of the key factors that will affect countries’ economic and social development (Korkmaz, 2019). It also notes that Turkey has the potential to make the most of its demographic opportunity if education and industry cooperation policies for qualified human power are strengthened by measures to increase the participation of women in the workforce (Presidency of Turkey, 2014–2018).

In line with these findings, the plan aims to promote Lifelong Learning and produce individuals equipped with entrepreneurial skills, particularly the fundamental knowledge and skills required by the information society, through Lifelong Learning and to improve the skills of the existing human resources accordingly. The development plan aims to set policies and to develop both formal and non-formal education accordingly to achieve the stated objectives. Some of the 10th Development Plan policies for promoting sustainable development through Lifelong Learning and developing an entrepreneurship culture for increasing women's employment are briefly summarized below.

- Developing personal and professional skills of individuals that are part of the education system, addressing quality-focused training that strengthens alignment with the labor market by the approach of Lifelong Learning;
- Strengthening the information and communications technology infrastructure of both non-formal educational institutions and the formal education system and ensuring that technology is integrated into all levels of education;
- Working to ensure the adoption of entrepreneurship culture by aligning the education system with the labor market in line with the Lifelong Learning perspective;
- Preparing formal and non-formal education programs to develop entrepreneurship in all levels of education, improving the quality of entrepreneurship training, promoting entrepreneurial role models, and generalizing practices aimed to reward entrepreneurial role models;
- Strengthening the cooperative ties between institutions and organizations in the entrepreneurship education ecosystem;
- Giving priority to women in entrepreneurship and social entrepreneurship and thus increasing employment;
- Ensuring the transfer of technology to education in improving the quality of entrepreneurship training;
- Supporting entrepreneurship culture with professional competencies by integrating the National Competency Framework into non-formal education competencies;
- Diversifying adult learning opportunities, encouraging their lifelong learning activities,
- Strengthening the role of women in social, cultural, and economic life through non-formal education;
- Strengthening the mechanisms necessary to promote women's participation in the workforce, especially through education.

Developing the non-formal education system within the education system and using the lifelong learning culture as a tool for sustainable social development. In this context, the goal of development plans can be summarized as giving priority to women, who account for half of the total population, through Lifelong Learning to support sustainable development.

Strategy Document for Lifelong Learning (2014–2018)

According to the Eurostat criteria, data on the participation in Lifelong Learning in Turkey is calculated by the Turkish Statistical Institute (Eurostat, 2018), taking into account the age range of 25–64. According to the TURKSTAT 2018 data, the participation rate of the population aged 25–64 in adult education is 6.2% (MoNE, 2018a). According to the Eurostat 2018 data, the European Union's average participation rate in adult education is 11.1%. A comparison of the data shows that Turkey's lifelong learning participation rate appears to be 4.9% below the European average (Fig. 2).

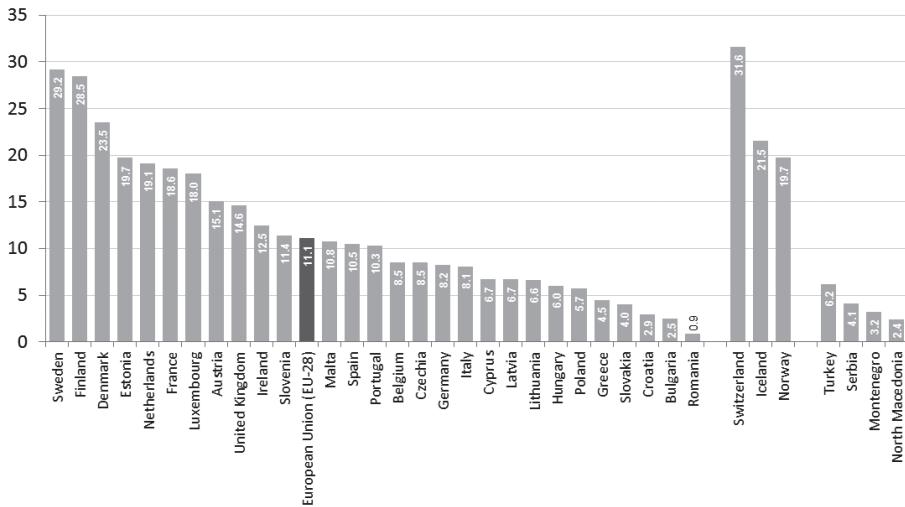


Figure 2. Adult education participation rates, 2018 (% of population aged 25–64)

An LLL strategy document is being prepared every four years to systematically improve the effectiveness and quality of Lifelong Learning in Turkey (EPALE, 2018). The General Directorate of Lifelong Learning is the national

policymaker and public authority in achieving the objectives set out in the strategy document and for Lifelong Learning. The purpose of this strategy document is to “create and make operational and sustainable a lifelong learning system that can meet the needs and expectations of Turkish society.” In this context, Lifelong Learning aims to improve the employability of individuals at different levels of education and age in society through Lifelong Learning and to enable social transformation by developing their knowledge, skills, and competencies to support their socio-cultural development. The *Strategy Document for Lifelong Learning*, implemented between 2014–2018, consists of six main priorities. These priorities were prepared to create a Lifelong Learning culture in the overall framework. It enables the measures included in the Tenth Development Plan, which was prepared in the same period. Therefore, through a Lifelong Learning approach, which is the central theme of the Tenth Development Plan in education, it is envisaged to develop human resources, increase employment, and achieve sustainable development.

Based on this vision, there are 3,583 courses prepared by the Directorate General for Lifelong Learning in 76 different learning areas (MoNE, 2018a, 2019). These programs are implemented through training courses opened at 987 Public Education Centers, which provide non-formal educational services across Turkey. The programs prepared are intended for all individuals who study at any educational level or who are not part of the education system and not employed, or not employed but willing to develop their socio-cultural-professional skills. The programs are structured based on developing knowledge and skills and on developing individuals’ socio-cultural skills to achieve social inclusion.

According to the *2018 Lifelong Learning Monitoring – Assessment Report*, a total of 430,579 courses were opened, including general and professional technical training courses, enrolling 8,364,663 trainees (MoNE, 2018a). The ratio of male trainees in the total number of trainees is 39% and that of female trainees is 61%. Based on age groups and gender, the age group with the highest participation rate is age group 23–44 with 3,165,938. The number of female trainees in this age range is 2,986,079, more than twice the number of male trainees. According to the ranking of programs preferred by the trainees currently taking these courses, the courses that support professional development and employment are most preferred, followed by training courses related to personal development. However, one of the most fragile and important issues in adult education is the recognition of previous learning. Recognition of previous learning is the documentation, through measurement and assessment, of individuals who are currently employed and have more skills than formal education competencies. This process is carried out under the coordination of the General Directorate of Lifelong Learning.

*The Specialization Commission Report on Women's Role
in Development*

This report was prepared by a specialization commission to strengthen the Turkish economy, to include women, who make up half of the total population of our country, in the process, to integrate them into the economy, and to take measures to uncover their potential (The Republic of Turkey, 2019). The education-employment, technology, and digital economy headings of the report, which consists of six key topics, are about contributing to sustainable development by strengthening women's status through direct Lifelong Learning. The report's starting point is to provide input to the national action plan that will contribute to the achievement of the 2030 Sustainable Development Goals (UN, 2019). It was prepared with the slogan "Leave No One Behind," including the Fourth Goal; "quality education for all," Fifth Goal: "eliminating all discrimination against women."

The main goal of sustainable development is to ensure a healthy, decent, and comfortable life for individuals who make up society; its focus is on individuals. Therefore, reducing poverty and having all segments of society share in prosperity by participating in the production process are a must for sustainable development. The report states that women's employment is directly related to education, and countries' educational policies should be strengthened in this direction through a global current situation analysis. The analysis of the current situation is based on the OECD Centre for Educational Research and Innovation (CERI) *Educational Opportunity for All* report, the ILO *2017 World Employment Report*, and the report prepared by the UNESCO Statistics Institute (the Republic of Turkey, 2019). According to the data derived from the reports, the most significant common characteristic of countries with poor educational performance is that they neglect to generalize education across society. In other words, they fail to fully integrate Lifelong Learning culture into the national education system. One of the most important points of attention in the report is developing entrepreneurial skills in women to achieve women's sustainable development objectives and generalize the level of prosperity across the entire society. In 2015, a study was conducted by the McKinsey Global Institute on the contribution of women to economic growth (The Republic of Turkey, 2019). According to the study, if women's participation in employment is equal to that of men, the global gross product will increase by 26% by 2025. Therefore, the participation of women in the economic development process is essential to ensuring countries' sustainable economic growth. In this context, it must be ensured that gender-

based discrimination in the sector be eliminated and that women's competencies be improved through Lifelong Learning to support technological development.

According to the *Specialization Commission Report on the Role of Women in Development*, entrepreneurship in women through education is a crucial factor in the development process. Focusing solely on male entrepreneurs is the wrong strategy. According to Schumpeter (1911), entrepreneurship means not involving the other half of the population in the economic growth process (The Republic of Turkey, 2019). In this context, the General Directorate of Status of Women of the Ministry of Family and Social Policies has prepared a *Strategy Document and Action Plan for Empowering Women*, covering 2018–2023 (AÇSHB, 2018–2023). This action plan states that women's entrepreneurship is considered a key component of economic growth in an increasingly competitive environment driven by globalization. Therefore, it is important to promote Turkey's socio-economic development in the competitive system, to increase entrepreneurship in women in a numerical, qualitative way, and to strengthen their entrepreneurship skills through education. The report argues that there are barriers to women's use of the Internet and information and communication technologies, noting that this area's greatest shortfall is knowledge and education. The report outlines several measures to address this lack of knowledge and education, suggesting that the non-formal education approach is the strongest tool to overcome the stated barriers. Below are the highlights of the proposed package to support women's participation in the work-life, increasing their contribution to both the household and the country's economy.

- Removing the barriers to the lack of information on incentives to increase women's employment and entrepreneurship and ensuring continuity in the flow of information;
- Taking into account the development of entrepreneurial skills of women not only in cities but also in rural areas;
- Providing the training required for women to participate in the digital economy through non-formal education;
- Strengthening the private education sector and NGO cooperation in creating and implementing female employment policies;
- Providing professional education through Lifelong Learning to increase qualified female employment in the labor market and ensuring skills development;
- Providing knowledge and communication skills matching the 21st-century competencies and requirements;
- Implementing programs that enable female entrepreneurs to use digital technology effectively through public education centers, and providing financial literacy and e-commerce awareness;

- Raising awareness of role-model stories to increase the number of female entrepreneurs and ensuring that such role models become an inspiration.

In conclusion, a human resources management that ensures a quality work-life balance in women who participate in the development process and contribute to the development of the economy of not just the household but also the country is possible only through education.

The Ministry of National Education 2023 Education Vision

The 2023 vision document prepared by the Ministry of National Education is the strategy document prepared in 2018 (MoNE, 2018b). The document consists of a roadmap for all tiers of the education system, offering a stronger future vision through higher-quality education. The main purpose of the document, which was prepared based on the needs of the information age, is to educate skilled and ethical individuals who are interested in culture and willing to use their current and future skills for the benefit of humanity. The document states that education is the most powerful tool for creating a strong economic structure and a sound social structure. The focus is not only on students; objectives are also set for the educational needs of administrators, teachers, and parents, who are the key actors of education. The vision document, which addresses the development of every tier of the education system and all actors, also contains Lifelong Learning strategies from the perspective of education for all. This means that through a holistic approach for a stronger tomorrow, the document emphasizes improving the Lifelong Learning system with a primary purpose and nine sub-goals under a separate heading.

The main goal of “increasing quality in and access to lifelong learning programs” has been determined considering the social-professional development of all ages and all society segments starting from early childhood education. The vision also set a sub-goal of updating the social-cultural-professional programs to support development in society’s core structure, update the skills of the individuals, or support them to acquire new skills. The strengthening of social structure through education is crucial in ensuring sustainable development, considering all socio-cultural-professional factors. This phenomenon also leads to the need for all stakeholders, including non-governmental organizations, professional organizations, universities, and public institutions, to collaborate for education. Based on this requirement, strengthening collaborations between institutions and

organizations has been set as another sub-goal in order to generalize education across all segments of society.

The rapid development of technology and changing values affect individuals' social and work lives, requiring them to continually update their skills. To have a strong economy, to strengthen social structure, to ensure social inclusion for all segments of society, and to keep up with the changing values of the 21st century, it is necessary to generalize the 21st-century skills across all segments of the community. Another sub-goal set based on the fact that LLL interests all segments of society is to generalize the 21st-century skills of financial, digital, health, and social media literacy training. In line with the development of technology, every aspect of life is quickly digitized at an astonishing speed, bringing with it the necessity of making changes to the structure of education. In education, digitization has an important place to reach different audiences and to increase learning diversity by giving access to learning. For this reason, the use of remote education technologies within the lifetime learning system is an effective way of increasing the rate of participation in Lifelong Learning and developing human resources. Therefore, the Lifelong Learning system needs to keep up with digitalization as well. In this context, in the Lifelong Learning approach, integrating remote education technologies into the Lifelong Learning system, was set as another sub-goal to diversify and increase the audience.

The Women First in Entrepreneurship Project

The Women First in Entrepreneurship Project started in partnership with the Turkish Information Foundation and Turkish Vodafone Foundation under the MoNE General Directorate's coordination of Lifelong Learning (Learning, 2020). The project was initiated to encourage women's economic-social empowerment and to improve their education and welfare level. Launched in 2015 as a pilot implementation in 10 provinces in Turkey, the project was launched nationwide, covering 987 Public Education Centers in 81 provinces in 2019 (Foundation, 2019). Its starting point is empowering women in socio-economic terms, and its unique objectives are as follows.

- Facilitating the sale of the handicrafts produced by female trainees in the public education centers via the innovations introduced by digital technology;
- Ensuring that the products produced by women in professional and socio-cultural courses started for recreational purposes are transformed into an income-generating activity;

- Promoting the participation of non-professional women in economic life as freelance entrepreneurs by developing their entrepreneurial skills;
- Creating opportunities for them to gain additional income, increasing the household's welfare through free entrepreneurship activities.

The Women First in Entrepreneurship Project consists of four main activities and a series of sub-activities, which are briefly described below.

A1. Preparation of the counselor and trainee training programs kit

The Project Implementation Guidelines prepared for use in the project were prepared and sent to 100 entrepreneurial counselors working at the public education centers in 10 provinces. In addition, all training materials that entrepreneurship counselors will use in training women were prepared by the Directorate General for Lifelong Learning and sent to the entrepreneurial counselors in 10 pilot provinces.

A2. Entrepreneurship counselors' training (training the trainers):

The training organized by 100 adult education teachers from 10 provinces was a 24-hour training for 3 days. The training's overall aim is to provide the knowledge and guidance needed by the female trainees, who currently attend recreational courses at the public education centers in 10 provinces determined as pilot provinces and want to be entrepreneurs. The content of the trainer's training, which is based on e-commerce, was delivered by a mixed theoretical and hands-on training method on the knowledge and guidance an entrepreneur may need. The trainer's training was delivered in the topics of theoretical-practical training on Internet use, e-commerce and entrepreneurship, production planning, sales and marketing, entrepreneurship and business planning, time management, financial legislation practices, financial management, marketing, and sales management, and intellectual and property rights. The training was certified by the MoNE General Directorate of Lifelong Learning, and 100 adult education teachers were appointed as entrepreneurship counselors.

A3. Training of female trainees was given to 10,000 women through face-to-face training by 100 adult education teachers who received entrepreneurship training. Entrepreneurship training courses were given to the female trainees who attended the professional and recreational training courses at public education centers as part of the entrepreneurship training program prepared and approved by the Directorate General for Lifelong Learning. The entrepreneurship skills of the female trainees attending the training were formally recognized by a nationally valid course completion certificate given by the public education centers.

The rapid evolution of technology, driven by digital-age innovations, has led to a need for new applications in education. The Women First in Entrepreneurship Mobile App was designed and developed to reach more women in a shorter time by integrating this development and change into the Lifelong Learning system. The Ministry of National Education created the app to provide convenience and opportunity to share in education to teachers and students. The online education platform, abbreviated EBA (Education Computing Network), serves teachers and students across Turkey to support the use of technology as a means to promote learning, not as an end in itself.

Women unable to attend the entrepreneurship courses because of daily household chores and family responsibilities can access the training through the Women First in Entrepreneurship Mobile App, supported by the EBA 24 hours a day, 7 days a week, without any time and place constraints. The mobile app contains a total of 40 training videos, including online usage, communication, social media management, e-commerce, company formation, financial management, and the use of a digital store where they can sell products. These training units enable women to effectively use the digital store and step into work life as entrepreneurs.

A4. Digital store for female entrepreneurs: The www.oncekadin.gov.tr system was established in 2016 to enable women to sell the handicrafts they produced in professional and recreational courses online (Foundation, 2019). In the year the system was established, 10,000 women were provided access, and they uploaded a total of 16,534 products in 14 categories into the system. In 2019, the number of product categories was increased to 15, and the number of products uploaded into the system by the end of the year exceeded 52,000.

A5. Successful female entrepreneurs award: A successful female entrepreneurs awards program is organized at the end of each year to support successful female entrepreneurs who participated in the project and make them role models to inspire other women. In the first year, three women were recognized with an award as successful female entrepreneur of the year. The project, which supports more women every year for them to realize their dreams, increased the number of awards to six by increasing the awards category for successful entrepreneurs in 2019. The successful female entrepreneurs awards are given based on numerical data such as the number of ads uploaded into the digital store, the number of product sales, and the revenue generated from product sales. This includes the Grand Prize for three most successful women, the Special Jury Prize for two women, and the Innovation in Products Award for one woman who designed innovative products. The total amount of seed money provided to women to

facilitate their own business or to grow their business and reach larger audiences totaled 120,000 TL by 2019.

Project outputs:

- The 24-hour entrepreneurship training module;
- 40 instructional videos to improve entrepreneurship skills, including developing digital-based capabilities such as social media, mobile apps, and more;
- A digital store at www.oncekadin.gov.tr created for women who receive training to upload and sell their handicrafts;
- Digital store mobile app;
- The annual most successful female entrepreneurs' competition (Foundation, 2019).

Impacts of the Women First in Entrepreneurship Project

The Women First in Entrepreneurship Project has a versatile structure that positively impacts women's lives. The project has gained ground in a short time on the road set out to support powerful women who build their own business and even offer employment opportunities, contributing to the household and the country's economic growth by developing women's entrepreneurial skills. It has quickly entered the lives of many women living different lifestyles in different socio-economic structures from all over Turkey, providing a magical touch to their lives, including the socio-economic domain. It has enabled women to believe in themselves and realize their potential, increasing their self-confidence and make them feel more useful with their contribution to the family budget.

On the road, committed to the principle, "We combine handicrafts with information technologies and always support women's power, both economically and socially," the project has gained significant ground in women's empowerment through Lifelong Learning. The project, which began in 2015, has spread across Turkey in as little as five years. In a short time, 16,534 products were advertised, resulting in a 105,000 TL return on the sale of 1,500 products. At the end of 2019, over 1,000,000 TL were earned from sales in 15 categories, reaching 54,000 women across Turkey.

In 2019, 621 applications were submitted to the Women First in Entrepreneurship Competition from all around Turkey, and the highest number of applications made to the competition was achieved during the project. Evaluations selected participants who came into the competition based on numerical

data such as the number of sales made through the virtual store, the number of products uploaded to the system, and the amount of income generated from the sale of these products. Three entrepreneur women who came in at the end of the evaluation received a Grand Prize, two women received a Special Jury Award, and one woman received the Innovation in Products Award. Six awardees were given seed capital of 43,500 TL to grow their business and reach larger audiences. The seed money provided to female entrepreneurs at the annual entrepreneurship competition was 120,000 TL by the end of 2019.

The Women First in Entrepreneurship Project received great interest and reactions all over Turkey for its contribution to the economy of both household and country by empowering women through Lifelong Learning. It has also taken its place in the international arena and has been included in the *United Nations' Report on Best Practices for the Future of Business and Human Rights* (Compact, 2019).

The *United Nations' Report on Best Practices for the Future of Business and Human Rights* provides a global assessment of effective solutions for the future of business and the business world across the globe, addressing labor and fighting poverty, fighting climate change, immigration and immigrant themes. In addition to this global assessment, it also showcases the good practices of countries addressing the designated themes, and sets the selected good practices as examples to other countries by acting as a catalyst.

The feedback received at the end of each year from the female entrepreneurs who participated in project activities revealed that their self-confidence had been restored and that they have overcome barriers to their success. In addition, they also stated that it was all about believing in and trusting yourself that they had achieved this through the project, and were able to see what they could achieve with the Women First in Entrepreneurship Project, which also had a positive impact on their personal and cognitive development. Furthermore, they said that the most effective and enjoyable aspect of the project was developing their digital skills and seeing how they could reach a larger audience through social media accounts. The participating female entrepreneurs emphasized a different aspect of their achievement of becoming a contributor to the family budget by using up-to-date technology and producing and selling, highlighting the importance of keeping their skills up to date to grow their business with the awareness of being productive.

Conclusion and Recommendations

The documents examined in the present study discuss the importance of Lifelong Learning to ensure sustainable development, but lifelong participation in Turkey appears to be below the European average, and the rate of involvement is improv-

ing slowly. On the other hand, the reviewed top policy documents contain educational policies that support women's participation in non-formal education and employment processes for countries to achieve a sound socio-economic structure and appear to be supporting each other. However, despite all the policy measures and recommendations, it seems that the practices are inadequate, and that plans have not met their goals. This leads to the following conclusions.

Adults must be made more aware that Lifelong Learning is not only a leisure time activity but an opportunity to develop skills, actions taken must be based on the perspective that strengthening society will bring economic recovery, and the perspective of Lifelong Learning must be adopted and supported by educational systems. Lifelong Learning covers all individuals who make up society, and sustainable economies can only be achieved if all parties participate actively in the growth process. Therefore, cooperation between the parties that drive society, such as policymakers, universities, non-governmental organizations, workers and employers' unions, can help disseminate the Lifelong Learning approach throughout society. Creating a Lifetime Learning culture and keeping individuals' attitudes, knowledge, and skills up to date can be said to produce socio-economic growth in the country.

Entrepreneurship is one of the most important areas that allow women to participate as key actors in economic growth and increase global employment. Therefore, it must be made easier for women who have human resources potential to use economic growth to access knowledge. Their digital capabilities must be improved to make it easier for them to access knowledge and adapt to the changing digital world.

Women, who make up half of the total population of Turkey and the whole world, must be taught how to access knowledge in today's information age, and mechanisms of facilitating such access must be included in the lifelong learning system. The rapid development of technology and countries' demographic profile makes it difficult for a country's population to adapt to social and business life. Therefore, individuals need to continually update their skills to speed up the adaptation process, build a more solid social structure, and achieve economic power. These updates are delivered to all individuals who make up society and incorporated into the development process by integrating the Lifelong Learning approach into the education systems.

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Sadife Çinkir²

Ministarstvo za nacionalno obrazovanje, Turska

Održivi razvoj kroz celoživotno učenje: dobra praksa ženskog preduzetništva u Turskoj

Apstrakt: Žene čine polovinu svetske populacije, ali se to ne može reći za njihovo aktivno učešće u procesu ekonomskog razvoja. Održiva i jaka privreda može da se ostvari podjednako aktivnim učešćem, razvijanjem ili osvežavanjem veština svih pojedinaca koji čine društvo. Ovaj rad se fokusira na doprinos održivom razvoju žena preduzetnica kroz celoživotno učenje. Rad obuhvata dva dela. Prvi deo razmatra povezanost između dostupnosti digitalnog obrazovanja prilagođenog uzrastu i održivog razvoja u celoživotnom učenju. Drugi deo je primer dobre prakse koji ispituje uticaj projekta *Žene na prvom mestu u preduzetništvu* na razvoj ženskog preduzetništva. On izlaže razloge iza sprovođenja projekta, proces njegove realizacije, rezultate i uticaj. Kako bi se pospešilo učešće žena na tržištu rada u sklopu održivog razvoja današnje privrede, projekat pokrenut u 10 pokrajina trenutno se sprovodi širom Turske. Projekat se sprovodi pod koordinacijom turskog Generalnog direktorata za celoživotno učenje od 2015. godine. Generalni direktorat za celoživotno učenje je najviši autoritet za donošenje politika u Turskoj u pogledu jačanje sistema obrazovanja odraslih.

Ključne reči: žensko preduzetništvo, celoživotno učenje, održivi razvoj, pristup digitalnom obrazovanju.

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IN MEMORIAM

IN MEMORIAM

Sabina Jelenc Krašovec (1968–2020)

Krajem 2020. godine dobili smo tužnu vest iz Slovenije – napustila nas je dr Sabina Jelenc Krašovec, vanredna profesorka na Odeljenju za pedagogiju i andragogiju Filozofskog fakulteta Univerziteta u Ljubljani, poštovana kao predavač, istraživač i kolega, vodeća slovenačka andragoškinja, sjajna kolegunica i veliki prijatelj našeg Odeljenja za pedagogiju i andragogiju.

Studirala je na Filozofskom fakultetu Univerziteta u Ljubljani. Studije pedagogije, smer Andragogija i institucionalno vaspitanje, završila je diplomskim radom na temu funkcionalne pismenosti, a studije sociologije diplomskim radom na temu odliva mozгова. Na postdiplomskim studijama je istraživala trendove u razvoju teorije obrazovanja odraslih u Evropi i ulogu obrazovanja odraslih u razvoju aktivnog građanstva u tranziciji. Od tada je istraživala brojne teme – od uloge univerziteta u procesu formiranja društva učenja (u okviru rada na doktorskoj tezi), do širokog spektra problema u oblasti učenja i obrazovanja odraslih.

Na početku svoje karijere, fokusirala je svoj istraživački rad na polje istraživanja kritičkog mišljenja odraslih i uloge andragoga u podsticanju kritičke refleksije, najpre u oblasti humanističke psihologije, a kasnije u kontekstu kritičke teorije društva. Razvijala je i različite andragoške discipline – sociologiju obrazovanja odraslih, kritičku obrazovnu gerontologiju (obrazovanje starih je bila oblast o kojoj je mnogo pisala i istraživala, i to sa aspekta aktivnog građanstva, javnog prostora, socijalnog blagostanja, osnaživanja i upotrebe socijalnih mreža), komparativnu andragogiju (uključujući brojne teme aktuelne u evropskom prostoru obrazovanja odraslih) i andragoško savetovanje.

U svom istraživačkom i predavačkom radu često se bavila pitanjima obrazovanja odraslih sa posebnim potrebama, zatvorenika, bolesnih, ljudi sa problemima zavisnosti. Zalagala se za razvoj andragogije specifičnih ciljnih grupa kao posebnog područja andragogije, koje bi proučavalo marginalizovane društvene grupe, osetljivu populaciju i ljude koji nemaju glas u društvu. Na Filozofskom fakultetu u Ljubljani razvila je čak i predmet *andragogika ciljnih skupin* (andragogija ciljnih grupa), koji je predavala sa entuzijazmom i predanošću. Sem toga, istraživala je značaj javnog prostora za učenje odraslih i starijih, u čemu su do izražaja došli njena

društvena angažovanost i kritičnost, njeno delovanje koje je obeleženo pobunom protiv svih vrsta ugnjetavanja, izraženom solidarnošću i zauzimanjem za pravične društvene odnose, pravedniji svet i razvoj obrazovnih mogućnosti za marginalizovane grupe i za inkluziju. Verovala je u transformativnu moć učenja i obrazovanja u svim fazama života, pa ne čudi što se tema poslednjeg članka, čiji je bila koautor (2018), odnosi na transformativne potencijale praksi učenja.

Osim rada na Filozofskom fakultetu u Ljubljani (kao predavač, profesorka, šefica Katedre za andragogiju, upravnica Odeljenja za pedagogiju i andragogiju), intenzivno je saradivala sa ostalim andragoškim institucijama u Sloveniji (kao što su Andragoški centar Slovenije i Andragoško društvo Slovenije) i sa brojnim univerzitetima u Evropi (Beogradu, Dublinu, Krakovu, Vroclavu, kao gostujući profesor). Svoje istraživačke rezultate objavila je u 47 naučnih članaka u renomiranim domaćim i stranim časopisima, kao što su: *European Journal for Research on the Education and Learning of Adults*, *Australian Journal of Adult Learning*, *Educational Gerontology*, *Andragoške studije*. Kao koautor, učestvovala je u izradi nekoliko monografskih studija, od kojih su neke doživele i više izdanja: *Andragoško svetovalno delo (Andragoški savetodavni rad – 2003, 2009, 2011)*; *Prestari za učenje? Vzorci izobrazavanja in učenja starijih (Isuviše stari za učenje? Primeri obrazovanja i učenja starih, 2010)*; *Izobrazavanje odraslih v Sloveniji: Stanje in izzivi (Obrazovanje odraslih u Sloveniji: stanje i izazovi – 2011)*; *Medgeneracijska solidarnost v Sloveniji (Medugeneracijska solidarnost u Sloveniji – 2013)*; *Oskrba starijih v skupnosti: Dejavnosti, akterji in predstave (Briga o starijima u zajednici: Aktivnosti, akteri i pretpostavke – 2014)*, *Priručnik za usposabljanje svetovalcev in ocenjevalcev predhodno pridobljenih znanj in spretnosti (Priručnik za osposobljavanje savetnika i procenitelja prethodno stečenih znanja i veština – 2000)*, *Svetovalna dejavnost v izobrazavanju odraslih (Savetovanje u obrazovanju odraslih – 2011)*. Godine 1996. objavljena je izuzetno popularna stručna monografija *ABC izobrazavanja odraslih (ABC obrazovanja odraslih)*, koju studenti i danas koriste kao koristan udžbenik i početni vodič za upoznavanje sa osnovama i strukturom polja proučavanja andragogije.

Učestovala je i u brojnim istraživanjima, na primer, u međunarodnim mrežama istraživača obrazovanja odraslih ESREA (naročito je bila aktivna u mreži za obrazovanje starijih *Education and Learning of Older Adults*, u okviru koje je 2015. godine organizovala međunarodnu konferenciju u Ljubljani), u OECD-ovom opsežnom međunarodnom istraživanju PIAAC, koje se bavilo merenjem stope pismenosti odraslih u Sloveniji, i Erasmus projektu *Old Guys Say Yes to Community*, u kojem su razvijane inovativne prakse za socijalno uključivanje starijih muškaraca u zajednicu (2017–2019).

Bila je i član uredništva časopisa *Sodobna pedagogika (Savremena pedagogija)*, kourednik časopisa *Andragoška spoznanja (Andragoška saznanja)*, a bila je ak-

tivno uključena i u mnoge međunarodne projekte sa kolegama iz Australije, Novog Zelanda, Poljske, Velike Britanije, Portugalije, Irske i mnogih drugih zemalja, sa kojima je pripremila i uredila mnoge monografije i zbornike, da pomenemo najznačajniji od njih *Learning across generations in Europe: Contemporary issues in older adult education* (2014). Bila je član uredništva *RELA European Journal for Research on the Education and Learning of Adult*.

Katedra za andragogiju i Institut za pedagogiju i andragogiju Filozofskog fakulteta Univerziteta u Beogradu imali su čast da godinama bude član Uredništva časopisa *Andragoške studije*. U toj ulozi pokazala je da je izuzetan profesionalac i sjajan čovek – uvek reagujući brzo i savršeno adekvatno na sve zahteve koje članstvo u Uredništvu nameće. Uspevala je da u komunikaciji bude otvorena, jednostavna, prijatna i ljubazna. Odgovarala je pozitivno na sve naše molbe za recenzije, prikaze i razne vrste podrške, sa velikom kolegijalnošću i spremnošću da podrži dobre akcije, kreativne projekte i kvalitetne inicijative.

Uživali smo u druženjima sa njom na susretima u Ljubljani, Beogradu, ili na različitim međunarodnim konferencijama, na kojima je imala uloge zanimljivog predavača, radoznalog istraživača, dinamičnog moderatora i posvećenog člana tima. Aktivno je učestvovala u saradnji između Filozofskog fakulteta u Ljubljani u Filozofskog fakulteta u Beogradu i podržavala razmenu studenata ta dva fakulteta; rado se odazvala na poziv naših studenata da učestvuje u snimanju kratkog filma o profesoru Savićeviću, osnivaču naše Katedre, i divno je govorila o njemu u tom filmu; držala je predavanja na našoj Katedri, veselila se sa nama u Skadarliji...

Plenila je divnom kombinacijom: s jedne strane duboko razumevanje brojnih andragoških problema, spremnost da se podeli iskustvo i razmeni mišljenje, a sa druge strane fin, tanan, inteligentan smisao za humor, nenametljiva druželjubivost i izražena tolerancija. Putovanja, muzika, različite kulture, nesebično pomaganje, posvećenost ljudima – tu Sabinu smo poznavali. U neformalnim trenucima dolazili su do izražaja njena širina i autentični humanizam – nacionalne i slične podele nikada nisu imale značaja za nju; u njenom sistemu vrednosti na vrhu je bio Čovek i njen naučni i stručni angažman je mogao da bude samo u funkciji humanih vrednosti.

Sa tugom smo primili vest o njenoj bolesti, nadajući se da će uspeti da je pobedi – svojom vedrinom, entuzijazmom, iskrenošću, toplinom... Nedostajaće nam.

Redakcija časopisa *Andragoške studije*
Odeljenje za pedagogiju i andragogiju
Filozofskog fakulteta Univerziteta u Beogradu

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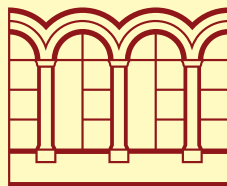
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