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Andragoške studije

Časopis za proučavanje obrazovanja i učenja odraslih

Andragogical Studies

Journal for the Study of Adult Education and Learning

ĄANDRAGOŠKE STUDIJE

Sadržaj

ANDRAGOGICAL STUDIES

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An International Capsule of a Perspective of the History and Philosophy of Andragogy

Abstract: This paper on the History and Philosophy of Andragogy is mainly limited (with a few exceptions) to a chronological history and the accompanying philosophy of andragogy, in line with when the English language documents were published and personal descriptions of events were written down. Some of these documents, however, present aspects of the events and ideas which recount the years and contexts prior to the time in which they appeared in published form.

Key word: history of andragogy, philosophy of andragogy.

Early Appearances of Andragogy (1833-1927)

The term 'andragogy', as far as we know, was first authored by Alexander Kapp (1833), a German high school teacher. In the book entitled '*Platon's Erziehungslehre*' (*Plato's Educational Ideas*) he describes the lifelong necessity to learn. He turns his attention to adulthood – Andragogy or Education in the man's age[2]. The term andragogy lay fallow for many decades. Nonetheless, in the 1920s Germany became a place for building theory and another German resurrected the term (Reischmann, 2004).

Rosenstock-Huessy (1925) posed andragogy as the only method for the German people and Germany, dispirited and degenerated in 1918 after World War I, to regenerate themselves and their country. He suggested that all adult education (andragogy), if it is to achieve anything original that shapes man, which

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[2] A replica of this may be viewed at the following website: http://www.andragogy.net.

arises from the depths of time, would have to proceed from the suffering which the lost war brought them.

About the same time, Lindeman (1926) from the USA traveled to Germany and became acquainted with the Workers Education Movement. He was the first to bring the concept to America that andragogy is the method for teaching adults. The term was published in English only a few times in the first 100 years it existed. However, the use of andragogy increased in the almost eighty years that followed, which brings us up to the writing of this article.

Andragogy's Second American Appearance and its Foundation Being Established (1964-1970)

Another extensive period of time elapsed until the term andragogy was published in English. This time, it appeared in Great Britain. Simpson (1964) proposed and issued a call that andragogy could serve as a title for an attempt to identify a body of knowledge relevant to the training of those concerned with Adult Education. Knowles (1970) indicated that he acquired the term in 1967 from Dusan Savicevic. [It was actually in 1966 (Sopher, 2003)]. However, after becoming acquainted with the term, Knowles infused it with much of his own meaning garnered from his already extensive experience in adult education.

Movement Toward Applying Andragogy To Human Resource Development (1971-1973)

Furter (1971), from France, proposed that universities recognize a science for the training of man to be called andragogy. The purpose would be to focus not on children and adolescents, but on man throughout his life. Ingalls (1972) provided the first handbook guide to using andragogy in helping adult educators [they called them 'trainers' in those days] become more systematic and consistent in their engaging learners in the learning process. This was developed and tested in a branch of the US Government. Knowles (1973) focused a full application of his conception of andragogy toward the Human Resource Development (HRD) Movement. He worked vigorously in the corporate sector and thus saw the importance of testing and relating andragogy within it.

Emergence of Self-Directed Learning Skills As A Major Way To Implement Andragogy (1975-1981)

Knowles (1975) published his guidebook for learners and teachers on the topic of Self-Directed Learning relating it to Andragogy. For him, andragogy was the underlying philosophy, and self-directed learning was a means to implement andragogy. Hadley (1975) in his Doctoral Dissertation at Boston University developed and validated an instrument for assessing an adult educator's andragogy and pedagogy orientation. The instrument was labeled as the Education Orientation Questionnaire (EOQ). Ingalls (1976) added to the idea of using andragogy in corporate settings. In this he identified how a manager needs to function as a person who helps his/her workers learn and keep up-to-date in their various fields of expertise. Kabuga (1977), an adult educator from Africa, advocated using highly participative teaching/learning techniques with children. He was quite committed to and convinced of the value of the andragogical idea in all education. Knowles (1980) revised and updated his classic work on The Modern Practice of Adult Education. He added up-to-date illustrations from the field, even K-12 education, where colleagues asserted that andragogy also worked for them in their classrooms. Mezirow (1981), developed a critical theory of adult learning and education, and laid the groundwork for what he called a charter for andragogy. This included the core concepts that would enhance adults' capability to function as self-directed learners. Suanmali (1981), a doctoral student of Mezirow, focused his dissertation research on Mezirow's charter for andragogy. He found support and agreement among 174 adult education professors and practitioners for andragogy.

Strengthening the Numerous Uses of Andragogy Along With Growing Controversy and Resistance Toward It (1981-1984)

Christian (1982) provided the andragogical perspective of assessing the Student's Orientation Questionnaire (SOQ). This instrument was based upon Hadley's (1975) Educational Orientation Questionnaire (EOQ). Allman (1983), who was associated with the Nottingham [UK] Andragogy Group, considered the strong connection between brain plasticity (fluid intelligence) and adult development. She asserted that Mezirow's (1981) and Knowles' (1970, 1980) understanding of andragogy could be linked and merged with her idea. Nonetheless, some lack of enthusiasm about Knowles' andragogy concept was reflected by Hartree (1984). She expressed the feeling that Knowles' andragogy did not live up to what she in-

terpreted as his desire for its becoming a comprehensive learning theory for adult education. Jarvis (1984) wrote that the theory of andragogy had moved into the status of an established doctrine in adult education. However, he thought it did not have the grounding in sufficient empirical research to justify its dominant position. Not to be deterred at this point, Knowles (1984) presented the first book in which he cites thirty-six extensive case examples of applying andragogy in practice. In it he revealed what worked and what did not.

Identifying the Stronger European Base of Andragogy in Comparing it with the American Base (1985-1988)

Young (1985) perceived the European concept of andragogy as being more comprehensive than the American conception. He considered that most Europeans do not use the terms andragogy and adult education synonymously. Taylor (1986) offered a very strong and articulate research based model for the andragogical process of transition into learning for self-direction within the classroom. This is from the learners' point of view and has various phases on a cycle of what may be characterized as a cultural journey. Brookfield (1986) claimed that andragogy (most probably as exemplified by Knowles) was not a proven theory. Thus, he cautioned that adult educators should be hesitant to adopt it as a badge of identity. Ross (1988) connected the concept of andragogy and its value with some of the research on teacher effectiveness. He believed that teachers' behavior relates to student achievement. Henschke (1987) posed an andragogical model for preparing new and seasoned adult educators. This would help them engage adults in active learning. Davenport (1987) questioned the theoretical and practical efficacy of Knowles' theory of andragogy. He suggested that adult education would simply be better off to drop the word from its lexicon. Burge (1988) said that one reason for distance educators to look at andragogy is the concept of quality. She asks the question: Would an andragogical learner-centered approach contribute to or undermine academic rigor? She found the answer to be in its affirming academic rigor.

The Foundation of Trust Undergirds Andragogical Learning Despite The Andragogy Debate (1989-1991)

Henschke (1989) developed an andragogical assessment instrument entitled, Instructional Perspectives Inventory (IPI). The central and strongest major core of

this instrument was originally and still is a focus on the teacher trust of learners. At this time, Knowles (1989) provided a clue about a major ingredient necessary in adult education. He considered both pedagogical and andragogical assumptions as valid and appropriate in varying situations, depending upon the maturity of the learners, and familiarity with the subject matter. Nadler (1989) stated that Human Resource Development (HRD) is based in learning, and every HRD practitioner should have an understanding of the theories of Adult Learning. This was a crucial observation, because many in HRD have overlooked that consideration. Krajinc (1989) perhaps provides the most beneficial definition of andragogy. She states, "Andragogy has been defined as…'the art and science of helping adults learn and the study of adult education theory, processes, and technology to that end' " (p. 19). Heimstra and Sisco (1990), made what could be considered an extensive addition to the theory, research, and definition of andragogy. They provided annotations on 97 works related to andragogy, thus contributing to its international foundation. Robb (1990) believed that South African andragogics can enable the improvement of understanding between Continental European and American adult educationists. However, for this improvement to take place, he saw the need for further study. Peters and Jarvis (1991) called Malcolm S. Knowles as one of the best-known and most respected adult educators of all time. They had him provide an epilogue to their book, an andragogical vision of the future of adult education field. Long (1991) speculated that although Knowles' form of andragogy is weak in empirical confirmation, it has survived the criticism leveled against it. Two reasons are that Knowles is a leader in the field and is widely respected for other contributions. Griffith (1991) also credited Knowles as being the best-known American adult educator. He has made numerous contributions to the literature of the field, with an orientation toward andragogical practice.

Scientific Foundation Of Andragogy Being Established Amid Skepticism and Misunderstanding: 1991-1995

Savicevic (1991) provided a critical consideration of andragogical concepts in five western European Countries, and five eastern European Countries. He also drew on sources from ancient times. This comparison showed common roots and indicated endeavors toward andragogy as a fairly independent scientific discipline. Additionally, he credited J. A. Comenius in the seventeenth century with being regarded the founder of andragogy.

At this time, there was again strong criticism of American andragogy, and that coming from Candy (1991) in Australia. At the time Knowles articulated

andragogy, self-expression and personal development were in vogue. Thus, self-directed learning and andragogy were gaining some prominence in becoming known as autonomous learning.

Houle (1992) in contrast, emphasized the impact of Knowles on American andragogy, and how he worked this out in practice especially in non-school settings and the workplace. He went on to indicate that scholars and theorists may find great value in Knowles' discussion of the development of learning theories in the educational literature, and his exploration of the roots of his own thinking about theorizing.

The struggle regarding andragogy and Knowles involvement in it was still heating up. Pratt's (1993) perception that after 25 years, Knowles' approach to andragogy was lacking in its fulfilling a promise of being somewhat of a panacea for a teaching approach in all adult education. Newman (1993) focused on inmate education. He asserts that "to appeal morally-cognitively to adult inmates… is to entail the principles of andragogy (the learning of adults as opposed to the teaching of children), as elaborated by Knowles" (p. 49). Kaminsky (1993) suggested that whether we have knowledge for naming something academically or not, we may still be practicing pedagogy, andragogy, or any other 'gogy' or 'ism'. This is the reason she selected that idea from hooks (1994). Kaminsky finds Mr. Ferro's remarks snobbish and exclusionary sounding as it appears that he does not want anyone, other than 'linguists', to try and name the world, or even to make up new ways of naming things. She argues that he wants that job to belong to the expert name-makers, who, it seems, can never be adult educators, let alone people who have never seen the inside of a college or high school.

Hooks (1994) said "the possession of a term does not bring a process or practice into being: concurrently one may practice theorizing without ever knowing/possessing the term…" (p. 61). It is sometimes later that this kind of practice is given a label that comes into common use. Pöggeler (1994) listed trends which he hopes will be helpful for future development of European andragogical research. These include at least: International knowledge, "development-andragogy" of the Third World, and understanding the "lifeworlds" of the participants. Zmeyov (1994) clearly supported andragogy. He stated that the most important trend in adult education in Russia is the application and further development of Knowles' (1970, 1980) theory of adult learning, or andragogy. Delahaye, et al. (1994) measured student's orientation to andragogy and pedagogy by using the Student's Orientation Questionnaire (EOQ) developed by Christian (1982). This relationship reflects some of the complexities of mixing andragogy and pedagogy involved in adult learning.

Milligan (1995) scientifically investigated andragogy. He conceptualizes his summary of it as the facilitation of adult learning, most notably used in nursing education, has elements of andragogy within it. Henschke (1995) focused on describing a dozen different episodes with groups in various settings. He successfully applied his understanding and adaptation of Knowles' theory of andragogy.

Momentum Gained Against Andragogy While Counter Arguments Assert Its Value (1995-1998)

Welton (1995) asserts that "the 'andragogical consensus'…formulated by the custodians of orthodoxy in the American Commission of Professors in the 1950s and solidified by Malcolm Knowles and others in the 1960s and 1970s, has unraveled at the seams" (p. 5). He articulated that the fundamental accusations expressed are because this perspective inadequately serves the interests of the disenfranchised in North American society.

Zhang (1996) told about how andragogy was used in a major way in China. Deng XiaoPing used it to help the People's Republic of China move from a traditional planned economy toward the socialist market economy system. Van Gent (1996) asserted that andragogy has been used to designate the education of adults. He considered that its future lies only as a generic term for adult education. Hanson (1996), from the other side of the discussion, called for adult educators not to search for a separate theory of adult learning [andragogy]. He suggests that we remove many of the unsubstantiated assumptions based on almost utopian beliefs about the education and training of adults linked to un-contextualized views of learning and empowerment. Houle (1996) talks about Knowles' work in andragogy. He said that it remains the most learner centered of all patterns of adult educational programming around the globe. Most dictionaries up to this time have not included andragogy. However, the Webster Encyclopedic Unabridged Dictionary (1996) includes the definition of andragogy as, "the methods or techniques used to teach adults" (p. 77). However, Ferro (1997) insists that use of the term andragogy is not encouraged because of its being an unclear term. He charged that the use and meaning of the term, *andragogy,* has spawned a debate on the term and fostered the creation of additional unclear terms. Rostad (1998) outlined the library of the Nordic Folk Academy as a meeting place and an information center specialized in non-formal adult education, adult learning and andragogy. It applies andragogy to avoid any adults being marginalized.

Antecedents To An Historical Foundation of Andragogy Being Extended And Broadened (1998-2000)

Henschke (1998a) asserted that long before the term andragogy appeared in published form in 1833, ancient Greek and Hebrew educators used words that were antecedents to andragogy. His definition of andragogy moved in the direction of calling it a scientific discipline of study. Zmeyov (1998) aptly defined andragogy differently from others. He said that andragogy is "the theory of adult learning that sets out the fundamentals of the activities of learners and teachers in planning, realizing, evaluating and correcting adult learning" (p. 106). Draper (1998) presented an overview of the historical forces influencing the origin and use of the term andragogy. He concluded, "Tracing the metamorphoses of andragogy/adult education is important to the field's search for identity." (p. 24). Green (1998) comments on some important factors for consideration in online learning. He suggests that in andragogy learners must balance all life responsibilities including learning.

Henschke (1998b) also emphasized that, in preparing educators of adults, andragogy becomes a way of being or an attitude of mind, and needs to be modeled/exemplified by the professor. Otherwise, if we are not modeling what we are teaching, we are teaching something else. Further, Hoods Woods (1998) perceived andragogy, as related to wilderness teaching, being based on four environmental influences interacting in every being. They are: External (Physical); Internal (Physical); External (Spiritual); and, Internal (Spiritual).

The most comprehensive of all the publications on andragogy is a book that includes thirty of Savicevic's (1999) publications within a twenty-six year period. His work has addressed how andragogy has and will shape all aspects of adult education. Boucouvalas (1999) insisted that refined methodological or epistemological tools and indicators are critical for sound research in comparative andragogy. However, the role and influence of the 'self' of the researcher in the research process, is an equally critical element to be considered. Savicevic (1999b) indicated that Knowles was inconsistent in determining andragogy and thus had caused much confusion and misunderstanding. The most glaring mistake of Knowles was that he declared andragogy as a 'model' for teaching even in pre-school, thus moving it away from just applying to adults. It has been suggested by Savicevic (1999b) that andragogy is defined as a scientific discipline. Thus, it deals with problems relating to HRD, Adult Education, and learning in all parts of a person's life. Osborn (1999) declared that andragogy has the potential to play an important role in distance learning. However, she found that students need to be coached to understand the teacher's expectations. Similarly, Ovesni (1999)

supported the idea that andragogy is to generate its own knowledge. Andragogy does not belong to any other science no matter what that other science is called. Henschke (1999) explored the gap between 'learning' and 'performance' within the andragogy concept relating to Adult Education and Human Resource Development [HRD]. He concluded that the two distinct terms together are different sides of the 'same coin'; and their close relationship is the key to HRD.

Savicevic (2000) also explored various antecedents to and backgrounds of andragogy before the term came into publication. In this he added another component to the scientific foundation of andragogy. Ovesni (2000) proposed three research concepts and models of andragogues' professional preparation. They are modeling: Andragogical personnel; viable tendency toward distinction; and, diversification within the process of education. Reischmann (2000) indicated that in 1994 he changed the Otto Freiderick University, Bamberg, Germany, 'Chair of Adult Education' to 'Chair of Andragogy'. His understanding differentiates 'andragogy as the research' and 'adult education as the practice' in the education and learning of adults. Johnson (2000) applied and tested andragogy as an approach to learning that includes a focus primarily on the needs of the learner in every aspect of his/her life. He also asserted that given most, if not all definitions in the social science literature, andragogy could qualify as a theory or at least an emergent theory.

Empirical Research Being Pressed for Investigating Andragogy's Value While Objection Remains (2000-2003)

Billington (2000) found that with sixty men and women, there were a number of key factors relating to implementing andragogy. If they were present, it helped them grow, or if they were absent, it made them regress and not grow. Rossman (2000) posits that andragogy provides a number of important things. They are: A context for developing distance education programs, a framework to build a climate conducive to adult learning, and a process for involving the adult learner more actively in the distance learning process. To the arguments questioning the value of Knowles' approach to andragogy, Maehl (2000) addresses the philosophical orientations of a number of adult educators. He suggests that Knowles led in the direction of making andragogy quite humanistic that gained wide adoption in the field.

Shore's (2001) perception that Knowles' andragogy became a catalyst for unproductive debates was framed along a binary path. This path includes examples such as adult/child, etc. Grace (2001) considered that Knowles' andragogy as a

theory of how adults learn was losing much of its punch by 1990 as a result of the discussion and controversy surrounding it. He felt that Knowles' perspective is too much caught up with extraneous matters. Mason, et al. (2001) indicated that air carrier check airmen could benefit greatly from Henschke's (1987) andragogical model in their preparation for becoming instructors in the pilot learning program. Most especially, they considered implementation of the plan will help pilot instructors display flexibility in their approach. Merriam (2001) also posited that the scholarship on andragogy since 1990 has taken two directions. One stream seeks the establishment of a scientific discipline. The other stream critiques andragogy as being de-contextualized. She emphasized that andragogy is one of the major 'pillars' of adult learning theory. Cooper and Henschke (2001) showed the continuing discovery and expansion of a much broader conception of andragogy than Knowles'. It was then published in the Serbian Language, in the Andragogy Journal in Yugoslavia to an audience largely acquainted with andragogy in one of its most pure forms, as it is credible in the University of Belgrade.

Rachal (2002) clearly identified seven criteria suitable for implementation in future empirical studies of andragogy. Those criteria are: Voluntary participation, adult status, collaboratively-determined objectives, performance-based assessment of achievement, measuring satisfaction, appropriate adult learning environment, and technical issues. Moore (n.d., circa, 2002) focused attention on the term 'adult' as referring to 'all college students, undergraduate and above'. He suggested that 'andragogy' can be more broadly defined as all 'learner-focused' education.

Morland (2003) assert that business trainers, coaches, and instructional designers need to understand the dynamics of andragogical adult learning. He indicated that Knowles' andragogical insights into adult learning behaviors and motivations are generally accepted. Kajee (2003) reported on the impact of using andragogy with English as a Second Language (ESL) in a South African university. This approach had a positive bearing learner autonomy and self-directedness. Haugoy (2003) identified andragogy closely with various models of flexible open classrooms for the independent students in many countries. These models go back more than a century to Bishop Grundtvig's life path.

Bringing European and American Andragogy Closer Together As Distance Education Emerges (2003-2004)

By this time a connection was emerging between andragogy and distance education. Simonson, et al. (2003) identified a number of characteristics needed in

distance education systems designed for adults that are derived from Knowles' concept of andragogy. Andragogy showed the strength through its long history in Europe (Savicevic, 2003). He indicates that comparative andragogy has numerous elements that are essential in addressing this scientific research topic.

Sopher (2003) asserted that Knowles' work is best understood by practitioners and researchers only if certain rules are observed. They are: It is accurate, humanistic, contextual, and recognizing of the role that adult education movements, he influenced and influenced him in the USA, plays in Knowles' theory of andragogy. Nevins (n.d., circa, 2003) asserts that successful business leaders are masters of andragogy. They need to quickly gather the facts and make decisions. Wie (2003) articulated the aims, needs, motivation, skills, self-confidence, learning conditions and responsibility of learners in andragogy. These andragogical principles guarantee learning success and quality of adult learning.

Drinkard and Henschke (2004) found contrasts in nurse educators. Those who have a doctoral degree in other than nursing (andragogy to be specific) are more trusting of their learners in the classroom than nurse educators who have a doctoral degree in nursing. Reischmann (2004) added some historical perspective to the scientific basis of andragogy. This related to whether a term such as "andragogy" was necessary, or that the field of adult education has been or will be able to flourish and do its work without a unique term. Donaghy (2004) in the process of his doctoral dissertation had an interview with Allen Tough and what he had to say about Malcolm Knowles with his andragogical and self-directed learning perspective. "I love the guy, we all did. He's a wonderful … very special man and in fact he pioneered self-directed learning … we … admired … each other. Knowles was very approachable." (p. 45) Illeeris, (2004) is not an andragogue, but a pedagogue. He indicated that he is quite in line with Knowles' agitation for andragogy as a discipline, which is different from the pedagogy of children's schooling and upbringing. Merriam (2004) has questions about whether andragogy is a theory. Nonetheless, she asserted that certainly andragogy is here to stay as one of the major landmarks in the development of adult learning theory. Thompson and Deis (2004) review and summarize the literature that suggests a significant theoretical difference between andragogy and pedagogy. However, they suggest that they both apply to children and adults in certain situations.

The Hesitation Concerning Andragogy Continues While Many Still Stand By Andragogy (2005-2006)

Sandlin (2005) admitted that andragogy was a cornerstone of adult education for many decades. Notwithstanding, she has serious reservations about its prominence, and critiques it within the areocentric, feminist, and critical adult education perspectives.

Esposito (2005) found that emotional intelligence is important to managing interpersonal relationships and interactions, especially in the business and educational sphere. These are the hallmark of andragogy. Carlson (2005) sought to answer the nature of the lived experiences of adults in the context of learning a foreign language in a formal learning environment. This qualitative study was partially grounded in Knowles' andragogy. Stanton (2005) related the andragogical concept to the concept of readiness for self-directed learning. There was not only congruence between the two, but also the Henschke (1989) Instructional Perspectives Inventory [IPI] was validated as an almost perfect 'bell-shaped' measurement of an andragogical facilitator. Reischmann (2005) made a clear distinction in his definition between andragogy and adult education. He defined andragogy as the science of the lifelong and lifewide education/learning of adults. Adult education is focused on the practice of the education/learning of adults. Another use of the principles of andragogy is in the public school setting. The purpose of Stricker's (2006) research was to determine the attitudes of principals toward teachers as learners. He found a gap between how the principals viewed themselves and how the teachers viewed them.

Wilson's (2006) research had turned into a book that was published. This was regarding the historical emergence and increasing value of brain research and andragogy in Germany and the USA.

Knowles' Prominent Long Range Contribution to Andragogy's Continuance Into The Future (2006-2009)

Another example of continued interest in andragogy and the influence of Knowles came during 2006. A request from Italy was for Marcie Boucouvalas, Leo Johnson, and John Henschke [all former students of Knowles] to conduct two workshops in Italy. The workshop topics included: Knowles' work in andragogy; and, andragogical competencies for professionals facilitating adult learning/andragogy.

Savicevic (2006a) has been working in andragogy for a half-century. He observed that since his first visit to the USA in 1966, up through 2006, the identifiable trace of andragogy on USA universities is that there had not been a single serious study on adult education and learning that did not refer to andragogy as a conception. Isac (2006) analyzed that in their efforts in Romania to innovate, adult education/andragogy was completely neglected during the Communist Regime from 1945 to 1989. He recognized that it would now take much to renew these valuable andragogical traditions according to contemporary imperatives of the European Union. Taking a strong stance, Zmeyov (2006) from Russia, asserted that andragogy could be determined as the theory of adult learning. This establishes the scientific fundamentals that andragogy considers the learner as the real subject of his/her learning process. As if seeking to culminate and bring together all these valiant efforts, Savicevic (2006b) does a thorough historical tracing of the converging and diverging of ideas on andragogy in various countries. He seeks to help lay a scientific research foundation for andragogy being the studying of the learning and education of adults. Savicevic also reflected about his perception of Knowles' position in sustaining andragogy over the long range of its history into the future.

Forty years in development of a science is not a long or ignorable period. I met professor Knowles four decades ago and argued on term and on concept of andragogy. Since then, the term and the concept of andragogy enlarged and rooted in the American professional literature. There is no doubt that Knowles contributed to it, not only by his texts, but with his spoken word and lectures. He was a 'masovik', i.e. a lecturer on mass events. He told me that he lectured on 10,000 visitor stadiums. As if he was inspired by an ancient agonistic spirituality! His contribution to the dissemination of andragogical ideas throughout the USA is huge. The history of andragogy will put him on a meritorious place in the development of this scientific discipline. (p. 20)

Although Newman (2007) declared he was not a fan of andragogy, he said that in his estimation Knowles had contributed something to adult education and andragogy that was quite unique. As he thought it through, he came to the conclusion that Knowles provided a means to assess the needs of adult learners, and he could not detect that any other adult educators provided such. They only had talked about assessing adult learner needs. Isenberg, (2007), provides a break-through framework for bringing together the interaction of andragogy and Internet learning. She presents a dynamic design to meet the goal of the International Commission on Adult Education for the Twenty-first Century, focusing on five pillars of lifelong learning: To know, to do, to live together, to be, and to change. Cooper and Henschke (2007) present a fully documented perspective

on andragogy which has been absent from all previous author's published discussions. This has been an open and up-front facing of a topic (andragogy) that by many has been considered unimportant to the adult education field. Henschke and Cooper (2007) provided one of the first detailed papers on the worldwide foundation of andragogy in the English Language, published in the Romanian Institute for Adult Education Yearbook. This was divided into six sections.

Henschke (2008) present a thorough picture of both the American and European perspectives on andragogy. They believe this to be much needed in the ongoing development of what many erroneously consider a static concept. Boucouvalas (2008) highlighted the emphasis that Knowles gave to group / community / society in his treatment of andragogy. Earlier perspectives on the purpose of adult learning included its serving a higher purpose than just the individual. Vodde (2008) found that while a traditional, pedagogical, military model of training may have at one time served the needs and interests of police and society, its applicability and efficacy has been called into question. It was theorized that an andragogical (adult based) instructional methodology will serve as a more effective means for training police recruits.

Henschke (2009a, and personal remembering) led an andragogical contribution through the Partners of the Americas partnership of 44 years between Missouri, USA and Para, Brazil. This spreads over his making eight trips to Brazil, in a period of 24 years from 1985 through 2009, conducting 29 different courses and workshops all focused on andragogy; with a total of 1148 participants from five Brazilian states, and 36 educational, corporate, and service agencies. Total instruction time for all the programs came to 452 hours. Pleskot-Makulska (2009) presented a paper on andragogy at the Commission on International Adult Education (CIAE) Pre-Conference of the American Association for Adult and Continuing Education (AAACE) Conference, November, 2009, in Cleveland, Ohio. Her excellent paper also appeared in the Proceedings of that Conference. To make certain her paper is represented accurately, following is a quote from the abstract she provided of that paper.

In recent times steps are being taken to strengthen the position of andragogues in the job market in Poland. The presentation is centered around the system for their training in that country, with focus on education undertaken as part of the andragogical specialization at the Faculty of Education at the University of Warsaw. (p. 143)

Conclusions On The History and Philosophy of Andragogy

- Andragogy was first authored and published as education at the man's age by Alexander Kapp (1833) a German high school teacher (Reischmann, 2004). Lindeman (1926) brought andragogy as the method for teaching adults to the USA from the Workers Education Movement in Germany.
- Knowles (1970) helped establish the assumptions and processes foundation for andragogy and self-directed learning in the USA.
- Hadley (1975) developed and validated an instrument that could help in assessing and adult educator's orientation with respect to the contructs of andragogy and pedagogy.
- Mezirow (1981) provided a charter for andragogy which strongly supported self-directed learning.
- Suanmali's (1981) research solidly established self-directed learning as the cardinal principle for implementing andragogy.
- Hartree (1984) felt that Knowles' andragogy did not live up to what she interpreted as his desire for its becoming a comprehensive learning theory for adult education.
- Jarvis (1984) estimated that the theory of andragogy had moved into the status of an established doctrine, but without getting grounded in sufficient empirical research to justify its dominant position.
- Knowles (1984) presented the first book citing 36 extensive case examples of applying andragogy working in practice within 11 different categories of organizations.
- Taylor (1986) offered a very strong and articulate research based model, for implementing the andragogical eight-step process of transition into learning for self-direction in the classroom.
- Davenport (1987) asserted that because of the lack of clarity and solid empirical support, that adult education would simply better off to drop the work andragogy from its lexicon.
- Henschke (1989) developed an andragogical instructors' perspective inventory assessment instrument with the central and strongest core element in it being the teacher's trust of learners' ability to learn.
- Savicevic (1991) provided a critical consideration of the scientific foundation of andragogical concepts in ten European Countries.

- Pöggeler (1994) listed trends which he hopes will be helpful for development of andragogical research.
- Welton (1995) expressed that the fundamental accusations against the andragogical consensus is that adult education has abandoned its once vital role in fostering democratic social action
- Houle (1996) said that Knowles' work in andragogy remains the most learner-centered of all patterns of adult educational programming.
- Henschke (1998a) asserted many antecedents to andragogy from ancient Greek and Hebrew educators.
- Draper (1998) provided an overview of the historical forces influencing the origin and use of the term andragogy.
- In a very timely manner, the most comprehensive of all the publications on andragogy is a book that included 30 of Savicevic's (1999a) publications within a 26 year period.
- Savicevic (2000) also explored various antecedents to and background of andragogy   before the term came into publication.
- Billington (2000) found key factors relating to andragogy which helped both men and women grow or, if absent, made them regress and not grow.
- Maehl (2000) in addressing the philosophical orientations of a number of adult educators, suggested that Knowles led in the direction of making andragogy quite humanistic that gained wide adoption in the field.
- Grace (2001) felt that Knowles' perspective on andragogy is too much caught up with extraneous matters.
- Rachal (2002) clearly identified seven criteria suitable for implementation in future empirical studies of andragogy.
- Simonson, et al. (2003) open up the area of a relationship distance education with andragogy.
- Sopher (2003) asserted that Knowles' work in andragogy is best understood by practitioners and researchers only if it is historically accurate, humanistic, contextualized and relates to certain movements in adult education.
- Despite Sandlin (2005) calling andragogy a cornerstone of adult education for many decades, she has serious reservations about its continued prominence.

- Stricker (2005) used andragogical principles to note the difference in perceptions of public school principals and teachers.
- Savicevic (2006a) expressed his realization that almost 50 years of experience with andragogy helped him trace that all serious study on adult education and learning in the USA referred to andragogy as a conception. Savicevic (2006b) does a thorough historical tracing of the converging and diverging of ideas on andragogy in various countries. He reflected about what he considered as Knowles' meritorious position in sustaining andragogy over the long range of its history into the future.
- Isenberg, (2007) provides a break-through scientific foundation, framework and protocol for bringing together the interaction of andragogy and Internet learning.
- Henschke and Cooper (2007a) provided one of the first detailed research papers on the worldwide foundation of andragogy in the 2007 Romanian Institute for Adult Education Yearbook.
- Boucouvalas (2008) highlighted the emphasis that Knowles gave to group /community / society in his treatment of andragogy.
- Henschke (2009) led an andragogical contribution through the Partners of the Americas partnership between Missouri, USA and Para, Brazil.
- Pleskot-Makulska (2009) emphasized the interest in adult education in Poland rising with the andragogical specialization at the Faculty of Education at the University of Warsaw.

This is a History and Philosophy of Andragogy around the world, based on numerous English language documents. There are a total of more than 500 English Language documents, some of which are still waiting to be included in further iterations of this research. Nonetheless, andragogy is not just the work of one or a few persons, but is the result of efforts by multiple people from numerous nations around the globe. The reader is invited to join that effort. Please contact the author at the e-mail address provided on the first page of this article.

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Pregled međunarodnih koncepcija istorije i filozofije andragogije

Apstrakt: Ovaj rad o istoriji i filozofiji andragogije uglavnom se ograničava (sa nekoliko izuzetaka) na hronološki razvoj andragogije, kao i filozofske pristupe andragogiji koji su ga pratili. Osnov predstavljaju dokumenti objavljeni na engleskom jeziku i lične zabeleške autora kao svedoka događaja. Neki od ovih dokumenata, međutim, prikazuju događaje i ideje iz konteksta i vremena pre nega što su bili objavljeni.

Ključne reči: istorija andragogije, filozofija andragogije.

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Citizenship Education in the Context of the European Union: A New Challenge for School and Adult Learning

Abstract: Serbia is approaching the European Union; the perspective of membership is becoming more and more realistic. Apart from the need to align it's economic, legal and social systems, the need to integrate itself on an even more intensive scale into the European exchange in fields like education and culture becomes obvious. Union Citizenship is such a field, even more so because it is an aspect of education which even in the "old" EU member states has not yet been fully recognised as an urgent challenge. Yet it is a task which concerns all levels of the education system – from the kindergarten to school education, higher education and adult education. For Serbian educators, it might therefore be interesting to read about the present state of reflection on Union Citizenship Education, even though the term itself might not be widely known.

Key word: european integration, european citizenship, education for democratic citizenship, adult learning.

Indeed, the question is: Are there any approaches to Citizenship Education (CE) in the European context? Is there already a kind of elementary consensus on its basic issues and principles? And is there a kind of organisational structure for CE in Europe? When looking at the situation of CE in Europe in a general sense, the answer – at least in the view of the author – to all three questions is yes. However, the matter is different when we talk about Citizenship Education in the context of the European Union. Hardly anybody has so far given much thought to the need to create a basic understanding of this new Union Citizenship Educa-

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tion. But there is no doubt that the issue is coming more and more to the fore, not only for the general reasons of rapidly progressing European integration but also for a more concrete reason: For more than ten years, citizens of the European Union have held a European Union Citizenship – but they hardly know about it. The question, therefore, reaches far into the future development and reflection in adult education generally as well as in civic education in particular.

This contribution tries to sum up some of the issues surrounding the notion of European citizenship learning, firstly in the larger framework of the Council of Europe, and secondly in the much more important context of the European Union. In this article, therefore, we need to differentiate between Civic or Citizenship Education generally (for short: CE), the Council of Europe's approach within the pan-European project "Education for Democratic Citizenship" (EDC), and the relatively new context of citizenship within the European Union, which I would like to name "European Union Citizenship Education" (EUCE).

Even when talking about citizenship learning generally, we become aware of terminological difficulties and differences. In the international exchange of educational ideas, no country will be able to claim having developed a generally valid definition, indeed there is no terminological agreement on CE. The historical experience with democracy and citizenship in the 50 European states[2] and the institutional and political frameworks for such learning are simply too diversified to enable such an understanding.

An example for these terminological problems is the case of „Politische Bildung". The term – literally translated "political education" – is used exclusively in German-speaking countries and nowhere else, certainly not in Eastern Europe, where the adjective "political" will be almost automatically be equalled with "indoctrination".

Even the mere denominations of the subject illustrate the differences to other countries, were termini like „Social Studies", „Life Skills", „Personal and Social Education", „The World and I" etc. are in use. Internationally, the most commonly used denominations are „Education for Democratic Citizenship" (EDC; this is the term agreed on in the context of the pan-European project of the Council of Europe, which will be elaborated in more detail in this contribution). Other in the context of international organisations and projects frequently used terms are „European Citizenship Education" and „Democracy Learning". In the anglophone countries one will encounter most often the terms „Civic (or Citizenship) Education", „Citizenship Learning" or „Education for Democracy".

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[2] In the absence of a clear definition of Europe's Eastern borders, I suggest to define Europe on the basis of membership of the Council of Europe, at present 47 states including the three Caucasian nations, plus Belarus (membership suspended), Kosovo (not yet admitted), and Vatican State (observer status).

I would like to point out, however, that even where the same terms are used, different contents might occur.

Terms

German-speaking countries — Political Education — Politische Bildung; Gemeinschaftskunde; Sozialkunde, Staatsbürgerlehre

Examples for other usages (i.e.Armenia, Iceland, Romania) — Social Studies/Sciences Life Skills; Civic Culture Personal and Social Education

Council of Europe and EU usage — Democracy Learning European Citizenship Education (ECE) Education for Democratic Citizenship (EDC)

Europe; US; world-wide — Civics, Civic Education, Citizenship Education, Citizenship Learning; Education for Democracy

Many reform societies in Central East and Eastern Europe apply more or less literal translations of English denominations. This might have been caused by the influence US-American programs exercised immediately after the revolutions in the former Communist world.

Programs like *Project Citizen*, *We the People, Street Law, Civitas* have been implemented most successfully since the beginning of the 1990s and even found their way into the curricular concepts in those countries. That was part of the democratisation strategies carried out by the US-Information Agency (USIA) in almost all post-Communist countries, from Albania to Mongolia, involving considerable financial resources – resources of which (West-)European organisations with similar intentions could only dream of. That is, of course, another reason why those programs are still in use today.

Not only do the denominations differ but also the basic premises. CE can be based on scientific or academic disciplines. In Germany, Political Science is the „guiding discipline" of „Political Education", while other areas like Sociology, Economics, Law are "related disciplines". In other countries, CE is based on approaches to social learning, civic action, civil society, political engagement,

values, ethical principles, beliefs or, most frequently, on a mixture of all those premises laid down in a curriculum or educational framework.

In spite of all differences pointed out above, there are some important communalities which, in fact, make a European approach to CE possible.

- Since the systemic changes in the former Communist world, the international exchange of ideas, concepts and experience (which has been going on in the Western world for a long time, primarily as a transatlantic exchange) has increased tremendously to envelop the Eastern world as well. This created a completely new basis for the conceptualisation of international educational exchange.
- Especially in the European context, I think that the vague outlines of a basic structure of approaches, principles, criteria, initiatives and organisations become visible. It is a network which is self-sustained and does not (yet) have a definite core or management centre.
- With regard to contents, in most European countries there is some kind of basic expectation articulated with view to political-democratic education which is, at the same time, some sort of overall objective. It means that CE should transmit to its target groups (present and future citizens of a democratic society) certain competencies and skills required for their role as informed, autonomous, critical and participative citizens, empowering them to participate in a meaningful way to civil society and to provide them with the skills needed for active participation. They should be enabled to develop and articulate their own opinions and to develop a resistance to extremist or radical tendencies.
- A consensus seems to exist in Europe with regard to the not very optimistic views held in the CE community about the status and long-term perspectives of their field of work. CE is beleaguered by several shortcomings: a lack of funding resources, a certain curricular neglect and even marginalisation in the school syllabi. It is subjected to highly vacillating esteem in the educational policies. Whenever some social tensions or problems occur (integration of minorities, violence in the streets or in the schools) the politicians are quick to call for "more civic education" but are slow to provide adequate resources.
- All over Europe, educators realize that democracy is not "God-given", nor are people "born democrats". They must be stimulated and motivated for democratic participation in civil society. The same is true with

regard to Europe: Europeans do not generally identify with the European Union as a political system or the European integration process. With regard to the EU, this poses a relatively new problem: Even though a genuine European *Union Citizenship* has existed for more than 17 years, hardly anybody knows about it.

This article intends to outline three major aspects which, in my opinion and according to my experience, will become increasingly important to citizenship education in the European context:

1.   European Citizenship and Civil Society are new and urgent challenges for education.
2.   Basic concepts developed for the pan-European project "Education for Democratic Citizenship'" provide a platform for the development of a "European Union Citizenship Education".
3.   A basic pan-European institutional structure for European Citizenship Education is becoming visible.

European Citizenship poses a challenge to education

The Reform Treaty of Lisbon (2009/2010) is considered a milestone in the process of European integration. Not only does it attempt to streamline the Union's political system, institutions and policy fields with view to prepare Europe better for the challenges of globalisation as well as to further enlargements, in particular in the Western Balkans region, but it also steers the EU away from its fixation on a primarily economic *raison d'être* towards a new self-understanding as a political union. In particular, it promotes steps towards a democratisation of the EU and a deeper and more comprehensive involvement of its citizens.

From the viewpoint of civic educators, this latter aspect is more revolutionary than it appears to be at first sight. The EU seems to have realised at long last that an ambitious, historically unique project like the European integration process will not be successful without a basic European awareness of its citizens. Further integration will require a high degree of solidarity, empathy, even sacrifice, a general understanding of democracy and basic rights, a functioning public opinion, opportunities for participation and, last but not least, autonomous, informed and critical citizens. In the EU's new program "Citizens for Europe" (introduced in 2007), this new thinking is taking concrete shape.

At present, however, none of these basic presumptions is visible in Europe. Rather, prejudice and more or less negative dispositions towards the EU are

dominant in the public opinion: the EU is considered an undemocratic, over-bureaucratic system, lead by political elites and so-called experts, and generally an apparatus with highly developed skills in the combustion of large sums of money.

In part, it is the EU's own fault that such negative opinions exist. For many decades, the EU has neglected to explain to its citizens its own fundaments, its truly astonishing achievements, its future perspectives. The mass media willingly reinforce negative trends by reporting primarily about problems, failures or shortcomings of European politics but hardly ever about the progress and success achieved. And the national governments of the member states are always quick to claim any progress as their own success and blame "Brussels" (i.e. the EU apparatus) with any failure.

In one regard, however, there is absolutely no doubt: There is no precedence in human history to the attempt to peacefully unite a whole continent. And there is absolutely no alternative to European Integration. In this time of globalisation, the totality of connections created by trade, finance, tourism, labour migration, cultural exchange, media, communication, sports, scientific and educational links across European borders has become so dense that the need for a regulatory framework for ever closer cooperation is self-evident. Europe is present in virtually all aspects of our daily life.

These are positive developments which, however, are in stark contrast to the lack of interest in and knowledge about Europe visible in all European societies. Many Europeans are just not interested in Europe. They know little or nothing about the continent's diversity, about the European institutions and policies, and they do not comprehend the historical importance of (or the lack of alternatives to) the unification process. Prejudice and lack of knowledge are not a good soil from which a European awareness will spring, not to mention a European "identity".

Since 1992, when the Maastricht Treaty came into force, the citizens of the EU have been invested with a "Union Citizenship". The Lisbon Treaty (2009/2010) made it a legally binding principle – but most citizens are more or less unaware of its meaning. Direct elections to the European Parliament have taken place since 1979, but over the years, the voter turnout has declined dramatically from around 75 to 50 percent. Several enlargement processes (South, East, Southeast) took place while EU citizens became ever more sceptical towards the new member states. Apparently, it does not suffice to construct European institutions, to grant certain basic participation rights or to supplement the national citizenship by a "Union Citizenship" as long as these processes are not based on a common understanding of basic values and a form of European civil society.

European symbols, hymn or passport notwithstanding, the meaning of European awareness is difficult to define. On the one hand, we Europeans experience the diversity of nations, languages, cultural traditions quite rightly as a specific wealth characterising our continent; on the other hand, we have not made sufficient efforts as yet to identify those elements within this diversity which could contribute to a European identity of values, principles and meaning. So, furthering the idea of European awareness and identity will be the core challenge for civic education in the future.

Basic approaches: From „Education for Democratic Citizenship" to „European Union Citizenship Education"

Whenever one gets into contact with citizenship education issues in a European context, one is inevitably confronted with a much more fundamental question: What Europe do we speak of? Even though the "Iron Curtain" disappeared, our continent is still divided – in economic and social terms as well as with regard to the rule of law and democratic stability. There are enormous differences between the richest and the poorest nations, for example between Norway and Moldova.[3] Similarly, historical experience with democracy, civil society and market economy etc. are very different.

Do we speak about the Europe of the Council of Europe, the oldest and by membership largest European organisation (in which 47 of the 50 European states are members)[4], which is focused on issues like education, human rights, cultural exchange, youth and sports but has otherwise no political power? Or do we mean the Europe of the European Union with its 27 (soon 29 or 30) member states, the very magnet for all states aiming at integrating themselves into Europe's future, an innovative supranational structure well advanced on the road to a political union? Both organisations have developed approaches to citizenship education, albeit with different aims and perspectives. Let us look at those approaches.

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[3] GDP per capita /year: Norway 53,000 $, Moldova 3,200 $.

[4] See footnote 2.

The Council of Europe's pan-European project "Education for Democratic Citizenship (EDC)"

After the systemic changes in CEE states, the Balkan wars and the sluggish democratisation process in some countries, the need and urgency for an exchange of educational experience and support of reforms was high. That is why the Second Summit of the Heads of State and Government of the Council of Europe (1997) "decided to launch an initiative for Education for Democratic Citizenship in order to promote citizens' awareness of their rights and responsibilities in a democratic society, activating existing networks...". The project "Education for Democratic Citizenship (EDC)" started in 1997 and was carried out in all member states of the CoE, albeit with different degrees of intensity.

EDC was targeted at all areas and levels of formal, non-formal and informal education with their organisations and instruments. It was meant to include adult education as well as the training sector and to involve all relevant actors in the public, private and non-governmental areas of citizenship learning.

It was carried out in (so far) four phases; phases I and II were directed at the definition of basic principles and an international exchange of experience and good practices. Even though the later phases were to promote knowledge about CE in the wider population, they did not reach the level of participation and intensity of the first two phases.

Two aspects of CE as defined in the phases I and II were of particular importance for the new democracies: (1) the democratisation of the school climate and environment, including the widening of the scope for direct involvement of students in the school government, about which the All-European Study for Democracy in the School was published[5], and (2) the notion of Democracy-Learning as a "life-long learning concept" overspanning all areas of school and after-school education and professional training.

There are great differences between the conditions under which DL takes place, between the socialisation experience and attitudes of the actors involved and their possibilities to use acquired knowledge. Premises which may be self-evident in some national contexts might be contested or downright unacceptable in other states. That is why the development of general concepts or principles on a European level cannot and should not be based on specific national experience: Neither "fast-food programs" (mere translations of national concepts) nor "recepies" are desirable. Also, it cannot be presumed that European concepts would

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[5] Duerr, K. (2005). *The School – a democratic learning community. The All-European Study on Pupils' Participation in School.* Strasbourg: Council of Europe.

be equally accepted in all countries. Indeed, some countries were even reluctant to take up the recommendations.

The project has been influential insofar as it has stimulated an urgently needed debate in Europe on the basic criteria and aspects of Citizenship learning, as well as furthering an intensified pan-European exchange of experience which was urgently needed in a continent which had been separated for such a long time. Furthermore, it has successfully promoted the inclusion of CE issues in national educational laws, curricula and syllabi.

If the results of the EDC project appear nevertheless relatively vague and even simplistic, this might be due to the fact that the CoE is basically an organisation with limited influence, little power and very small resources. In particular, the CoE has no resources for funding projects. Even the EDC project itself has been from the start burdened with severe financial limitations.

Even more important is the fact that the CoE is not an integration-oriented organisation, it does not (in contrast to the EU) aim at creating a political union; it is merely an organisation to enable better cooperation between the member states in certain fields like education, culture and Human Rights. Therefore, the basic premises, recommendations, elements, tools and definitions of the EDC project – how to empower people for responsible, critical and participative citizenship in a democratic civil society – have always been directed *solely* at the national level and are thus applicable in any democratic society. In other words: The project's mandate has never been to propagate an overall vision or to stimulate a debate on European identity and coherence, nor did it promote the idea of a pan-European citizenship.

Development of a European Union Citizenship Education

In contrast to the CoE, the European Union has, at least since the Maastricht Treaty (1992) embarked on the road to a *political union*, an aim further strengthened and invigorated by the Lisbon Treaty (2009/2010). The EU grants its citizens a "Union Citizenship", i.e. a special legal status requiring a completely new and different quality and intensity of European cooperation in such fields as citizenship education. This is a very special challenge for CE, not only because it is a historically unique concept but also because the "European Democracy" still lacks a "demos" capable of exercising its rights and duties, it still lacks a European public sphere and civil society, in other words: conditions which would be essential for the longer-term stability of the Union.

Citizenship deficits of the EU

Within the EU, the lack of solid knowledge and an affective dimension of the citizens' attitude towards the EU are problems which are becoming more and more apparent. It is not enough to issue bordeaux-red passports to everyone and display European flags on all public buildings; rather, it is necessary to qualify the citizens for their role as informed and participative Union citizens who, at least in the longer term, will develop some degree of European awareness and identity which would be an indispensable condition for the sustainability of the Union, in particular if situations arose which require solidarity, as the present financial crisis shows quite clearly.

For decades, the EU distanced itself from its citizens, unable to explain its historic importance, its methods, policies, institutions and processes. The EU was being perceived as a noble club for statesmen, functional elites and experts. Up to the present day, the EU suffers from severe deficits regarding its internal democratic processes, opportunities for active participation, information and self-explanation of its policies towards its citizens, as well as a lack of knowledge on their side. As a consequence, there is a very low level of identification of the citizens with the EU as a political system.

Objectives and Contents of Union Citizenship Education

Are there special competences and skills required which supplement those traditionally transmitted through national citizenship education? I believe so, for the following reasons:

- Firstly, creating a union of so many and so different nation states is, historically speaking, a unique and unprecedented undertaking, especially since that union is acquiring more and more characteristics of a supranational entity, in fact, of a European federation. Already, the EU has provided Europe with a lasting peace; the "iron curtain" has gone and was replaced by a spirit of cooperation, even though nationalisms and more or less latent national prejudice and stereotypes still exist.
- Secondly, the regulations of the Lisbon Treaty contain issues which are not or not to the same degree contained in national constitutions. For example, the European Charter of Fundamental Rights was raised to treaty level and thus become mandatory for all member states. Furthermore, there are now regulations which are not present in some national constitutions, as in the fields of environmental protection, data security and consumer protection.

- Thirdly, the idea of a "European solidarity" is completely new and untried. The present crisis with regard to the financial situation of Greece may prove to be a first test of this solidarity. This, in turn, requires at least a certain degree of identification of the union citizens with the EU and its system – a great challenge for citizenship education.
- To ensure stability in the long term, a European civil society will be required. This would be the framework within which critical, participative and responsible union citizenship would be possible.

These are the tasks and challenges faced by European Union Citizenship Education. It is a "tall order", no doubt, because it requires no less than transmitting European awareness as part of our political and social life. National, regional, local feelings will not be replaced but need to be supplemented by European awareness.

Competences for Union Citizenship Education

There is, however, not need to „reinvent the wheel": national approaches, concepts, premises for Democracy-Learning and the Council of Europe's criteria, principles and recommendations form a solid and broad starting basis for the further elaboration of Union citizenship education. The "European competence" which need to be defined would comprise cognitive, social and affective dimensions, like empathy, solidarity, tolerance on a Europe-wide level, a competence which would not only be directed at the larger vision of a united Europe but also on the everyday vision of individual life opportunities for self-realisation in the future Europe. These are the aspects which go far beyond established approaches to European learning and which must involve hitherto untried learning opportunities.

New forms of linking learning processes in school with extra-mural youth work must be developed in order to lay the foundations for citizenship learning as a life-long learning process. Adult education offers are a very important element. In seminars, summer schools, teamwork across borders, European ideas can be worked out; simulation activities like the European Youth Parliament are very interesting activities to transmit knowledge and skills while at the same time they represent ideal training grounds for linguistic and rhetoric skills and language learning.

Dimensions of European competence learning

- *Learning Europe* requires the transfer of cognitive elements which are indispensable for understanding the political and historical transformation of our continent and for the empowerment of European citizens. Such cognitive elements are, for instance, knowledge about European integration, EU institutions, politics, policies, the articulation of interests and opportunities for meaningful participation.
- *Experiencing Europe* is not difficult – we experience manifestations of this new Europe every day and everywhere – when we by food in supermarkets or food halls, when we watch the daily news, listen to music, visit sport, cultural or entertainment events. We meet students and teachers from other countries, participate in international competitions or travel abroad as tourists or on business trips. Europe is virtually everywhere.
- *Acting in and for Europe* means to participate actively and in a meaningful way. Youth movements and voluntary groups and organisations offer many opportunities for participation on a European level, as do school networks, international teacher associations and educational projects. In adult education, many European networks and initiatives exist to participate in. European political clubs and parties are open for any citizen to join.
- *Recognising Europe* as a perspective for our lives and future is, perhaps, the most fundamental condition necessary for the development of a European spirit. European integration has been remarkably successful in establishing a borderless Europe for learning, studying, working abroad. Young people today have much higher chances of gathering international experience for their professional careers than any generation before.

Structures of Europeanization in Citizenship Education

As pointed out above, we are not standing at the beginning. Much has already been achieved. And gradually, at least in the eyes of the present author, a structure

of CE in Europe becomes visible which, at the same time, also outlines some strategic objectives with regard to the "geographical" outreach of these approaches.

- The Council of Europe promotes the *definition and the standards* of Citizenship Learning in Europe. These are applicable to any national democratic context. However, it does not aim at creating a European citizenship. [6]

- The European Union follows quite a different strategic objective: further and deeper *integration and stronger coherence*. Its main interest is to strengthen the integration process and to convince its citizens of the need, the importance and the meaning of a European Union Citizenship as prescribed by the EU's treaties. This is particularly important with view to the enormous discrepancies in wealth and economic performance which now, after the enlargements of 2004 and 2006, exist in the EU. Indeed, the EU has "discovered" Citizenship as an important tool and established a special program "Europe for Citizens" which aims at furthering exchanges, intercultural learning, citizen networking, cultural projects etc., based on mutual tolerance and respect.

- Through the European Neighbourhood Policy (ENP), the EU attempts to involve all countries on the outer borders of the EU in order to *create an area of democratic stability and peace*. Citizenship learning is viewed as an essential element, so a large number of projects and cooperations have been established between EU member countries and neighbouring countries like Belarus, Ukraine, Moldova, Georgia, Armenia and Azerbaijan. Another approach relevant for Democracy-learning is the Danube Strategy established in 2010 which aims at creating a better cooperation of all states in the Danube area.

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[6] See, for instance, Duerr, K., Spajić-Vrkaš, V., Martins, I. (2000): Strategies for Democracy-Learning in Europe. Strasbourg: Council of Europe; Duerr, K. (2005); C. Birzéa et al. (2004). *All-European Study on Education for Democratic Citizenship Policies*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe.
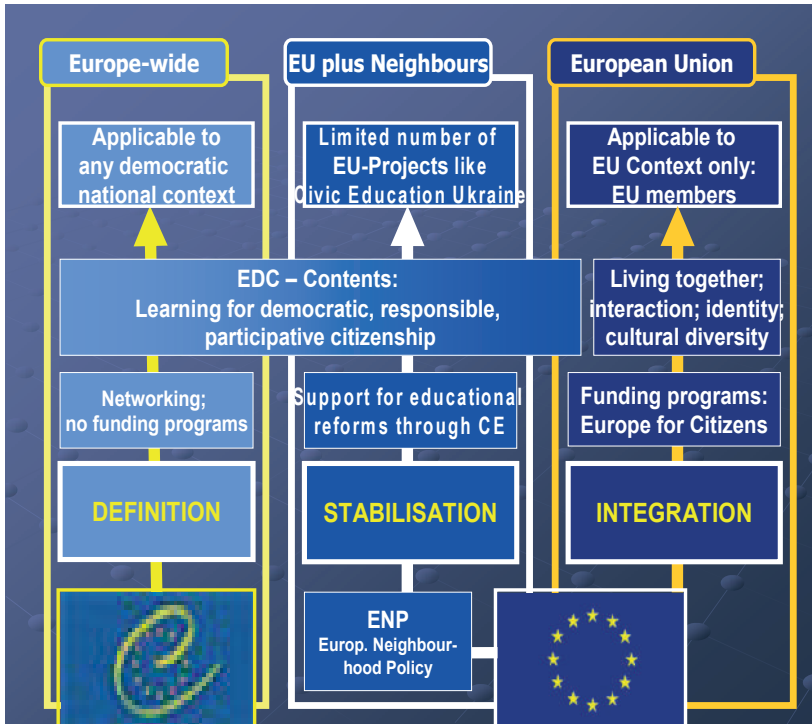
Conclusion

The results of the EDC project, especially the studies, networks, reports and teaching aids developed, create a possible common denominator which could be seen as a basic understanding or even consensus – in spite of all the differences between the countries involved. This is indeed a viable platform for the future development of citizenship education.

It is a platform which can also be used as a starting point for the future elaboration of the new European Union Citizenship Education. The concept of the "European Citizen" must now be understood as a poly-layered concept, involving the local, the regional, the national and the European dimension of citizenship – and many perceive already a growing need for discussion about global citizenship[7], brought about by the world-wide responsibility and need for action

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[7] See, for instance, Schumann, W. (2005). „Herausforderungen für die Demokratie-Bildung im 21. Jahrhundert". Retreived 03.03. 2009. from http://www.daedalos.org/EDC/newsletter/edc_newsletter_d.htm

we face with regard to overpopulation, hunger, catastrophes, human rights violations, terrorism, fundamentalism, environment protection and climate change.

Be that as it may, it is a fact that European Union Citizenship is granted to us by the Lisbon Treaty as a legal norm. Union Citizenship is not a transitory project; it is here to stay. This fact must be understood as an impetus to enlarge and widen the citizenship perspective of EU-citizens by a decidedly European dimension. In particular, it must be understood as an important requirement in the preparation of any new or prospective member state (for instance, Serbia) for accession to the European Union.

With this notion in mind, the further development and elaboration of Citizenship Learning in Europe must be seen as a chance to create a common understanding within the educational community on the approaches, principles, methods and models for European Union Citizenship Education. Similar to the wording about the Union citizenship in the Lisbon Treaty, Union Citizenship Education will not replace national approaches but supplement them.

Much has been achieved already; much more remains to be done.

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Građansko obrazovanje u kontekstu Evropske Unije: novi izazov za školu i obrazovanje odraslih

Apstrakt: Srbija se približava Evropskoj Uniji; perspektiva učlanjenja postaje sve realnija. Pored potrebe da uskladi svoje ekonomske, pravne i društvene sisteme, potreba da se u oblastima kao što su obrazovanje i kultura integriše u evropsku razmenu na još intenzivnijem nivou, postaje sve očiglednija. Građansko obrazovanje za EU jedno je od takvih polja, jer je to aspekt obrazovanja koja čak ni i u „starim" državama članicama EU još uvek nije u potpunosti prepoznat kao hitan izazov. Ipak, to je zadatak koji se odnosi na sve nive obrazovnog sistema – od vrtića, preko škole, do visokog obrazovanja i obrazovanja odraslih. Stoga bi za nastavnike i andragoge u Srbiji moglo biti zanimljivo da se upoznaju sa aktuelnim stavovima o građanskom obrazovanju za EU, iako sama sintagma kao takva možda još uvek nije opšteprihvaćena.

Ključne reči: evropske integracije, evropsko građanstvo, obrazovanje za aktivno građanstvo i demokratiju, učenje odraslih.

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Freedom, Equity and Multicultural Education

Abstract: Multicultural education is a broad area as complex as multiculturalism itself is. Multicultural education can be defined in various ways: as a concept, as an ideal, as reform movement or as an effort to restructure school system. There are many approaches to multicultural education as well. However determined, the phenomenon of multicultural education has yet many issues and contradictions of theoretical and practical nature to resolve. Some of the concerns regard the very values upon the concept is founded, equity and freedom for example. There are several contradictions among and within these values that manifest their potential when faced with the reality of education practice. The paper does not propose to offer answers to profound questions which may be posed to the multicultural education concept; rather, it aims to raise some issues which will be encountered in education, in view of the growing needs for multicultural education principles in the increasingly globalised world.

Key words: multicultural education, freedom and equity in education.

The world and our understanding of the world at the beginning of the twenty-first century have become highly complex. The current changes are characterised by uncertainty, contradictions and multifaceted nature of reality. The globalised world in which everything interacts with everything else and in which the likely visibility of any material phenomenon potentially brings any individual in contact with any situation, has created numerous benefits, as well as contradictions within the contemporary civilisation. However, in addition to the new contradictions, we are becoming increasingly aware of the old ones, which draw more attention of the professional circles. Some of the contradictions to be addressed in this paper include that between the concepts of freedom and equity, as

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well as the contradictions within each of these values. These contradictions seem to be the most prominent precisely when manifested in the field of education.

Multicultural education, both as a movement and as a concept, constitutes, *inter alia*, an attempt at resolving and managing the internal conflicts of modern society. Before considering some aspects of equity, freedom and education, there will be briefly presented a concept of multicultural education.

The variety of definitions of multicultural education reflects the perspective of different academic disciplines, professional organisations, agencies and ministries of education etc. Banks (Banks, 2001) distinguishes three dimensions of multicultural education definition: multicultural education as an idea, educational reform movement and a changing educational system structure process.

Concept of multicultural education

As a concept, multicultural education is a set of beliefs and explanations that recognizes and values the importance of ethnic and cultural diversity in shaping lifestyles, social experiences, personal identities, and educational opportunities of individuals, groups, and nations. Multicultural education prescribes what actions should be performed in order to ensure equitable accessibility and treatment for diverse groups in schools and in society. Some authors equate multicultural education with a "renewed and refined version of liberal education, education for freedom and celebration of the inherent plurality of the world" (Banks, 2001: 28). There has been a high level of consensus on goals of multicultural education. A major goal would be a reform of school and other educational institutions so that students from diverse ethnical, racial and social-class groups are able to reap the benefits of such educational equality. Another important goal would be equality of chances for male and female students to experience educational success and mobility.

When comprehending on goals of multicultural education it is interesting to describe work of American anthropologist Margaret Gibson (Gibson, 1984) who identified five approaches to multicultural education in United States of America which could be generalised and used as a ground for understanding approaches to multicultural education in the global context. Although all five approaches do overlap in some aspects, the author believes that at least first four approaches can be distinguished primarily based upon the criteria of objectives. In addition, she specified basic assumptions for the first four approaches regarding underlying values, change strategies, intended outcomes, and target populations. The fifth approach is conceptualised on the basis of educational and cultural

perspective, and does not, which is especially significant for the field of adult education, equate education with schooling or view multicultural education as the concept reserved for formal curriculum.

(1) *Education of the Culturally Different or Benevolent Multiculturalism.* The purpose of multicultural education here is to *equalize educational opportunities* for culturally different students. The issue that can be highlighted here is academic failure of students from certain minority ethnic groups whose school performance continues to stay behind national norms. Key cause for mentioned phenomena can be found in the fact that culturally different face unique learning handicaps in schools dominated by mainstream values. In order to solve the issues proponents of this approach propose division of school programs in order to increase home/school cultural compatibility. In return these programs are to increase student formal education success. The target populations are the students from certain minority ethnic groups who stay furthest behind norms on school performance. These students are labelled culturally different because they share only peripherally in the mainstream culture. And the main strategy would be effort to reconstruct school program so it can be able to diminish discrepancy between school and home culture.

In addition, I would like here to point out negative aspect of separate schools for ethnic minorities. Following the differentiation of mainstream and ethnic culture, it could be concluded that mentioned schools tend to petrify students in the state of their origin culture and deprive them of internalising categorical notions, as well as of sensibility for mainstream culture, as the means to communicate in multidimensional globalised world. Comprehended in the language of Marcuse this state would only be good in creating one-dimensional man. Besides this approach has many positive elements, it does not lack of many weaknesses which will not be explained in this work due to form of the article.

(2) *Education about Cultural Differences or Cultural Understanding* has a purpose to teach students to value cultural differences, to understand the meaning of the culture concept, and to accept others' right to be different. Further, its focus is education about cultural differences rather than education for the so-called culturally different. At the beginning, the demands for education about cultural differences came from those groups that were most oppressed by and least assimilated into the mainstream culture of USA. Focus of this approach is the demand for schools to be more orientated toward cultural enrichment of students and for programs to foster acceptance of cultural differences. There can be noted that "weakness of this approach is that it presumes to change the existing social order from within the established educational system" (Gibson, 1984: 101).

Other weakness is that connected to implicit structure of the programs. Pettigrew notes that "multiculturalism focuses its concepts on behavioural differences exclusively rather than on both similarities between and among all segments of the society. To continue to focus on differences is perhaps to continue subtly to support the inferiority-superiority hypotheses while at the same time postulating an acceptance on a level of parity of differential behaviour manifestations from all cultures" (Pettigrew, 1974: 82).

(3) *Education for Cultural Pluralism*. The purpose of multicultural education is to preserve and to extend cultural pluralism in society. In opinion of the author, multicultural education for cultural pluralism is the hardest approach to depict, even as an abstract, ideal-type construct. One group of authors see cultural pluralism as ideal to which multicultural education should strive for, while others use it as a synonym for cultural diversity.

In anthropology, the concept regards to social stratification theory in order to reflect on relationships among different ethnic groups in former colonial countries as well as to differ plural societies from the homogeneous or heterogeneous societies. Target group related to this approach are ethnic minorities that rejected majority enforced acculturation and assimilation such was American concept of "melting pot" which can be also considered as fusion concept within the boundaries of the approach. Approach proponents argue that both, assimilation as well as cultural fusion are desirable or acceptable societal goals. Furthermore, it is crucial that cultural diversity maintains, as it is critical for the survival of particular groups. Instead of fusing different cultures educational institutions should find the way not only to preserve pluralism of cultures but to extend it as well. Outcome would be empowerment of minority groups. In this view, acculturation is seen as a broad process defined as change in formerly autonomous cultures that come into contact. More specific process is the process of assimilation which represents organisational and structural absorption of formerly autonomous institutions and/or members of one society by another. Fusion occurs when combination of distinctive culture transforms its characteristics into new complexes. On the other hand, pluralism can be explained as the process that results in a state in which two or more cultures maintain some degree of autonomy usually developing parallel institutions (stabilized pluralism).

"Newman expresses the meaning of these concepts in simple formulas: (1) assimilation: A + B + C = A, where A, B, and C represent different social groups and A represents the dominant group; (2) fusion: A + B + C =D, where A, B, and C represent different social groups and D represents a distinct new group; (3) pluralism: A + B + C = A + B + C, where A, B, and C represent different social groups that over time maintain their unique identities" (by Gibson, 1974: 105)

If pluralism can be understood (as mentioned above) as a concept in which different cultures exits on unparallel level but maintain some degree of autonomy then I would propose a new formula: A + B + C = A x N + B x N + C x N, where N represents *mutual* and *common* elements of the cultures developed and emerged as the product of acculturation process.

(4) *Bicultural Education*. The purpose of bicultural education is to produce learners who have competencies to operate successfully in two different cultures. It is usually used in the contexts of bilingual education programs. Many, if not all, of these programs contain elements of previously mentioned approaches. They focus on developing and maintaining pride in native culture, reduce prejudice and discrimination, creating a fuller and deeper understanding of cultural heritage, increase motivation and academic success, remove obstacles toward educational opportunities etc. In context of this approach aim is also developing language competence.

Table 1: Approches to multicultural education in United States

Approach	Proponents	Precondition	Underlying Value	Target Population	Intended Outcomes
Benevolent Multiculturalism	Mainstream educators	Rejection of cultural and genetic deficit models	Compatibility of home/school cultures	Culturally different students	Equity in educational benefits
Cultural understanding	1. Subordinate minorities 2. Immigrant minorities 3. Mainstream educators	Immigrant minorities' demands for ethnic -studies (to counter balance subordinate minorities' demands)	Cultural understanding and cultural relativity	All students	Respect and acceptance of others' right to be different
Cultural pluralism	Subordinate minorities	Rejection of majority enforced cultural assimilation	Preservation and extension of ethnic groups	Subordinate minority group students	Increased power for minority groups
Bicultural Education	Non-English mother tongue minorities	Rejection of majority enforced cultural assimilation	Reciprocal learning	All students	Bicultural competencies

Source: (Gibson, 1974, pp. 110)

(5) *Multicultural Education as the Normal Human Experience*. The fifth concept differs in several basic elements compared to the other four. Gibson defines multi cultural education as *competencies development* in multiple standards

for existing in multicultural society. Using the comprehensions of education of Thomas and Wahrhaftig, Spindler and Goodenough, she defines multicultural education "as the process whereby a person develops competencies in multiple systems of standards for perceiving, evaluating, believing, and doing. Such a definition has important implication for our analysis of the meaning of multicultural education and allows us to overcome a number of the conceptual weaknesses of the four approaches presented previously" (Gibson, 1974: 112).

Several attitudes are to be depicted regarding this. First, view of education as cultural transmission relieves educators from assuming primary responsibility for students' acquisition of cultural competencies and suggests inclusion of informal, non-formal, that is, all out-of-school learning. Second, there can be no more such restrictions that equate culture and ethnic group. While an ethnic group indeed might share a particular set of standards, its members also can be sorted into other sets that participate in common activities, related, for example, to work or religion or recreation. Person can cut across its ethnic boundaries when internalising and manifesting standards of other specific culture in a diverse society or when consuming/practicing global culture,

Third, since the development of competence in a new culture usually requires intensive interaction with people who *already are competent*, one can see even more clearly that efforts to support ethnically separate schools are antithetical to the purposes of multicultural education. In this thoughts Gibson implicitly highlights element that is important for adult education. Already competent can mostly be applied on adult target groups. Fourth, concerns of proponents of multicultural education, that mainstream schools will cause students to reject their original culture identities result from a confusion of social identification with cultural competence. Which culture an individual will draw upon in some occasions will be determined by situation factors primarily. Finally, multicultural competences approach neglects the need for bicultural education and overcomes dichotomies between native and mainstream culture.

It can be noted that proposed concept and approach offered by Gibson is free from "multicultural values" burden. It simply offers sets of competencies and just enables students to communicate and exists in diverse societies. Practicing of those competencies depends of student own choices; it does not offer to maintain original culture in contrast to mainstream culture, to fuse or to assimilate. On the other hand the concept misses its structure that is, clear guidelines of competencies to be developed.

James A. Banks (Banks, 2001) proposed that dimensions of multicultural education could be (a) content integration, (b) the knowledge construction process, (c) prejudice reduction, (d) an equity pedagogy, (e) an empowering school

culture and social structure. According to the author, content integration deals with the extent to which teachers use examples, data, and information from variety of cultures and groups to illustrate key concepts, principles, generalisations, and theories in their subject area or discipline. In many cases, multicultural education is viewed in this manner – only and primarily as content integration. This widespread belief could be the factor that causes science and mathematics teachers to think of multicultural education as something that should and could be the focus of social science and art and humanities teachers and specialists.

Among the aims of the knowledge construction process is to help students to realise how knowledge is constructed and influenced by various social characteristics (race, nation, religion etc.) Prejudice reduction as an educational goal aims to develop and define strategies that can be used to help students develop more democratic attitudes and values. By the term equity pedagogy, Banks means the methodology and various techniques that could be used in the education process in order to facilitate school achievement of students from different cultural backgrounds. Restructuring organisation and culture of the school environment into "culture variety friendly" environment should be the organisational context within which a process of learning is conducted.

Equity in education

Social science and humanities theorists share a widespread view that modern politics operate on an *egalitarian plane* (Will Kymlicka), implying the almost universally accepted principle that all members of a political community should be treated as equal and that the state is obliged to provide for and respect all members equally, or – more precisely – that all individuals in a given community should receive *equal treatment*. There is, however, disagreement with respect to interpretation of equity. Nozick, for example, understands it as equal respect for individuals' property rights.

In interpretation of equity, we can distinguish between two principal lines of thought. One emphasises that all citizens must be treated with care and respect and that such care and respect are dependent solely on their citizenship status (rather than on race, sex, religion, social/economic status etc.). Unequal social relations, relations of superiority and subordination inevitably lead to oppression, marginalisation and exclusion, which in turn lead to inequity in the distribution of resources. Another line of thought adds the necessity for redistribution of resources to the understanding of equity outlined above. Multicultural education relies on the first interpretation of equity in its two forms: equity before the law

and equity in terms of respect for civil rights. The distinction between the two types of equity is arbitrary and involves a potential contradiction, which will not be discussed in detail in this paper. I will just mention that advocates of the first view of equity in distribution of resources underline that inequity in terms of resources that individuals have at their disposal does not affect their legal status; for example, under the assumption that the said proposition is true, the problem of inequity in terms of the *quality* of legal protection conditioned by the social/economic status of the concerned individual remains open.

The issues of equity and freedom are key questions reflected in the domain of multicultural education. The issue of equity is an issue of educational policy defining *equity of educational opportunities* and *accessibility to education.* Individuals' social characteristics addressed by the multicultural education concept, such as sex, race, ethnicity and social/economic status, are closely linked to equity of educational opportunities, if not formally then certainly in terms of content.

Some authors (Adam, 2006) state that the less affluent 50% of the population of the United Kingdom give a mere 7% of university students. This example clearly illustrates that equity of opportunities is highly dependent on individuals' *initial roles*. In that sense, it is my opinion that education may be seen as an *intermediate point* between an individual's initial social/economic status, i.e. the social/economic status of his/her primary family, and the social/economic status that the individual achieves in adulthood, linked with the occupational status and income. Namely, education could become the *intervention point* at which it is possible to act through educational policy mechanisms in order to alter the initial role of the less affluent strata.

Freedom in education

Those authors who consider the category of *value*s as the most significant among the philosophical categories of significance for education are right. Education is closely linked to the notion of values, primarily owing to axiological dimension of educational goals. Numerous issues have been raised by various streams of educational philosophy. The liberal education philosophy, relevant to multicultural education, has thus been related to the idea of the free man – citizen. Jarvis (Savićević, 2002) underlines that liberal education philosophy seeks additional clarification concerning the extent to which people are free. Advocates of liberal education, according to Hirst (Savićević, 2002), stress that such education is an essential element of "good life", whilst it may be observed that such a characteristic cannot be attributed to all. Similarly to the dual interpretation of the notion of

equity outlined above, it is worth noting the multifaceted nature of the concept of freedom in aspects of import for education.

According to Gerald MacCullam, all statements about freedom can be expressed in the following way: *X* is (is not) free from *Y* to do, become (not do, not become) *Z*. MacCullam presents freedom as a triadic relation: X – agent, Y – constraint, interference or barrier, Z – aim or purpose. Similarly to the dual interpretation of equity, a distinction between two forms of freedom, formal and actual, can be made. Formal freedom would thus constitute the power and capability to act in a certain way and, on the opposite side, simple absence of interference. Liberal political streams (especially those inclined towards the right) thus hold the view that freedom is promoted by minimum intervention on the part of the state and the economy operating according to free market principles. However, the fact that nobody is preventing X from doing a certain thing does not necessarily mean that X is actually able to do it. It is the left-wing political forces that believe that freedom is realised not only by refraining from interference with people's actions, but also by enabling them to do what they otherwise could not.

In the former case, the role of the state is reduced to Nozick's *night watchman*, while in the latter, state interventionism is openly invited. It is precisely in such views that the internal controversy of values such as freedom becomes apparent. In that sense, free market may be understood as contradictory or as y – the obstacle to actual freedom in terms of *equity of educational opportunities*. In addition, this example illustrates that positive societal values compatible at first sight, such as equity and freedom, can easily conflict with each other. There is a certain "logical tension" or contradiction between them, waiting to emerge. Moreover, in different societies or different periods, we can see that, in spite of political advocacy of both values on the part of the elite, in reality one of them is dominant. While liberal societies give precedence to freedom, in particular *freedom from* at the expense of equity (but not equality), communist societies sacrifice freedom on the altar of equity. In real-life politics of most European countries we see that compromises between these two views or extremes are made every day.

Education in general benefits from another typology of freedom: freedom as autonomy and freedom to act at will. An educated person may be considered freer than an uneducated one in two respects. Firstly, a more educated person is offered more possibilities – possibilities to act (freedom to act at will). Education, however, offers an additional quality. A person taught to think independently, to consider the consequences of his/her own actions and decide on the directions in which he/she will act is more independent and capable of assuming more control of his/her life than a person who possesses no, or a lower degree of, such abilities.

Kant distinguished between the *ideal* or *higher* self and the *empirical* or *lower* self. Autonomy is achieved when the *higher* self is in control of the *lower* self. Accordingly, it may be said that education as systematic, organised, intentional socialisation orientated towards socially recognised values "liberates" the human being, contributing to his/her autonomous freedom. In this context, P. Freire, author of the concept of "liberating" education, deserves a mention. A real threat to freedom as autonomy is the aspiration of totalitarian political systems to assume the role of an individual's higher self in the interest of the proclaimed higher political aim. As regards the development of personal autonomy, it is worth noting the importance of the liberal education concept and the pragmatic philosophy of education that empowers the student to set his/her own goals and select the educational contents and methods in accordance with his/her own interests, aided by the teacher as an equal partner in the educational process that aims to be a process of creative self-transcendence and self-actualisation.

In the globalisation process accompanied by accelerated migrations from the less developed countries towards more developed ones, immigrants' integration in the domestic system emerges as a major problem. Poor integration results in numerous situations which could partly be explained by the "cultural conflict theory". By cause, conflicts may be classified into two main types: conflicts of interest and conflicts of values. The latter are of particular importance for multicultural education theory, as they concern the sphere of personal identity. Layman's concept of individual freedom limited by the freedom of another individual encounters difficulties when it is to be applied in situations of conflict of values, i.e. in situations when values of a particular culture conflict with those of another culture. The French law prohibiting prominent displays of religious symbols in public schools or disputes concerning the wearing of the Sikh ceremonial knives – *kirpans* in schools in Canada are striking examples of such situations where a mismatch between customs of various cultural traditions and school rules or even national laws hinders the achievement of full "equity in freedom" in the school system.

These examples describe conflict between principles of *toleration* and *recognition* within concept of multicultural education and standard debate over how to best respond to diverse cultural identities within single society. The proponents of first stream call for privatising the differences in order to realise the values of equal liberty and opportunity. In that respect every individual should privatise its own cultural differences and act in public as if those differences do not exist. At its best this principle implies that citizen has a right to practice its cultural difference in privacy, but does not require of it to act in public as the differences are irrelevant for his or hers public standing. The other principle, principle of recognition is

calling for public recognition of cultural differences and consequently divides the public domain into equally valuable but isolated and likely confronted cultural group identities. Individuals should publicly practice and recognise their cultural differences, treating all cultural identities as equally valuable but separate.

It is obvious that first approach is based on the value of equity, while the second one is founded upon the value of freedom. Each mentioned approach excludes to some extent the other one. Described example represents conflict between values of equity and freedom, because the *conflict between principles of toleration and recognition is in essence the conflict between equity and freedom*. Postmodernism, which does not recognise hierarchical relation between values belonging to different cultures, raises new issues in the field of multicultural education, especially since, along with the decline of modernism, the ideal of enlightenment declined as well.

Closing remarks

Global migrations, global economy and multimedia have created highly complex relationships which created a need for rethinking and transformation of present concept of multiculturalism. Present situation implies that within the same society we can identify three levels of cultures important for multiculturalism: different ethnic cultures, national mainstream culture and global culture that stands above previous two. Connection spots between those three, that is, the characteristics of overlapping dimensions between them are the potential for multicultural education to work on.

From comprehensions presented in this work several conclusions could be derived. First, as it can be confirmed that for multicultural education, as for any kind of education, values are the core base out of which education goals are derived, there has to be clearly and precisely established hierarchy of desired values, as it is explained that there are dichotomies inherent for their relations. Second, every single concept of multicultural education and its programmes should define what is precisely meant under every value in the context of the concept/programme, as they can be interpreted differently if defined too general. Determined hierarchy of values must be used as an orientation for deciding which value should be superior over another in situations in which different values are confronted to each other in every day educational practice. This could be used to prevent arbitrary and random decisions of education practitioners, programme creators, education policy decision makers and institutions faced with a need to resolve concrete issue. However, it is quite expected that not all of practice issues

could be resolved in this manner and some of them will need be resolved *ad iudicium* or in new, creative manner. "Disagreements about limits of diversity fuel creative and destructive tensions within the unity. The more the creative tensions overwhelm the destructive ones, the better off a democracy is and the more constructive work democratic educators have to cut out of them" (Gutmann, 2004: 95).

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Sloboda, jednakosti i multikulturalno obrazovanje

Apstract: Multikulturalno obrazovanje je široko područje, složeno koliko i sam multikulturalizam. Može se definisati na različite načine: kao koncept, ideal, kao reformski pokret ili kao okvir za reorganizaciju školskog sistema. Takođe, postoje različiti pristupi multikulturalnom obrazovanju u okviru kojih su otvorena mnoga pitanja i protivurečnosti, teorijske i praktične prirode, koje tek treba da se razreše. Jedna od njih odnosi se na vrednosti na kojima je koncept zasnovan, kao što su jednakost i sloboda. Protivurečnosti, između i u okviru ovih vrednosti, imaju snažan uticaj na obrazovnu praksu. Ovim radom ne plediramo da ponudimo sveobuhvatne odgovore na sva pitanja koja su karakteristična za koncept multikulturalnog obrazovanja. Namera nam je da, u kontekstu procesa globalizacije, naglasimo potrebu zasnivanja ukupnog procesa obrazovanja na principima multikulturalnog obrazovanja.

Ključne reči: multikulturalno obrazovanje, sloboda i jednakost u obrazovanju.

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Planting the Seeds of Multiculturalism in Adult Education: The Case of Slovenia

Abstract: Multiculturalism in popular discourse in the media and in politics has been one of the most used and widely circulated terms. Based on the idea of promoting diversity, Multiculturalism has become an indisputable fact of life in today's world. (Glazer, 1997) However, managing multiculturalism is indeed a challenge at different levels. In education, there have been endeavours to promote equity and justice in education. By reviewing conceptions of multicultural education from the field's leading scholars, the authors seek to draw guiding principles to be compared with the Slovenian context in order to develop a framework for implementing mulriculturalism in Slovenian adult education.

Keywords: multiculturalism, culture, education, diversity, slovenia.

Introduction

The 21st century with its globalization societies, puts emphasis on citizenry that is internationally oriented and culturally sensitive. Bennett (Bennett, 2001) defines culture as a society's shared beliefs, social values, worldviews, and preferred standards of behaving. Taken in that perspective, we will try to define the concepts of multiculturalism, diversity in relation with education. In the first part of this article we discuss multiculturalism and diversity definitions and we present conceptions of multicultural education from the field's leading scholars, in order to draw guiding principles to be compared with the realities of Slovenian education system. In the second part we evoke the Slovenian historical and educational context in relation with diversity and multicultural principles and we describe our propositions towards multicultural education in Slovenia.

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Defining Multiculturalism

Unfortunately, in all the constant debate around the term no clear consensual definition of the concept has been offered. For instance, Multiculturalism can be defined as (Willet, 1998); "a political, social, and cultural movement which aimed to respect a multiplicity of diverging perspectives outside of dominant traditions", or "Multiculturalism is the way to describe how social structures create and maintain different cultures in a society" (Wekker, 1998: 44). We might also cite Rosado for whom, "*Multiculturalism is a system of beliefs and behaviours that recognizes and respects the presence of all diverse groups in an organization or society, acknowledges and values their socio-cultural differences, and encourages and enables their continued contribution within an inclusive cultural context which empowers all within the organization or society*. (Rosado, 2006) Multiculturalism is then viewed as a "system," a set of interrelated parts (beliefs and behaviours) which make up the whole of how humans experience today's world.

In a historical perspective, the question of multiculturalism has been central to the political concerns of Europe, and North America since 1945, however, European countries were mostly interested in issues about immigration, the ways in which immigrants might settle in Western Europe since the 1950s and 1960s (with the growing numbers of political refugees and asylum seekers in Western Europe), and in the wake of terrorist threats and attacks, they were seriously concerned with the dangers posed by unassimilated immigrant groups.

The problem which societies face is how to reconcile between the demands of the modern state and the aspirations of minorities to preserve their ethnic, religious and linguistic "identity" or difference. This "pluralist dilemma" calls for ways to balance national integration and strong social cohesion, on one hand, with the demand for the affirmation and incorporation of minority culture on the other, (May, 1999) Up until now, the experiences of Europe and America seem to hold as many success as failures, for the criticism of multiculturalism has become more and more fiery and intense. The major thesis of critics of multiculturalism is that it hardens ethnic boundaries and poses a threat to the civic realm's ability to guarantee personal autonomy and neutrality. The strength and cohesion of the state requires a high degree of homogeneity among its citizens. The need to acknowledge formally ethnic, religious and linguistic differences of minorities leads to a cult of ethnicity, weakens the common culture, and fragments the nation as a whole[3]. However, in an age of ever increasing cultural pluralism, multiculturalism

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[3] A review of the critique of Multiculturalism springing from American authors (regardless of their ideological affiliations) could be found in the works of Arthur M. Schlesinger, Jr., *The Disuniting of America: Reflections on a Multicultural Society.* New York: W. W. Norton, 1998; Dinesh D'Souza, *Illiberal Education: The Politics of Race and Sex on Campus.* New York: Free Press, 1991; Allan D. Bloom, *The Closing of the American Mind.*

has become an indisputable fact of life in today's world and constitutes a trend that is unlikely to be ignored. (Glazer, 1997; Gignac, 1997) Therefore, managing multiculturalism becomes a challenge both at the governance as well as managerial levels. Public and private organisations are increasingly realising vast diversity within the global realm and devising strategies to make the most out of it. In essence, then, multiculturalism is nothing more than the art of managing diversity in a total quality manner (Rosado, 2006) and this brings it down to the cardinal question: How do we manage multiculturalism and diversity?

Managing Diversity and multicultural education:

By "diversity" is meant *all the differences that people bring to an organization or group* (Rosado, 2006), this implies that managing diversity should be a comprehensive, holistic process that unleashes the various talents and capabilities which a diverse population brings to an organization, community or society, so as to create a wholesome, inclusive environment, that is "safe for differences," and maximizes the full potential of all.

We should now ask whether there is any place within schools for diversity i.e. the perpetuation of different languages and cultures and what would be the income of such endeavours. Based on the assumption that multicultural education increases students' self-esteem and enhances their performance, many researches led by educators (especially in America and Canada) have yielded significant results. According to Spina (2006) students who have been exposed to more than one culture have cognitive advantages in that they are more able to consider a variety of ideas which affects the scope of their creativity. As of students who come from minority backgrounds, they need to feel that their culture is respected and they are able to creatively bridge the gap between their own culture and that of the mainstream, especially when teachers assist this process.

In an attempt to present principles of multicultural education, we review conceptualizations produced by several of the field's leading voices, we will refer to the work of American authors including Sonia Nieto (Nieto, 2000), Christine Sleeter (Sleeter, 1996), Carl Grant with Sleeter (Grant and Sleeter 1998), and James Banks (Banks, 2004). While each of these scholars frames multicultural education uniquely, they agree on several key principles as shown on the table hereafter.

New York: Simon & Schuster, 1987; Rush Limbaugh, *The Way Things Ought to Be.* New York: Pocket Books, 1992; Russel Jacoby, *The myth of Multiculturalism.* New Left Review [November-December 1994]: 121-126.

Table 1: Principles of Multicultural Education (Adapted from Gorski, 2006)

Basic principles	Authors and tenets
Securing Social Justice	All students are entitled to an "equal opportunity to learn in school" (Banks, 2004: 3) [Multicultural education] challenges and rejects racism and other forms of discrimination in schools and society and accepts and affirms the pluralism (ethnic, racial, linguistic, religious, economic, and gender, among others) (Nieto, 2000: 305). Multicultural education should "make visible issues facing different social groups in our society" (Bailey & Desai, 2005: 40).
Reforming Schools Comprehensively	Multicultural education is calling "for the reform of the entire classroom and the school itself" (Grant & Sleeter, 1998: 63). States that multicultural education must permeate school climate, culture, and practice—that it must be visible everywhere, including decision-making processes such as textbook adoption, behaviour policies, and program assessment. (Nieto, 2000)
Critically Analyzing Systems of Power and Privilege	"To implement multicultural education in a school, we must reform its power relationships... The institutional norms, social structures, cause-belief statements, values, and goals of the school must be transformed" (Banks, 2004: 23). "multicultural education should also direct our attention to concentrations of power and wealth in the hands of a small elite" (Sleeter, 1996: 137).
Eliminating Educational Inequities	Multicultural education is —a movement to "increase educational equity for a range of cultural, ethnic, and economic groups" (Banks, 2004: 7).
Improving Education for All Students	Cultural, ethnic, and language diversity provide the nation and the schools with rich opportunities to incorporate diverse perspectives, issues, and characteristics into the nation and the schools in order to strengthen both. (Banks et al., 2001: 5)

A brief exploration of each of these normative principles shows us how broad the agenda of multicultural education and how demanding can be the efforts to implement its principles. The emphasis on social justice and eradicating inequalities is deliberate to distinguish between depoliticized multicultural education largely criticized by authors (Gorski, 2006) and the set of principles established by scholars in the domain. Taken in the perspective of North American experiences, Christine Sleeter remarks that, "A major problem with most staff development programs for multicultural education is that the unit of change on which they focus is the *individual* rather than the [*institution*] as an organization" (Sleeter, 1992). Such change must be paralleled by a change in the culture and structure of the organization, and to be effective it needs a longitudinal approach involving staff leadership as well as educators. If that has been the case of

the American multicultural education model, to what extent are the principles of diversity and multiculturalism applied in the Slovenian system of Education?

The Slovenian case: historical Background

As history shows us, Slovenia was never a part of the "eastern block", before 1989, it belonged to what was called the Yugoslavian republic, a country renowned under Marshall Tito with its prosperity, its cultural and ethnic mosaic and with its communistic system albeit sympathetic and open to the west with its unallied policy.

Therefore, Slovenian citizens enjoyed freedoms unparallel in socialist countries, with a standard of living that was equal to European countries, free education, medical care, welfare and jobs (due to the presence of workers self-management companies and an active private sector) were all indicators of the success of the Yugoslavian model of unified multicultural society. (Begant, 2009) However, all that changed after Tito's death and the dismemberment of Yugoslavia during the 1980's and the 1990's, the economic turmoil fuelled anger and separatist movements in the former federations. Since the developments of the late 1980s and early 1990s showed that it would not be possible to reach a consensual agreement on some other organisational form for Yugoslavia or on succession, the Republic of Slovenia unilaterally declared its independence on 25th June 1991, and ten days war ensued. Slovenia was able to achieve its national independence at a quite low price by avoiding consequences of this conflict, but the main losers of this transition were immigrants from other Yugoslav republics in Slovenia who were not given Slovenian citizenship. (Zakošek, 2007)

From then on, Slovenia remained well advanced compared to its neighbours Serbia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, Macedonia and Kosovo, and its economic performance among the new countries joining the E.U was outstanding[4]. What about demographics and minorities in Slovenian society?

Population of Slovenia

On the 1st January 2010 the population of Slovenia consisted of 1.014.107 men and 1.032.869 women. Foreign citizens represented 4 % of the total population of Slovenia[5]. Most inhabitants are Slovenian (83,1% – census from 2002).

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[4] Statistics show that Slovenia's GDP Per Capita makes it No.30 in world rankings. Economy Watch http://www.economywatch.com/economicstatistics/ Slovenia/GDP_Per_Capita_PPP_US_Dollars/year-2008/

[5] http://www.stat.si/eng/novica_prikazi.aspx?id=3088

The Italian community in the coastal area and the Hungarian community in the northeast are autochthonous minorities; their rights are protected by the Constitution. **Other ethnic minorities are** Croatians, Serbs, Bosnians, Macedonians, Montenegrins and Albanians. There is also a Roma community in Slovenia; its status and special rights are regulated by the law. The majority of the population is Roman Catholic. There are also more than thirty other religious communities in Slovenia that have officially registered their activities[6]. Therefore, as a whole, the Slovenian society with its ethnic and religion components seems to be largely homogeneous, but with the growth of minorities and immigration, we might suppose that there will be issues related to assimilation and integration similar to situations known in other European countries. To indicate the relevance of the integration in Slovenian policy, we can cite two resolutions (a *Resolution on Immigration Policy* adopted by the national assembly in 1999 and a the 2002 *Resolution on Migration Policy)* that did state that integration is one of the three constituent parts of Slovenia's migration policy adding the prevention of discrimination, xenophobia and racism. In both resolutions, integration is linked to so-called 'Slovene values'; it is interpreted as a right to preserve migrants' own culture, which has to be practiced, however, according to the 'basic values of the Republic of Slovenia' (Pajnik, 2007). We might now turn our attention to the place of multicultural diversity programs in Slovenian education system.

Diversity Education in Slovenia

Prior to 1990, the education system was controlled by the State and its content was influenced by Marxism and socialism. A huge financial and ideological support was offered to citizenship educational programmes simultaneously with the then well developed self-management, a form of employees' participation in the management of companies, factories and institutions. (Emeršič, 2000) There was an urgent need to implement reforms after 1991, especially after the democratisation of society and the will to join the E.U. The methodology used in our research is based upon using the available information about official and NGO education programs.

Presently, Slovenia has three public and one private University. Over the last decade have come into existence several "higher schools" i.e. professional schools providing for two- year education leading to professional qualifications, thus considerably democratising tertiary education.

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[6] http://www.infotujci.si/vsebina.php?id=51

Overall, there was a trend more towards curriculum for practical subjects rather than subjects as History or Sociology, although compelling to European standards in education led to more "ethics and citizenship education[7]" based programs and multicultural NGO education endeavours. We might cite the work of Amnesty International Slovenia and EIP – School for Peace; with the help of UNESCO ASP Net Schools, beginning since 2000, they started programs on human rights education and tolerance using participative learning, learning by doing, volunteer work, and civil society activism. The EIP national long term educational programme in expert cooperation with Council of Europe/Directorate of Youth and Sport is based upon translating the Council of Europe's manual COMPASS[8] into Slovenian as well as educating licensed national trainers who are performing workshops for young people at schools and in non-formal settings. (Begant, 2009) These workshops are on active citizenship, democracy, discrimination and xenophobia, right to quality education, right to living in healthy environment, children's rights, gender equality, globalisation, rights to health and human security, media, poverty, sport and social rights.

We can note in official adult education the curricula for "History" and "Ethics and citizenship education"[9] that the learning of active democracy and democratic procedures should derive from real examples, authentic sources and based on respect to human rights values. At the short-cycle tertiary level of education at all 25 study programmes there is not a single subject which includes Multiculturalism or promotes diversity[10]. For instance, the adult education programmes financed by Ministry of Education, which are oriented into work with Roma, migrants, asylum seekers and/or new residents of Slovenia aim to foster assimilation, by offering learning about Slovenia, its constitution, legal instruments and moral and social codes of Slovenians but there is no indication of attempts to integrate the culture of minorities within the curricula.

From the available data on Slovenian education system, we might conclude that multicultural and diversity programs are not present in any official form, except through extracurricular activities such as European programmes of exchanges or in the work of school student's parliaments.

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[7] Today there is a special compulsory subject called "Ethics and citizenship education" in 8th and 9th grade of compulsory education. The same goes for the history lessons in compulsory education: after the Second World War topic the period of living in Yugoslavia is briefly mentioned and followed by a larger chapter on Slovenian independency and Slovenia in EU. Source: http://www.zrss.si/default.asp?link=predmet&tip=6&pID=34&rID=411

[8] Official COMPASS website: http://www.eycb.coe.int/compass/

[9] Source: www.zrss.si/doc/OSO_drzavljanska_vzgoja_in_etika.doc

[10] Sources: http://www.cpi.si/visjesolski-studijski-programi. aspxhttp: //www.mss.gov.si/ si/delovna_podrocja/ visje_strokovno_izobrazevanje/programi_v_visjem_strok_izobrazevanju/

In general, it seems that Slovenian education system is trying to catch up with other European education programs, but it is still far from implementing diversity and multicultural principles as practised for instance in Canada or America. We might contend that this is due to the ethno cultural context of the Slovenian society itself, however, we suppose that with the economic change and migration flows; soon the need for a broader diversity policy will eventually prevail.

Ultimately, to implement multicultural education principles in Slovenia, we must have a broader scope and a long term vision; a multidisciplinary approach that combines social, cultural and organizational changes should be considered as well. We can propose some guiding principles, which seem to us indispensable in any attempt to develop multicultural education programs in Slovenia including:

- The need to benchmark adult multicultural education programs in other European countries;
- Establishing programs or dedicated books/periodicals to have professors and teachers well acquainted with multicultural and diversity principles and methodologies;
- The efforts (of ministry of education and concerned organizations) to uphold the work of NGO's and other partners that promote diversity and multiculturalism by preparing cooperative activities and seminars in universities and high schools in which students are asked to participate;
- Designing some curricular activities for high-school and university students that might include writing subjects or projects about multicultural and diversity issues, cognitive and social perspective should be essential to help students draw their own conclusions about learning new dialects/language, customs, religions, etc.;
- Reviewing and analyzing the performance of multicultural programs based on clear indicators (number of students and teachers participating in diversity programs, number of multicultural courses taught, the number of students passing them …) and having measures of correcting the lacks and pitfalls that may occur.

There are numerous models of multicultural programs and practices across the world; nonetheless, we might represent our framework of Slovenian multicultural education in the following figure:

Goal · Integration, equality, social justice

Structure/ Framework · Citizenship, membership, rights, responsibilities in a democratic society

An evolving process · Cultural pluralism, diversity

Cultural heritage/ Interaction

Slovenian culture · Shared values · Ethnic, minorities and immigrant culture

Human rights education
Citizenship preparation

Multicultural Education as an agent of change

Figure 1: The role of Slovenian Multicultural education
Source: Adapted from Elliston, 1996

Figure 1 proposes that within the Slovenian society, education should be regarded as an agent of change and its goal is to prepare individuals to gain equal access to the opportunity structure of the society. Citizenship roles, rights and responsibilities provide a useful framework as a starting point for understanding social organizations and their functioning, recognizing barriers to access and entitlement and the identification of attitudes, knowledge and skills required for their removal.

Conclusion

Education for effective citizenship is a significant goal of schooling. Preparing people for membership in a society increasingly diverse with respect to factors such as race and ethnicity, gender, faiths, social class, etc. underscores the need for this focus. It does, however open a whole area for reflection and decisions about content and outcomes, and about plans, programs and strategies to achieve desired outcomes.

The principles of multicultural education are all encompassing and therefore, unfortunately, cannot be implemented all at once over the course of a short

period, especially if the educators and officials are not aware of the disparities that the school system seems to perpetuate.

It is essential to understand that what is at issue in multicultural/diversity education is not just sensitivity to other cultures and racial/ethnic and socioeconomic groups that are marginal to the dominant culture, nor a transference of power, but an entire *paradigm shift*—a change in the integrated whole of our human perceptions, values, and actions. The essence of managing diversity concerns not only acknowledgement of the "Other", but more importantly, the diversity of thinking systems, from the value systems of which emerge the intolerance toward others. In that view, the role of the teachers in the education system is vital, they have to start thinking from both a critical standpoint and a multicultural perspective (Moss, 2001).

Slovenia's education strategy in its planning needs to restate its vision in the image of today's learner and of the society as a whole where the full range of diversity and identities is honoured and where the teaching of human rights principles and understanding of issues of social justice become the foundation of the curriculum in preparing students to be effective students nationally and globally.

Finally, the Slovenian society, although part of the European societies, has its special characteristics that we hope we might be able to study and to pinpoint their interactions/role with regard to how they affect diversity in schools and universities in a prospective research. In a broader outlook, we also believe that a comparative enquiry of multiculturalism in Slovenian educational system with other European countries (another interesting extension of our work) might bring about interesting findings concerning studies of multiculturalism in Europe as a whole.

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Uključivanje multikulturalizma u obrazovanje odraslih: slučaj Slovenije

Abstrakt: U popularnom diskursu u medijima i politici multikulturalizam je jedan od najčešće korišćenih i široko rasprostranjenih izraza. Zasnovan na ideji promocije različitosti, multikulturalizam je postao nesporna činjenica života u današnjem svetu (Glejzer, 1997). Međutim, uključivanje multikulturalizma je zaista izazov na različitim nivoima. U obrazovanju je bilo nastojanja da se promoviš jednakost i pravda. Pregledom shvatanja vodećih naučnika o multikulturalnom obrazovanju, autori nastoje da daju vodeće principe koji se upoređuju sa slovenačkim kontekstom, u cilju razvijanja okvira za sprovođenje multikulturalizma u obrazovanju odraslih u Sloveniji.

Ključne reči: multikulturalnost, kultura, obrazovanje, raznolikost, slovenija.

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Apstrakt: U promenljivim i konkurentskim društvenim i radnim uslovima profesionali-zam baziran na kompetencijama jedan je od suštinskih činilaca garancije kvaliteta i uspeš-nosti na poslu. Stoga, profesionalni razvoj u svim oblastima delatnosti ima snagu impera-tiva, a u nauci predstavlja istraživački izazov. Profesionalni razvoj i kompetentnost osnov-noškolskih i srednjoškolskih nastavnika permanentno je aktuelan istraživački problem, a istovremeno i preokupacija obrazovnih politika. Međutim, profesija univerzitetskog nastavnika, uprkos strukturalnoj složenosti ili višedimenzionalnosti, vrlo retko je bivala predmetom naučnih istraživanja, a u obrazovnoj politici su neke njene dimenzije mar-ginalizovane. U ovom radu predstavljeni su i interpretirani rezultati istraživanja odnosa prema nastavnim kompetencijama (u poređenju sa naučnim) univerzitetskih nastavnika, s ciljem sagledavanja značaja njihovog obrazovanja i usavršavanja za obavljanje nastav-ničke uloge, odnosno za postizanje kvaliteta nastave. Dobijeni nalazi mogu poslužiti kao osnova za rešavanje dileme – univerzitetski nastavnik i/ili naučnik, ali istovremeno mogu ukazati i na pravce poboljšanja i unapređivanja politike jednog segmenta visokoškolskog obrazovanja koji je direktno u funkciji kvaliteta univerzitetske nastave.

Ključne reči: nastavne kompetencije, kvalitet nastave, univerzitetski profesor, naučnik/istraživač, politika obrazovanja i usavršavanja univerzitetskih nastavnika.

Uvod

Kvalitet nastave na bilo kom nivou, pa i univerzitetske, zavisi od brojnih subjek-tivnih i objektivnih faktora, među kojima posebno mesto pripada kvalitetu rada

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nastavnika, odnosno njegovim kompetencijama. U okviru rasprave o profesiji zvanoj nastavnik predmetne nastave čini se razumnim postaviti pitanje – šta je njemu zapravo struka? Odnosno, da li je nastavnik profesija, ili možda zvanje koje mogu dobiti (steći) pripadnici nekih struka, ili nekih profesija. U teoriji i praksi obrazovanja, kao i u normativnoj regulativi, govori se o dve grupe kompetencija nastavnika, stručnim (znanje konkretnih nastavnih predmeta) i pedagoškim (pedagoško-psihološke i didaktičko-metodičke kompetencije). Međutim, nije jasno kako to da pedagoške ili nastavne kompetencije nisu stručne za struku ili pak profesiju koja se po njima i zove. Inspirativno za raspravu ove vrste može biti i pitanje – koja je to struka (ili profesija) čije se stručne kompetencije zovu nastavnim, ako nije nastavnička? Očigledno je reč o primeru kako problemi terminološke prirode proizvode još veće – suštinske, odnosno pojmovne probleme, ili su pak nesporazumi ove vrste posledica nedovoljno jasnog koncepcijskog pristupa nastavničkoj profesiji. Naravno, lakše rešiv problem je onaj terminološke prirode. Zar se sve kompetencije relevantne za jednu struku ne zovu stručnim (ili za profesiju – profesionalnim)? Ako je tako, strukturu stručnih kompetencija nastavnika činile bi predmetne kompetencije (znanje sadržaja konkretne discipline, odnosno predmeta) i nastavne kompetencije (oblasti nauka o obrazovanju).

S obzirom na to da je predmet naše istraživačke studije univerzitetski profesor, pokušaćemo da odgovorimo na pitanje – ko su zapravo univerzitetski/fakultetski nastavnici?[3] Da li pripadaju profesiji nastavnika, ili naučnika, ili obema? Ako je suditi po reči „facultas" (lat.), koja označava sposobnost, prirodnu sklonost i snagu, sigurno je reč o posebnom „soju" ljudi koji pripadaju tradicionalno jakoj profesiji. Stoga se oni i nazivaju univerzitetskim profesorima, jer se sa „profesor" oslovljavao (istorijski gledano) svako ko je ekspert u svom poslu. A šta je, zapravo, posao univerzitetskog profesora? On upravlja procesom nastave (svog predmeta) na fakultetu (kreira programe, planira i realizuje nastavu, vodi i usmerava procese učenja i poučavanja, podstiče i procenjuje postignuće studenata...), te ne bismo pogrešili ako bismo ga nazvali i univerzitetskim učiteljem, jer je izvorno značenje reči „professor" (lat.) upravo javni učitelj. Međutim, to je samo deo njegovog posla (po kojem je dobio ime), to je samo jedna strana „medalje" zvane profesija univerzitetski nastavnik. Druga strana, ili drugi deo njegovog posla, jeste naučno-istraživačka funkcija. Univerzitetski nastavnik ne samo da interpretira znanje u nastavnom procesu, već ga i stvara u istraživačkom procesu, što ga i razlikuje od nastavnika u nižim nivoima obrazovanja. Dakle, ovde je reč o dve funkcije, ili pak (pod)uloge univerzitetskih nastavnika, nastavnoj i naučno-istraživačkoj.

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[3] Iako se prema Zakonu o visokom obrazovanju pod nastavničkim zvanjima podrazumevaju zvanja docenta, vanrednog i redovnog profesora, našim istraživanjem obuhvaćeni su i asistenti kao budući nastavnici, a i neposredno su uključeni u realizaciju univerzitetske nastave.

Uspešnost svake od njih temelji se na relevantnim kompetencijama (znanjima, veštinama, stavovima, sposobnostima...). Očita je disproporcija između sistematskog i temeljitog pripremanja za ozbiljan naučno-istraživački rad, te minimalnog ili nikakvog za nastavnu funkciju. To implicira ključnim pitanjem – kakvo mesto (značaj) treba da imaju nastavne, a kakvo naučno-istraživačke kompetencije u obrazovanju i usavršavanju, odnosno profesionalnom razvoju univerzitetskih nastavnika. Komparativne analize ukazuju da u praksi postoje shvatanja da je dovoljno da nastavnik bude ekspert u svojoj disciplini i da je naučno unapređuje (naučna kompetentnost). Međutim, nisu retki slučajevi da dobri poznavaoci nauke nisu i dobri nastavnici. Nema racionalnog razloga da nastavnici u visokom obrazovanju svoju nastavničku ulogu obavljaju „intuitivno". Izgleda paradoksalno da nastavnicima u nižim nivoima obrazovanja „isporučujemo zahteve" za nastavnu kompetentnost, a univerzitetskim ne. Problem je, pored ostalog, i u tome što dobar deo „akademske javnosti" mnogo veću važnost pripisuje produkciji naučno-istraživačkih rezultata i njihovom publikovanju umesto unapređivanju kvaliteta rada sa studentima, a apele za didaktičkim usavršavanjem interpretira kao kršenje univerzitetske autonomije. (Marentič-Požarnik, 1990) Paradoksalno je i to da se na univerzitetima stvaraju i interpretiraju raznovrsni naučni rezultati, a da se istraživačka saznanja o vlastitom delovanju zanemaruju i ne koriste zarad kvaliteta nastave. (Savićević, 2009)

Iako je profesija univerzitetskog nastavnika strukturalno složena i višedimenzionalna (naučno-istraživačka, nastavna, društveno-javna... dimenzija), retko je bivala predmetom naučnih istraživanja. Još je ređe označavana prioritetom obrazovnih politika u pogledu sistemskog pristupa razvijanju nastavnih kompetencija u kontekstu profesionalnog razvoja univerzitetskih nastavnika, kao i u pogledu objektivnog pristupa procenjivanju nastavnih kompetencija u okviru normativnog regulisanja izborne procedure.

Istraživanje svojstava univerzitetskih nastavnika koje su sproveli B. Đorđević i J. Đorđević (1992) jedno je od retkih, ne samo u našim okvirima, već i šire, čiji su rezultati usmerili pažnju na mnoga relevantna svojstva od kojih zavisi uspešnost visokoškolske nastave, a koja bi valjalo (bilo neophodno) razvijati u procesu obrazovanja i usavršavanja univerzitetskih nastavnika. Rezultati ovog istraživanja izdvojili su kao poželjna svojstva u nastavi, pored stručnosti nastavnika – što se odnosi na predmetnu kompetentnost, i pored svojstava ličnosti nastavnika, komunikaciju sa studentima (26,46%) i pedagoške sposobnosti nastavnika (22,35%) (Isto, 111-112), što u stvari zajednički predstavlja nastavnu kompetentnost. Navedeni nalazi naučno potkrepljuju zalaganje za sistemsko rešavanje kontinuiranog razvijanja nastavnih kompetencija univerzitetskih nastavnika.

U uslovima brzog razvoja nauke, tehnologije i društva, u uslovima oma-sovljenja i demokratizacije visokog obrazovanja koji su obeležili poslednje dekade prošlog veka, promišljanja pa i zahtevi za efikasnijom i kvalitetnijom univerzitet-skom nastavom postajali su sve jači. U tom se kontekstu prepoznaje i naglašava značaj razvijanja nastavnih kompetencija, te tako usavršavanje univerzitetskih nastavnika dospeva u žižu interesovanja pojedinih fakulteta, naučnih skupova i projekata, ali ne i obrazovnih politika od kojih se očekuju sistemski pristupi problemima obrazovanja. Rezultati komparativnih istraživanja pokazali su da su se u većini evropskih zemalja u tom periodu razvijali brojni oblici didaktičkog usavršavanja univerzitetskih nastavnika bazirani na uvažavanju specifičnosti viso-koškolske nastave i njene bliske veze sa istraživačkim radom. Na jugoslovenskim univerzitetima takav razvoj nije bio sistematičan i kontinuiran iako je relativno rano započeo – šezdesetih godina prošlog veka. Zaostajalo se kako u praktičnoj realizaciji, tako i u teorijskoj konceptualizaciji i empirijskim istraživanjima. (Ma-rentič-Požarnik, 1990) Komparativna analiza koju je sprovela Marentič-Požarnik ukazala je ne samo na stanje didaktičkog usavršavanja univerzitetskih nastavnika u evropskim zemljama i na bivšim jugoslovenskim prostorima, već je apostrofira-la mogućnost institucionalizacije usavršavanja i potrebu međunarodne saradnje na tom polju, kako takve aktivnosti ne bi bile sporadične i povremene. Tako je zabeležen jedan trend nastajanja centara za stručno usavršavanje univerzitetskih nastavnika pri univerzitetima i fakultetima, pa čak i nacionalnih jedinica za razvoj i osposobljavanje univerzitetskih radnika kakav je nastao u Sheffieldu (USDTU – University Staff Development and Training Unit). Tome treba dodati nacio-nalnu mrežu svih nemačkih centara koji su ujedinili svoju obrazovnu „ponudu" za univerzitetske nastavnike kako bi oni sami mogli birati i kreirati module za svoje potrebe, a sve je bilo na dobrovoljnoj osnovi. Od naročite važnosti bila je međunarodna saradnja, delotvornost brojnih stručnih asocijacija, nevladinih or-ganizacija, a posebno Uneska koji je osamdesetih godina stvorio mrežu evropskih stručnjaka za usavršavanje univerzitetskih nastavnika, čiji su sastanci rezultirali brojnim preporukama, a za ovu priliku izdvajamo dve: 1. u akademske statute i zakone treba uvrstiti pedagoške kvalifikacije i sposobnost podučavanja kao krite-rijume za habilitaciju i unapređivanje, 2. usavršavanje univerzitetskih nastavnika u cilju poboljšanja kvaliteta ne samo istraživanja, nego i nastave treba da postane deo akademske politike u traženju izvrsnosti (search for excellence) u visokom obrazovanju (više u: Marentič-Požarnik, 1990).

Pored opisanih, analiziranih i upoređivanih iskustava u oblasti razvijanja nastavnih kompetencija univerzitetskih nastavnika, u literaturi nalazimo kla-sifikaciju i objašnjenje modela obučavanja za izvođenje univerzitetske nastave, naravno proisteklih iz primera dobre prakse – počev od modela uvodnog obuča-

vanja, preko praktikovanja (učenja na radnom mestu), radionica, sekvencijalnih kurseva, modela posredovane samokonfrontacije, modularnih kurseva, pa sve do redovnih kurseva koji omogućavaju sticanje stepena magistra u ovoj oblasti (više u: Main, 1985). Uz to, posebno se naglašavaju determinante ili ciljevi programa za usavršavanje nastavnika kao što su: poboljšanje oblikovanja kurseva i nastavnih umenja, izvršavanje administrativne uloge, razvijanje tehničkih veština, razumevanje sebe i svoje nastavničke uloge (više u: Good i Wilburn, 1985).

Vredno pažnje jeste jasno isticanje kvaliteta univerzitetskih nastavnika kao determinante kvaliteta visokog obrazovanja, što upućuje na potrebu kritičkog razmatranja postupka sticanja univerzitetskih zvanja. (Marković, 2004) Za to da predmet kritičke opservacije moraju biti kriterijumi za izbor nastavnika i saradnika, zalaže se i Savićević (Savićević, 2009), ukazujući na shvatanja, pa i na činjenicu da sposobnosti i veštine izvođenja nastave nisu sastavni deo tih kriterijuma, što rezultira zapostavljanjem andragoškog i psihološkog obrazovanja i usavršavanja univerzitetskih nastavnika. Uglavnom je takvo obrazovanje dobrovoljno i prepušteno inicijativi pojedinih fakulteta, a retki su oni koji „naručuju" programe didaktičkog osposobljavanja i usavršavanja za svoje nastavnike, asistente i saradnike.

Da se postepeno „otapa led" oko fenomena univerzitetskog nastavnika i da su teme iz tog konteksta postale napokon istraživački značajne, zanimljive i „dodirljive", ukazuju nešto novija istraživanja sprovedena u našoj akademskoj sredini. Istraživanje realizovano u okviru projekta „Didaktičko usavršavanje univerzitetskih saradnika" pružilo je obilje nalaza koji, iako se odnose samo na asistente pripravnike, predstavljaju neku vrstu „alarma" za obrazovne politike (posebno visokoškolsku), ali i uporišta za našu istraživačku ideju (šire u: Rančić, 1999; 2002; Nešić, 1999). Stoga je neke od istraživačkih rezultata neophodno i ovom prilikom naglasiti. Asistenti pripravnici su visoko ocenili potrebe za pedagoškim, didaktičkim, psihološkim i metodičkim obrazovanjem – uglavnom oko 4 na petostepenoj skali, dok su potrebu za andragoškim obrazovanjem procenili nešto niže – 3,30 (to bi mogla biti posledica nažalost još uvek dominantog mišljenja da u osnovi visokoškolske nastave stoje pedagoške, a ne andragoške teorije, što znači da se sa studentima postupa kao sa decom, a ne kao sa odraslima; podvukla Š. A.). Samo je trećina ispitanika dovoljno informisana o didaktičko-metodičkim i psihološkim problemima visokoškolske nastave, te je iskazivanje njihove potrebe za odgovarajućim udžbenikom koji bi tretirao te probleme bilo očekivano. Ispitanici su u visokom procentu ocenili da su seminari korisni, ali da ne mogu da zadovolje njihove obrazovne potrebe, a u skladu s tim ocenili su da je potrebna permanentnost i kontinuiranost u organizovanju seminara, te da je u programe postdiplomskih studija potrebno uneti sadržaje koji omogućavaju nastavnu kom-

petentnost. Zanimljivi su stavovi asistenata prema načinu i oblicima vrednovanja njihovih didaktičko-metodičkih znanja stečenih u procesu usavršavanja. Naime, oko petina ispitanika se izjasnila da je potrebno formalno proveravanje osposobljenosti za nastavnu ulogu, a za to da nikakvu proveru ne treba vršiti založila se gotovo petina, dok je većina bila za fleksibilniju (više neformalnu) proveru – putem razgovora (Nešić, 1999: 222-229; Rančić, 1999: 242).

Nakon ovog kratkog i delimičnog osvrta na istraživanja značaja i načina razvijanja jedne od dimenzija profesije univerzitetskog nastavnika – nastavne funkcije, stiče se utisak da istraživačka interesovanja za ovu oblast još uvek samo „tinjaju“. Takva interesovanja će se „rasplamsati“ onda kada se najšira društvena, a posebno akademska javnost bude ozbiljnije pozabavila kvalitetom univerzitetske nastave (kada se pitanje kvaliteta nastave postavi i „iznutra“ i „spolja“, a iznutra i „odozgo“ – od nastavnika, i „odozdo“ – od studenata). Tada će se javiti pitanja poput sledećih – da li kvalitet nastave počiva samo na jakim naučno-istraživačkim kompetencijama, da li su u integraciji kompetencija univerzitetskog nastavnika nastavne kompetencije ozbiljno zapostavljene, da li kvalitet nastave može obezbediti vrhunski istraživač u svojoj naučnoj oblasti a „priučen“ nastavnik, da li se sticanje i razvijanje nastavnih kompetencija može prepustiti stihiji i individualnim inicijativama, da li je univerzitetski nastavnik naučnik i/ili nastavnik itd. Odgovori bi mogli imati ulogu orijentira u politikama visokog obrazovanja, sa suštinskim i formalnim implikacijama na kvalitet nastave, na konceptualizaciju i organizaciju obrazovanja i usavršavanja univerzitetskih nastavnika, na objektivizaciju kriterijuma u postupku izbora nastavnika.

Značaj nastavnih kompetencija, načine njihovog sticanja i razvijanja – obrazovanje i usavršavanje univerzitetskih nastavnika, pokušali smo da sagledamo u prethodnom odeljku kroz prizmu nama dostupnih istraživačkih rezultata. Da se nastavne kompetencije vrednuju prilikom izbora u nastavnička zvanja (naravno, uz naučno-istraživačke kompetencije), pokazala je analiza normativne regulative za proceduru izbora. Prvi nivo definisanja uslova za izbor u akademsko zvanje nalazimo u zakonima o visokom obrazovanju. U Zakonu o visokom obrazovanju Republike Srbije (2005) članom 64. određuju se odgovarajući akademski, odnosno naučni naziv i sposobnost za nastavni rad kao opšti uslovi, a u članu 65. preciziraju se sledeći elementi koje treba ceniti prilikom izbora: naučni rad, rezultati pedagoškog rada, angažovanje u razvoju nastave, angažovanje na razvoju podmlatka, učešće u stručnim organima i drugim aktivnostima značajnim za razvoj naučne oblasti i visokoškolske ustanove. Drugi nivo definisanja uslova za izbor u nastavnička zvanja nalazimo u statutima univerziteta i fakulteta, a treći nivo u pravilnicima fakulteta, kojima se reguliše izborna procedura, gde se dodatno pojašnjavaju opšta statutarna pravila koja su najčešće u celosti preuzeta iz Zakona o

visokom obrazovanju. Međutim, analiza Statuta Beogradskog univerziteta (2006) rezultirala je zaključkom da nije definisan ni minimum objektivnih kriterijuma za vrednovanje nastavnih kompetencija, čak se i ne naslućuje „mera" za procenu osposobljenosti za nastavni rad, dok se u dokumentu ili pravilniku pod nazivom Kriterijumi za sticanje zvanja nastavnika na Univerzitetu u Beogradu (2008) pojašnjavaju statutarne odredbe i u tom kontekstu određuju objektivni kriterijumi za procenu naučnih kompetencija, ali ne i nastavnih, odnosno kompetencija za pedagoški rad, kako stoji u Zakonu.

Zanimljiv je i uvid u relevantna normativna akta svetskih univerziteta, koji ovom prilikom ilustrujemo na nekolicini primera. Grifit univerzitet (Griffith University, Australia, 2010) uslove za izbor nastavnika definiše u dva dokumenta, u *Polisi promocije akademskih radnika* i u *Kolektivnom ugovoru Unije akademskih radnika Grifit univerziteta*. Tri su ključne oblasti koje se procenjuju prilikom angažovanja i promovisanja nastavnika – nastava, istraživanje i rad u fakultetskim telima i komisijama. Za svaku oblast neophodno je pružiti dokaze. Procena nastavnih kompetencija vrši se na osnovu dokaza o participaciji u aktivnostima osposobljavanja za rad u nastavi i podučavanju, kao i na osnovu rezultata studentske evaluacije nastavnika. Stoga Grifit univerzitet ohrabruje, podržava i praktično omogućava usavršavanje nastavnika u cilju razvoja njihovih nastavnih kompetencija, unapređivanja njihovih karijera i zadovoljstva poslom, ali i u cilju podizanja kvaliteta nastave. Ponuda programa za razvijanje nastavnih kompetencija je veoma široka, izbor je u skladu sa potrebama nastavnika, ne pominje se obaveznost (ali se ipak pominje dokaz koji treba pružiti prilikom procene), a učešće je besplatno.

Prilikom izbora i promocije nastavnika na Nebraska univerzitetu (University of Nebraska, USA, 2010) procenjuju se (kao i u prethodnim slučajevima) nastavničke i istraživačke sposobnosti i aktivnosti u telima i komisijama (službama) fakulteta. Ne može se zaključiti (na osnovu dostupnog pravilnika) koji su kriterijumi procene nastavničkih sposobnosti, ali je evidentno da pri Univerzitetu postoji Centar za kontinuirano obrazovanje akademskih radnika koji nudi brojne programe. Pristup je uglavnom dobrovoljan, ali ima i obaveznih besplatnih programa.

Pravilnici za izbor u zvanja i procedure njihove primene na Univerzitetu u Ljubljani (Univerza v Ljubljani, 2010) jasno ukazuju da su kriterijumi procene svih kompetencija neophodnih univerzitetskom nastavniku precizno definisani. Naime, prilikom izbora procenjuju se naučne, pedagoške i strukovne delatnosti. Doprinos u svakoj od navedenih delatnosti je bodovan. Za svaku aktivnost koja se boduje neophodno je priložiti dokaz, što važi i za participaciju u programima razvijanja nastavnih kompetencija, ili uvođenja inovacija u nastavni proces i rad

sa studentima. U proceduri pribavljanja dokaza o nastavnom/pedagoškom doprinosu, kao i u procesu usavršavanja – sticanja i razvijanja nastavnih kompetencija, značajnu ulogu ima Centar Filozofskog fakulteta za pedagoško obrazovanje, koji nudi kurseve iz visokoškolske didaktike (više o Centru u: Gruden, 2009). Posebno vredna pažnje u kontekstu predmeta našeg istraživanja jeste činjenica da je prilikom vrednovanja odnos između naučne i pedagoške delatnosti 2:1 (ako se u kumulativnom zbiru za izbor u određeno zvanje traži 80 bodova, najmanje 40 se mora odnositi na naučnu delatnost, a najmanje 20 na pedagošku).

Dakle, osposobljenost za nastavni rad jeste jedan od uslova koji se vrednuje prilikom izbora univerzitetskih nastavnika, što je potvrđeno analizom statuta i pravilnika o izboru u zvanja. Na stranim univerzitetima vrednovanje nastavnih kompetencija je dosta objektivizirano, standardizovano, pa čak i kvantitativno izraženo putem bodovanja, dok kod nas ne postoje standardi za procenu osposobljenosti za nastavni rad, odnosno za procenu nastavne kompetentnosti, te je ostavljen prostor za potpunu subjektivnost, za razliku od ocene rezultata naučno-istraživačkog rada koja se vrlo objektivno iskazuje, naučnom produkcijom, ili još preciznije – koeficijentima naučne kompetentnosti. Možda je upravo to razlog veće posvećenosti nastavnika naučno-istraživačkom radu, jer je ta posvećenost očita i merljiva, te kao takva i provocira dilemu nastavnik i/ili naučnik.

Metodološki okvir istraživanja

Predmet istraživanja su nastavne kompetencije u strukturi kompetentnosti univerzitetskih nastavnika.

Cilj istraživanja

Ispitati odnos univerzitetskih nastavnika i eksperata (iz oblasti nauka o obrazovanju i nastavi) prema nastavnim kompetencijama (u poređenju sa naučno-istraživačkim) – prema njihovom značaju, vrednovanju, sticanju i razvijanju.

Varijable istraživanja

• Značaj nastavnih kompetencija (u odnosu na naučno-istraživačke) sagledan je preko procene (nastavnika i eksperata) doprinosa nastavnih kompetencija kvalitetu nastave i preko procene vrednovanja kompetencija prilikom izbora u nastavnička zvanja.

- Odnos prema načinima sistemskog rešavanja sticanja i razvijanja nastavnih kompetencija sagledan je preko mišljenja o: formalizaciji (obaveznosti/dobrovoljnosti) učešća u oblicima i programima usavršavanja, o potrebi i vrsti institucionalno-organizacionog modela permanentnog razvijanja nastavnih kompetencija, o potrebi za nastavničkim kursom ili modulom u okviru doktorskih studija za doktorande koji rade ili imaju nameru da rade u visokoškolskoj nastavi.
- Naučno-iskustveni profil nastavnika (zvanje, naučna oblast, nastavničko iskustvo).

Zadaci istraživanja su:

1. Ispitati značaj nastavnih kompetencija u odnosu na naučno-istraživačke kompetencije
    1.1. za kvalitet nastave
    1.2. za izbor u zvanje
2. Ispitati odnos prema načinima sistemskog rešavanja sticanja i razvijanja nastavnih kompetencija
    2.1. prema formalizaciji učešća u oblicima i programima usavršavanja
    2.2. prema institucionalno-organizacionim modelima sticanja i razvijanja nastavnih kompetencija
    2.3. prema potrebi za nastavničkim kursom ili modulom u okviru doktorskih studija u svim naučnim oblastima
3. U svetlu naučno-iskustvenog profila nastavnika sagledati
    3.1. njihov odnos prema značaju nastavnih kompetencija
    3.2. njihov odnos prema načinima sistemskog rešavanja sticanja i razvijanja nastavnih kompetencija.

Uzorak

Priroda predmeta istraživanja usmerila je izbor na dve grupe ispitanika. Stoga je istraživanje obavljeno na uzorku od 112 nastavnika i asistenata/saradnika beogradskih univerziteta i na grupi/uzorku od 10 eksperata iz oblasti nauka o obrazovanju i nastavi (pedagogije, andragogije, psihologije, didaktike i metodike). S obzirom na pravila uzorkovanja, moglo bi se reći da naši uzorci imaju karakteristike prigodnog i namernog uzorka.

Metode, tehnike i instrumenti

U okviru empirijskog neeksperimentalnog istraživačkog pristupa korišćena je deskriptivna istraživačka metoda (survey-research) koja podrazumeva aktivno uključivanje ispitanika u davanje informacija o sebi, odnosno o pojavama koje su predmet proučavanja. Primena tzv. ekspertske metode omogućila je sagledavanje ekspertskih mišljenja o brojnim aspektima proučavanog problema. U fazi prikupljanja podataka korišćene su tehnike anketiranja i skaliranja, upitnici i skale procene za nastavnike i za eksperte, a u fazi obrade podataka primenjeni su postupci kvantitativne i kvalitativne analize. Konsenzualna sadržajna validnost instrumenata ustanovljena je Delfi metodom.

Statistička obrada podataka

Za statističku analizu korišćen je paket SPSS. Sprovedene su procedure uobičajene za nominalne varijable, procedure nalaženja frekvencija i procenata, aritmetičkih sredina i standardnih devijacija, koeficijenti korelacije i hi kvadrat test.

Rezultati i diskusija

Značaj nastavnih kompetencija u odnosu na naučno-istraživačke

a) *Procena doprinosa nastavničkog iskustva, nastavnih i naučnih kompetencija kvalitetu nastave*

Iako je kvalitet univerzitetske nastave determinisan brojnim činiocima, sprovedenim istraživanjem tragalo se za odgovorom na pitanje kako ispitanici (nastavnici i eksperti) procenjuju (rangiranjem) značaj tri ponuđena činioca (nastavničkog iskustva, nastavne kompetentnosti i naučne kompetentnosti, s mogućnošću da dodaju i četvrti) za obavljanje uloge univerzitetskog nastavnika. Pored ponuđena tri činioca od kojih u svakom slučaju može zavisiti kvalitet univerzitetske nastave, odnosno uspešnost nastavničke uloge (jer se aktuelnim normativnim aktima uzimaju u obzir prilikom (re)izbora u nastavnička zvanja), ispitanici su naveli još nekolicinu drugih, ne rangirajući ih, kao što su: posvećenost poslu, talenat, ljubav prema poučavanju mladih i karakteristike ličnosti nastavnika. Eksperti su posebno istakli značaj međunarodnog nastavničkog iskustva (u kontekstu činioca – iskustvo u univerzitetskoj nastavi), zatim komunikacijske veštine i sposobnosti stvaranja socio-emocionalne klime. Međutim, svi bi se dodati činioci mogli smatrati sastavnim delovima nastavne kompetentnosti ako pod

njom podrazumevamo „paket" znanja, veština, sposobnosti, stavova, pa i osobina ličnosti značajnih za uspešno obavljanje uloge univerzitetskog nastavnika.

Podaci u tabeli br. 1 ilustruju odnos ispitanika prema značaju ponuđenih činilaca za obavljanje nastavničke uloge. Naime, na osnovu dobijenih nalaza sačinjeno je 6 mogućih modela rangiranja značaja tri ponuđena činioca u odnosu na to koji je od njih na prvom, drugom ili trećem mestu. U tabeli br. 1 značajno su se izdvojili modeli 5 i 6 u obe grupe ispitanika. Model 6 – naučne kompetencije na prvom, nastavne na drugom, a iskustvo na trećem mestu, preferirao je najveći broj nastavnika (49,1%), ali se zavidan broj njih opredelio i za model 5 – gde su nastavne kompetencije na prvom mestu (36,6%). Razlika između ova dva modela nije zanemarljiva, ali je ona ublažena izborom modela 3 – u okviru kojeg su nastavne kompetencije na prvom mestu, a nastavničko iskustvo na drugom, i modela 1 – gde je iskustvo na prvom mestu (a činilac iskustva je i uvršten u ponuđenu trijadu jer pojačava značaj nastavnih kompetencija koje se usavršavaju kroz iskustvo), te se može zaključiti da univerzitetski nastavnici visoko vrednuju značaj nastavnih kompetencija za obavljanje svoje uloge, iako naučnim kompetencijama daju blagi primat. Za razliku od njih, eksperti primat daju nastavnim kompetencijama, što je i bilo za očekivati (5 eksperata se opredelilo za model 5, a 3 za model 6). Zanimljivo je da se dva eksperta nisu mogla odlučiti za model ranga smatrajući da su tri ponuđena činioca toliko združena da ne postoje čak niti nijanse koje bi presudile rang.

Tabela br. 1: Rangiranje činilaca prema značaju za kvalitet nastave

Model ranga	Nastavnici		Eksperti
	f	%	f
1 (iskustvo, nastavne, naučne)	2	1,8	0
2 (iskustvo, naučne, nastavne)	1	0,9	0
3 (nastavne, iskustvo, naučne)	8	7,1	0
4 (naučne, iskustvo, nastavne)	5	4,5	0
5 (nastavne, naučne, iskustvo)	41	**36,6**	**5**
6 (naučne, nastavne, iskustvo)	55	**49,1**	**3**

b) *Procena vrednovanja nastavnih i naučnih kompetencija prilikom izbora u nastavnička zvanja*

Normativnim aktima je uređena procedura (re)izbora u nastavnička zvanja u okviru koje se vrednuju (kvantitativno i kvalitativno) naučne i nastavne kompetencije. Zanimalo nas je kako nastavnici i eksperti vide značaj naučnih i nastavnih kompetencija za izbor u zvanja. Ispitanici su procenjivali kojem se doprinosu daje

veći značaj, odnosno koliko procentualno (od 100%) u ukupnoj proceni „*sada*" pripada i „trebalo bi" da pripada (prema njihovom mišljenju) naučnom, a koliko nastavnom doprinosu, odnosno kompetencijama. Dobijeni nalazi grupisani su u devet modela procentualnih odnosa i predstavljeni u tabeli br. 2.

Raspored nalaza u tabeli omogućava interpretaciju iz različitih uglova. Kada sagledavamo odnose između „sada" i „treba" u okvirima nastavničkih procena, zaključujemo da je najveći broj, oko 85%, prva dva modela procenio kao aktuelne „sada vladajuće modele", dok oko 60% njih procenjuje peti i šesti model kao modele koje bi trebalo uvažavati prilikom (re)izbora, s tim što je šesti model (50:50 je odnos naučnih i nastavnih kompetencija) naglašeniji. Čak je 8,1% nastavnika procenilo da odnos nastavnih i naučnih kompetencija treba da bude u korist nastavnih (poslednja tri modela u tabeli). Nalazi jesu iznenađujući u odnosu na očekivanje da se većina opredeljuje za univerzitetsku karijeru da bi se bavila naučno-istraživačkim radom. U isto vreme, nalazi su vrlo optimistični u pogledu brige za kvalitet univerzitetske nastave. Ekspertska procena istraživanog odnosa (u obe kolone – *sada* i *treba*) vrlo je bliska nastavničkoj. Takođe su sadašnji odnosi prilikom izbora ilustrovani prvim i drugim modelom, što pojačava uverenje da takav odnos (100:0 i 90:10 u korist naučnih kompetencija) treba menjati. Pravac promene je isti u obe grupe ispitanika – pojačati značaj nastavnih kompetencija (modeli 5 i 6). Međutim, iznenađujuće je da radikalnije pojačanje traže nastavnici (model 6). Ravnopravno tretiranje dve grupe kompetencija (50:50), za koje se izjasnio najveći broj nastavnika, može biti posledica same definicije univerziteta kao naučno-nastavne institucije, što su ispitanici prilikom procene mogli imati na umu. Najveći broj eksperata, njih 6, procenili su da bi 60% u ukupnoj proceni prilikom (re)izbora nastavnika trebalo da pripada naučnim, a 40% nastavnim kompetencijama (model 5). Tumačenje ovog nalaza moguće je zasnovati na pretpostavci o ekspertskom viđenju odnosa fundamentalnog (stvaranje znanja, razvijanje naučne discipline kao izvorišta nastavnog predmeta) i primenjenog (tumačenje, ili „prenošenje" znanja). Čini se da je bilo i logično, u ovom kontekstu, staviti akcenat na fundamentalno.

Tabela br. 2: Procena vrednovanja kompetencija prilikom (re)izbora

Kompetencije		Nastavnici				Eksperti	
		sada		*treba*		*sada*	*treba*
Model (naučne : nastavne)		f	%	f	%	f	f
	%						
1	(100 : 0)	51	**45,5**	1	0,9	5	-
2	(90 : 10)	44	**39,3**	15	13,4	2	-
3	(80 : 20)	9	8,0	9	8,0	2	1
4	(70 : 30)	5	4,5	11	9,8	1	-
5	(60 : 40)	-	-	30	**26,8**	-	6
6	(50 : 50)	3	2,7	37	**33,0**	-	3
7	(40 : 60)	-	-	6	5,4	-	-
8	(30 : 70)	-	-	2	1,8	-	-
9	(20 : 80)	-	-	1	0,9	-	-

Razlika između „sada" i „treba" u najvećem broju slučajeva je višenivovska (tabela br. 3). Naime, samo su dva nastavnika procenila da odnos koji bi trebalo uvažavati treba da bude za jedan nivo niži od sada praktikovanog (razlika -1), isti broj ispitanika (12 ili 10,7%) ne pravi razliku, i pravi je za jedan nivo više od praktikovanog, dok je razlika od više nivoa zabeležena kod najvećeg broja nastavnika i 9 eksperata. 29,5% nastavnika smatra da bi razlika između „sada" i „treba" trebalo da bude čak 4 nivoa, dok razliku od 3 i 5 nivoa, pravi jednak broj nastavnika (16,1%), naravno u smeru s pozitivnim predznakom. Nalazi predstavljeni u tabeli br. 3 imaju snagu argumenta u procesu objašnjavanja i dokazivanja da je vrednovanje nastavnih kompetencija prilikom (re)izbora *veoma* zapostavljeno.

Tabela br. 3: Razlike u proceni između „sada" i „treba"

Nivo razlike:	-1	0	1	2	3	**4**	5	6	7
					RAZLIKA				
f	2	12	12	13	18	**33**	18	3	1
%	1,8	10,7	10,7	11,6	16,1	**29,5**	16,1	2,7	0,9

Odnos prema načinima sistemskog rešavanja sticanja i razvijanja nastavnih   kompetencija

Pod načinima sistemskog rešavanja sticanja i razvijanja nastavnih kompetencija podrazumevali smo: formalizaciju učešća u oblicima i programima usavršavanja u smislu dobrovoljnosti ili obaveznosti, institucionalizaciju i organizaciju modela usavršavanja, te uvođenje nastavničkog kursa ili modula kao izborne opcije u okvir doktorskih studija koji bi bio obavezan za sve doktorande koji rade u univerzitetskoj nastavi.

a) *Odnos prema formalizaciji učešća u oblicima i programima usavršavanja*

Nešto više od jedne četvrtine ispitivanih nastavnika (26,8%) izjasnilo se za opciju „dobrovoljno za sve", dok su najbrojniji oni (a ima ih 50) koji misle da bi usavršavanje trebalo da bude obavezno za sve (tabela br. 4). Ekspertsko mišljenje pledira za obaveznost koja bi se odnosila na asistente i docente kako bi se adekvatno pripremili za upravljanje nastavnim procesom. Objašnjenje neusaglašenosti mišljenja nastavnika i eksperata možda je moguće potražiti u očekivanju eksperata da početna obavezna priprema obezbeđuje kasniju „dobrovoljnost" razvijajući pozitivne stavove prema kontinuiranom usavršavanju. Dobijeni nalazi mogu usmeriti traganje za adekvatnim sistemskim rešenjima razvijanja nastavnih kompetencija.

Tabela br. 4: Odnos prema obaveznosti/dobrovoljnosti usavršavanja univerzitetskih nastavnika

Obaveznost/dobrovoljnost usavršavanja								
Obavezno	(samo za asistente)		(za asistente i doce°nte)		(za sve)		(dobrovoljno za sve)	
	N	E	N	E	N	E	N	E
f	7	-	25	**6**	**50**	3	**30**	1
%	6,3		22,3		44,6		26,8	

Legenda: N = nastavnik; E = ekspert

b) *Odnos prema institucionalizaciji i organizaciji usavršavanja*

Pošli smo od pretpostavke da institucionalizacija usavršavanja predstavlja jedan od činilaca sistemskog rešavanja sticanja i razvijanja nastavnih kompetencija, te je bilo opravdano sagledati šta nastavnici i eksperti misle o tome. Nalazi ispitivanja mišljenja o potrebi i modelu usavršavanja predstavljeni su u tabeli br. 5. U tabeli je posebno uočljivo da ekspertsko mišljenje u celini (svih 10 eksperata) podržava *Centar za razvijanje nastavničkih kompetencija* organizovan pri univerzitetu ili pak pri nekom od fakulteta, a namenjen je nastavnicima čitavog univerziteta kao optimalan institucionalno-organizacioni model permanentnog razvijanja i usavršavanja univerzitetskih nastavnika. Zanimljivo je da i nastavnici u najvećem broju (59,8%) takođe biraju Centar pri univerzitetu kao optimalno institucionalno rešenje. Upravo navedena usaglašenost mišljenja eksperata i nastavnika, zatim podatak da samo jedna petina nastavnika misli da nikakva institucionalna forma nije potrebna, kao i primeri dobre prakse svetski poznatih univerziteta u okviru kojih slični centri imaju ključnu ulogu u razvijanju nastavnih kompetencija (na šta smo ukazali u uvodnom delu rada), mogu biti relevantna empirijska podrška donošenju odluka u domenu politike visokoškolskog obrazovanja, a posebno politike usavršavanja univerzitetskih nastavnika.

Tabela br. 5: Mišljenja o modelu usavršavanja

Institucionalno-organizacioni model usavršavanja									
MODEL:	Centar pri univerzitetu		Odsek na fakultetu		Profesionalna asocijacija		Agencija van univerziteta		Ništa nije potrebno	
	N	E	N	E	N	E	N	E	N	E
f	67	**10**	16	-	2	-	4	-	23	-
%	59,8		14,3		1,8		3,6		20,5	

c) *Odnos prema potrebi za nastavničkim kursom ili modulom u okviru doktorskih studija*

U promišljanju i traganju za načinima sistemskog rešavanja sticanja i razvijanja nastavnih kompetencija uključili smo i „testiranje" mišljenja ispitanika o potrebi uvođenja nastavničkog kursa ili modula kao izborne opcije u okviru doktorskih studija svih naučnih oblasti, a koji bi bio obavezan za sve one doktorande koji rade ili će raditi u visokoškolskoj nastavi. Takav modul bi predstavljao svojevrsnu „ulaznicu" u nastavni proces i formalizaciju obaveznosti pripremanja za nastavničke uloge. Rezultati prezentovani u tabeli br. 6 pokazuju nedvosmislenu podršku obe grupe ispitanika nastavničkom kursu ili modulu namenjenom doktorandima. Da je takav kurs potreban izjasnilo se 74,1% nastavnika, kao i svi

eksperti. Podršku pripremanju za ulogu univerzitetskog nastavnika u okviru postdiplomskih studija dali su ispitanici i u ranije sprovedenom istraživanju. (Nešić, 1999) U ovom kontekstu može se postaviti pitanje da li bi takav modul ili kurs bio u ponudi univerziteta ili svakog fakulteta ponaosob, ali je neupitno da eksperti iz oblasti nauka o obrazovanju učestvuju u dizajniranju i realizaciji programa.

Tabela br. 6: Odnos prema potrebi za nastavničkim kursom ili modulom

Nastavnički kurs ili modul na doktorskim studijama				
Potreban:	DA		NE	
	N	E	N	E
f	**83**	**10**	29	-
%	**74,1**	-	25,9	-

Odnos univerzitetskih nastavnika prema nastavnim kompetencijama sagledan kroz prizmu njihovog naučno-iskustvenog profila

Naš treći istraživački zadatak bio je traganje za odgovorom na pitanje da li su ispitivani odnosi prema nastavnim kompetencijama povezani sa indikatorima naučno-iskustvenog profila nastavnika.

a) *Povezanost naučno-iskustvenog profila nastavnika i njihovog odnosa prema značaju nastavnih kompetencija*

Rezultati ispitivanja i utvrđivanja povezanosti indikatora naučno-iskustvenog profila nastavnika (nastavničko zvanje, naučna oblast, nastavničko iskustvo), s jedne strane, i indikatora odnosa prema značaju nastavnih kompetencija (model ranga kompetencija (ili činilaca) značajnih za kvalitet nastave, model vrednovanja kompetencija pri izboru u zvanje u varijanti *treba*, razlika između modela *sada* i *treba*), s druge strane, predstavljeni su u tabeli br. 7. Statistički značajna povezanost, na nivou 0,01, nađena je u četiri slučaja.

Da su dva indikatora – *nastavničko iskustvo i model ranga kompetencija*, povezani, pokazuje dosta visok koeficijent korelacije (c = 0,51), a da nađena povezanost nije slučajna potvrđuje vrednost hi kvadrata (40,19) značajna na nivou 0,01. Raspored podataka u tabeli kontingencije[4] ukazuje da su nađenu povezanost ili pak razlike među grupama „proizveli asistenti". Naime, najveći broj asistenata (86,4%) opredelio se za model ranga broj 6 (na prvom mestu su naučne kompetencije), dok se 13,5% njih opredelilo za model 5 (nastavne kompetencije na prvom mestu). Docenti su u najvećem broju (50%) birali model 5, a u gru-

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[4] Tabele kontingencije ne predstavljamo u radu zbog ograničenosti prostora predviđenog propozicijama časopisa.

pama vanrednih i redovnih profesora uglavnom su se podjednako odlučivali za modele 5 i 6. Iz drugog ugla gledano, tabela kontingencije je pružila informaciju da su u ukupnom broju onih koji su se opredelili za model 5 najbrojniji docenti (46,3%), dok su u ukupnom broju onih koji su „glasali" za model 6 najbrojniji asistenti (34,5%). Dakle, asistenti su skloni da više vrednuju naučne kompetencije, što je očekivano jer oni nisu još iskusili težinu i složenost nastavničke uloge, a i opredeljuju se za univerzitetsku karijeru uglavnom sa naučnim ambicijama. Objašnjenje nalaza da docenti više vrednuju nastavne kompetencije možda bismo mogli potražiti u njihovom „suočavanju" sa svim izazovima nastavničke profesije te zaključku da se odgovori na te izazove temelje na nastavnim kompetencijama.

Povezanost *nastavničkog zvanja i modela vrednovanja kompetencija pri izboru – varijanta treba* statistički je značajna, na šta ukazuje visok c = 0,62 i vrednost hi kvadrata (71,71) značajna na nivou 0,01. Podaci u tabeli kontingencije saglasni su sa onima koji potkrepljuju raniji zaključak da asistenti više vrednuju naučne kompetencije, a docenti nastavne, te stoga i u ovom slučaju najveći broj asistenata (59,1%) navodi da pri izboru u zvanje treba uvažavati model 2 (90:10) te tako minimalno vrednovati nastavne kompetencije, dok docenti plediraju za model 3 (80:20), pa čak i 6 (50:50).

Razlika varijanti sada i treba značajno je statistički povezana sa dva indikatora profila – *nastavničkim zvanjem i nastavničkim iskustvom.* Podaci iz tabela kontingencije pružaju podršku zaključku da ispitanici nižeg zvanja (asistenti), koji su uglavnom iskustveno najmlađi, ne prave razliku između *sada* i *treba* (40,9%) ili je prave samo za jedan nivo (27,3%). Manje iskusni ne vide potrebu promene odnosa u vrednovanju naučnih i nastavnih kompetencija prilikom izbora, a u pravcu većeg vrednovanja nastavnih. S druge pak strane, ispitanici iz najiskusnije grupe (preko 30 god. nastavničkog iskustva) ukazuju na potrebu višenivovske razlike između *sada* i *treba*, i u najvećem broju pomeraju taj odnos za četiri nivoa, ukazujući time na neophodnost ravnopravnijeg tretmana nastavnih kompetencija (u odnosu na naučne) prilikom (re)izbora u zvanja.

Tabela br. 7: Povezanost indikatora naučno-iskustvenog profila i indikatora odnosa prema značaju nastavnih kompetencija

Indikatori profila:	nastavničko zvanje			naučna oblast			nastavničko iskustvo		
Indiktori odnosa	x^2	c	nz	x^2	c	nz	x^2	c	nz
Model ranga kompetencija	40,19	0,51	**000**	13,08	0,32	0,22	18,92	0,38	0,21
Model vrednovanja pri izboru – *sada*	19,59	0,38	0,07	19,58	0,38	0,012	11,16	0,30	0,51
Model vrednovanja pri izboru – *treba*	71,71	0,62	**000**	17,33	3,66	0,36	36,65	0,49	0,04
Razlika *sada i treba*	55,60	0,57	**000**	8,30	0,26	0,93	41,21	0,52	**000**

Legenda: x^2 = hi kvadrat;   c = koeficijent kontingencije;   nz = nivo značajnosti

b) *Povezanost naučno-iskustvenog profila nastavnika i njihovog odnosa prema načinima sistemskog rešavanja sticanja i razvijanja nastavnih kompetencija*

Naša istraživačka studija imala je pretenzije da pruži odgovor i na pitanje da li se grupe ispitanika različitog naučno-iskustvenog profila međusobno razlikuju u pogledu odnosa prema načinima sistemskog rešavanja sticanja i razvijanja nastavnih kompetencija. Statistički pokazatelji povezanosti indikatora profila (nastavničko zvanje, naučna oblast, nastavničko iskustvo) i indikatora odnosa prema načinima sistemskog rešavanja razvijanja nastavnih kompetencija (obaveznost usavršavanja, model usavršavanja, doktorski modul) predstavljeni su u tabeli br. 8, iz koje se vidi da je statistički značajna povezanost nađena u tri slučaja.

Obaveznost usavršavanja (mišljenje nastavnika o formalizaciji obaveznosti ili dobrovoljnosti) povezana je sa jednim indikatorom naučno-iskustvenog profila – sa *nastavničkim iskustvom*, a povezanost je statistički verifikovana koeficijentom povezanosti osrednjeg intenziteta (0,44) i vrednošću hi kvadrata (28,05) značajnom na nivou 0,01. Tabela kontingencije omogućila je sagledavanje rasporeda podataka. Iskustveno najmlađi ispitanici uglavnom su birali opciju dobrovoljno za sve, a iskustveno najstarija grupa u najvećem broju se opredeljivala za opciju obavezno za sve. Drugim rečima, u opciji dobrovoljnosti dominiraju mlađi ispitanici i s godinama iskustva ta opcija se napušta. Zašto iskustveno starije grupe ispitanika plediraju za obaveznost usavršavanja? Verovatno zato što su poučeni sopstvenim iskustvom, a pouke zasnovane na iskustvu svakako su vredne respekta.

Da se grupe ispitanika različitog *nastavničkog zvanja* značajno razlikuju u pogledu opredeljenja za *institucionalni model usavršavanja* pokazuje vrednost hi kvadrata (36,98) značajna na nivou 0,01, kao i visina koeficijenta kontingencije (0,49). Kontingencijska tabela je pružila podatke koji sugerišu zaključak da se jedna grupa izdvojila – grupa asistenata, „glasajući" u najvećem broju za opciju

koja ne podržava nijednu institucionalnu formu. Grupe docenata i vanrednih profesora su vrlo bliske u podržavanju univerzitetskog centra kao institucionalnog modela usavršavanja, dok je najveći broj redovnih profesora „glasao" baš za univerzitetski centar kao najadekvatniji model. Objašnjenju nađene razlike mogu doprineti prethodni nalazi koji su pokazali da asistenti manje vrednuju nastavne kompetencije te da se uglavnom opredeljuju za opciju dobrovoljnosti usavršavanja, dok redovni profesori imaju potpuno suprotnu orijentaciju u ponuđenim izborima – više vrednuju nastavne kompetencije i opredeljuju se za opciju obaveznosti usavršavanja za sve nastavnike.

Treća statistički značajna povezanost (blagog intenziteta, c = 0,38) utvrđena je između doktorskog modula i naučne oblasti. Drugim rečima, grupe ispitanika koji se bave različitim naučnim oblastima značajno se razlikuju u pogledu odnosa prema uvođenju nastavničkog modula ili kursa na nivou doktorskih studija koji bi bio obavezan za doktorande – potencijalne ili aktuelne saradnike u univerzitetskoj nastavi. Unutar grupa nastavnika društvenih i prirodnih nauka najveći broj se izjasnio da bi takav modul trebalo organizovati (po 87,5% u svakoj od ovih grupa), dok su nastavnici tehničkih nauka po tom pitanju ravnomerno podeljeni (50% za, 50% protiv). Iz drugog ugla gledano, među ispitanicima koji su za takav modul najviše je onih iz društvenih nauka (50,6%), a među onima koji su protiv najviše je nastavnika tehničkih nauka (69,0%). Statistički verifikovanu razliku ovom prilikom moguće je objasniti samo u hipotetičkoj ravni. Naime, možda nastavnici tehničkih nauka nisu mogli da sagledaju poziciju, opravdanost i izvodljivost takvog modula u strukturi njihovih doktorskih studija, pre svega zbog naučnih oblasti iz kojih bi modul vodio poreklo, a koje ne pripadaju tehničkim naukama.

Tabela br. 8: Povezanost indikatora naučno-iskustvenog profila i indikatora odnosa prema načinima sistemskog rešavanja sticanja i razvijanja nastavnih kompetencija

Indikatori profila:	nastavničko zvanje			naučna oblast			nastavničko iskustvo		
Indikatori odnosa:	x^2	c	nz	x^2	c	nz	x^2	c	nz
Obaveznost usavršavanja	20,25	0016	0,39	11,93	0,31	0,06	28,05	0,44	**000**
Model usavršavanja	36,98	0,49	**000**	16,57	0,31	0,03	22,79	0,41	002
Doktorski modul	1,66	0,12	0,64	18,84	0,38	**000**	3,26	0,17	0,3

Zaključak

Istraživanje mesta i značaja nastavnih kompetencija u strukturi kompetentnosti univerzitetskih nastavnika pružilo je obilje empirijskih nalaza na kojima je moguće zasnovati brojne zaključke i preporuke.

Realizacija prvog istraživačkog zadatka omogućila je izvođenje dva relevantna zaključka: univerzitetski nastavnici visoko vrednuju značaj nastavnih kompetencija za obavljanje njihove uloge, iako naučnim kompetencijama daju blagi primat; nastavnici i eksperti su procenili da je vrednovanje nastavnih kompetencija prilikom (re)izbora veoma zapostavljeno.

U okviru realizacije drugog zadatka istraživanja pribavljeni su empirijski nalazi za sledeće zaključke: preovlađuje mišljenje kako nastavnika, tako i eksperata, da usavršavanje nastavnika, odnosno sticanje i razvijanje nastavnih kompetencija treba da ima neku formu obaveznosti, bilo za sve, ili samo za asistente i docente; kao optimalan institucionalno-organizacioni model permanentnog razvijanja i usavršavanja univerzitetskih nastavnika većinski je podržan Centar za razvijanje nastavničkih kompetencija organizovan pri univerzitetu ili pak pri nekom od fakulteta, a namenjen nastavnicima čitavog univerziteta; nastavnici i eksperti su dali nedvosmislenu podršku kursu ili modulu na doktorskim studijama namenjenom nastavnički opredeljenim doktorandima.

Iz konteksta ispitivanja povezanosti istraživačkih varijabli (što je bio treći zadatak istraživanja) izdvojili su se rezultati koji ukazuju na nekolicinu umerenih i jačih veza kao npr. da asistenti i iskustveno mlađi nastavnici više vrednuju naučne kompetencije od nastavnih, za razliku od viših zvanja i iskustveno starijih nastavnika; u izboru opcije dobrovoljnosti usavršavanja dominiraju iskustveno mlađi ispitanici, a s godinama iskustva se napušta ta opcija u korist obaveznosti; institucionalizaciji usavršavanja veću podršku daju redovni profesori.

Na osnovu ovom prilikom analiziranih brojnih nalaza teorijsko-komparativnog i empirijskog istraživanja problema kompetencija univerzitetskih nastavnika, čini se da je moguće rešiti dilemu postavljenu u naslovu ovog rada. Uvažavajući viđenja eksperata i najvećeg broja nastavnika, *univerzitetski profesor jeste i naučnik i nastavnik*, ali se stiče utisak da je „nastavnik" u drugom planu zbog neadekvatnog vrednovanja nastavnih kompetencija (u odnosu na naučne) u okviru izbornog postupka.

Rezultati ovog istraživanja bi mogli imati ulogu orijentira u politikama visokog obrazovanja, sa suštinskim i formalnim implikacijama na kvalitet nastave, na konceptualizaciju i organizaciju obrazovanja i usavršavanja univerzitetskih nastavnika, na objektivizaciju kriterijuma u postupku (re)izbora nastavnika.

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Abstract: Professionalism based on the competencies is one of the essential factors of quality assurance and performance at work, especially in the changing and competing social and working conditions. Therefore professional development in all areas is an imperative, as well as a must in the scientific research. Educational policy and the researches have been always focused on the professional development and competencies of elementary and secondary school teachers. However, university teachers, despite the structural complexity or multidimensionality of their profession, were very rarely the subject of scientific research, and somewhat neglected in the educational policy. This paper presents and interprets the results of research on the attitude towards the teaching competencies of university teachers, in order to assess the importance of their education and training for the teaching role (comparing to the scientific one). The results can serve as a basis for resolving the dilemma: the university teacher and/or scientist. It may also suggest how to improve and promote higher education policy related to the quality of university teaching.

Key words: teaching competences, quality of teaching, university professor, scientist / researcher, policy of education and training of university teachers.

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Međuzavisnost u zapošljavanju različitih grupa zanimanja i stepena stručne spreme[2]

Apstrakt: Osnovni cilj istraživanja čiji su rezultati prezentovani u ovom radu jeste identifikovanje međuzavisnosti u zapošljavanju različitih grupa zanimanja i stepena stručne spreme kako bi se utvrdili ključni generatori i organizatori zapošljavanja. Istraživanje je izvršeno u 53 preduzeća iz područja prerađivačke industrije. U obradi podataka korišćen je postupak regresione analize sa naizmeničnim variranjem pozicija zavisnih i nezavisnih varijabli. U najopštijem smislu, istraživanje je pokazalo da postoji statistički značajan odnos između nivoa zaposlenosti u različitim profesionalnim grupama i grupama sa različitim stepenom stručne spreme. Najstabilnije veze registrovane su između administrativno-birokratske i bazične proizvodne strukture. Upravljačko-stručna struktura nije značajan generator zapošljavanja različitih profesionalnih grupacija i grupacija sa različitim stepenom stručne spreme.

Ključne reči: zapošljavanje, nezaposlenost, politika obrazovanja, politika zapošljavanja, obrazovanje.

Uvod

U poslednjih deset godina zaposlenost je postala prioritet u ekonomskim reformama u Srbiji. Posle prvog kruga reformi (liberalizacija cena, trgovine i plaćanja) Srbija je intenzivno ušla u drugi krug reformi koji se odnosi na obezbeđenje ekonomske stabilnosti i održivog razvoja u čijem se centru nalazi zapošljavanje i zapošljivost radne snage.

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Teorijsko obrazloženje interesovanja za zapošljavanje može se naći u klasičnoj Solovoj (Solow, 1956) teoriji, prema kojoj ekonomski rast odražava sposobnost zemlje da poveća produkciju robe i usluga. U tom procesu svaka zemlja koristi dva bazična inputa – radnu snagu i kapital, kao i njihovu kombinaciju (tehnologiju). Ekonomija proizvodi više autputa ako ima više radnika, više sredstava za rad i veći stepen efikasnosti u korišćenju radne snage i kapitala.

Razume se da značajan modifikator bazičnog odnosa između radne snage i kapitala i značajnu determinantu ukupne ekonomske efikasnosti predstavlja politika vlade u oblasti rada i zapošljavanja. Hronična nestašica rada u Srbiji poslednjih decenija i očigledna suzdržanost poslodavaca u otvaranju novih radnih mesta refleksija je globalne ekonomske i specifične unutrašnje političke i makroekonomske situacije. Neposredne barijere efikasnom zapošljavanju u najvećoj meri su posledica destimulativne politike zapošljavanja i radnog zakonodavstva čije su osnovne manifestacije:

- sporost u otvaranju radnih mesta zbog birokratskih barijera
- visoka cena otvaranja novih radnih mesta (doprinosi i socijalna davanja)
- visoka zaštita jednom dobijenog radnog mesta
- sopstveni viškovi radne snage
- nestabilno tržište i loše poslovno okruženje
- nemogućnost da se uspostavi stabilna finansijska disciplina, posebno disciplina plata
- nespremnost za rad nezaposlenih zbog niskog nivoa tržišno opredeljenih zarada
- tendencija rasta realnih plata bez povećanja obima poslova i
- neadekvatnost znanja i veština raspoložive radne snage[3].

Prethodna lista sugeriše da stanje na tržištu radne snage prvenstveno zavisi od širokog spektra makroekonomskih mera i rešenja u radnom zakonodavstvu. Međutim, ono značajno zavisi i od stanja u sistemu obrazovanja, odnosno od njegove efikasnosti i organizacione i programske relevantnosti u odnosu na potrebe i zahteve tržišta rada i poslodavaca. Zbog toga je reforma sistema obrazovanja

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[3] Lista je nastala na osnovu sledećih relevantnih radova: Srbija i Crna Gora, Republika Srbija, Program za ekonomski rast i zapošljavanje, Jedinica za smanjenje siromaštva i ekonomski menadžment Evropa i region centralne Azije, Dokument Svetske banke, Izveštaj br. 29258 – YU, decembar 2004; Izveštaj o razvoju Srbije 2005, Republički zavod za razvoj, Beograd, 2005; Analiza humanog razvoja Republike Srbije, Republički zavod za razvoj, Beograd, 2005; Arandarenko, M., Pregled pitanja vezanih za tranziciju od škole do posla u Srbiji, nepublikovani materijal ETF, Beograd, 2006; Despotović, M., Popović K., Dimov, J., *Needs and Possibilities of Adult Education in Serbia, National Observatory*, Belgrade, 2003; *Mapa tržišta rada Srbije*, Centar za visoke ekonomske studije, Beograd, 2006.

osnovni uslov za veću efikasnost srpske ekonomije, stvaranja većeg broja radnih mesta i kvalitetnijih poslova (Svetska banka, 2004).

Za savremene reforme i politike obrazovanja ekonomska situacija i ekonomske projekcije postaju relevantan (dominantan) kontekst. Reforma obrazovanja mora da obezbedi relevantnost i efikasnost obrazovanja u odnosu na ekonomske potrebe i potrebe pojedinaca za zapošljavanjem. Ekonomskom terminologijom rečeno, reforma mora da kreira kontekst u kome poslodavci na dostupne (otvorene) poslove mogu da uposle pojedince sa odgovarajućom vrstom i nivoom znanja i veština, po ceni koja je za njih utvrđena u datom mestu i vremenu.

Reformski imperativ usklađivanja obrazovanja sa potrebama tržišta rada za znanjima i veštinama u Srbiji teško je ispuniti zbog: a) postojanja značajnih viškova radne snage i konstantne redukcije broja ponuđenih poslova, b) nepouzdanosti procene poslodavaca o potrebnim znanjima i veštinama i c) neadekvatnosti postojećih modela identifikovanja potreba za znanjima i veštinama koji podrazumevaju pasivnu ulogu sistema obrazovanja u tom procesu (videti: Despotović, 2009).

Međutim, tržište radne snage, odnosno nivo (ne)zaposlenosti u prvom redu regulišu sile ponude i potražnje za robom i uslugama i ponude i potražnje za radnom snagom čiju međuzavisnost reguliše visina nadnica. S obzirom na to da odnos ponude i tražnje, pa i odnos među različitim kategorijama radne snage, zavisi prvenstveno od inputa koji se koriste u proizvodnji dobara i usluga, odnosno odluke preduzeća o vrsti dobara koje iznosi na tržište, razumno je očekivati da će promena u jednoj profesionalnoj grupaciji izazvati promene u drugoj. Broj proizvođača malina odrediće broj berača malina, kao što će broj proizvođača softvera odrediti broj programera. Između ovih kategorija radne snage postoji smislen direktan odnos koji se može objasniti činjenicom da su ovi prvi organizatori posla za ove druge. Sa stanovišta ukupnog funkcionisanja tržišta radne snage posebno je značajno pitanje u kakvom su odnosu različite kategorije radne snage, kada između njih ne postoji tako direktan odnos i kada one ne pripadaju istom krugu izvedene tražnje (tražnja za jednom vrstom robe i usluga koja je izvedena iz tražnje za njihovom potrošnjom). Drugačije rečeno, da li će broj proizvođača malina imati uticaj na broj programera i da li su proizvođači malina relevantan organizator posla za njih.

Identifikovanje i razumevanje zakonomernosti koje oblikuju relacije među različitim profesionalnim i obrazovnim grupacijama ima izuzetan značaj za politiku zapošljavanja i upravljanja ponudom i potražnjom na tržištu radne snage i politiku obrazovanja, posebno politiku upisa. Ključno pitanje za politiku i planiranje obrazovanja jeste da li je postojeća struktura radne snage determinanta zapošljavanja u smislu da neke profesionalne kategorije podstiču ili suspenduju zapošljavanje drugih profesionalnih i obrazovnih kategorija?

Istraživanje čije rezultate ovde prezentujemo organizovano je u cilju potpunijeg razumevanja tog odnosa.

1. *Svrha istraživanja.* Osnovna svrha istraživanja jeste doprinos konstrukciji opšteg modela kontinuiranog praćenja kretanja na tržištu rada i interventnog delovanja Nacionalne službe za zapošljavanje u regulisanju ponude i tražnje radnih mesta i Ministarstva prosvete u planiranju obrazovanja i usklađivanju obrazovanja sa potrebama tržišta rada.

2. *Problem istraživanja.* Osnovni istraživački problem odnosi se na pitanje koje su profesionalne i obrazovne kategorije ključni generator i organizator zapošljavanja. Razumevanje ovog problema pružilo bi empirijsku podršku posmatranju sistema obrazovanja kao jedinstvene celine, ne samo u smislu institucionalnog ustrojstva, već i u smislu funkcionalne međuzavisnosti njegovih bazičnih strukturalnih elemenata (institucija i programa različitog nivoa). To bi, takođe, omogućilo precizniju predikciju odnosa ponude i tražnje na tržištu radne snage i pouzdanije planiranje obrazovanja u celini.

3. *Cilj istraživanja.* Cilj istraživanja je identifikovanje međuzavisnosti u zapošljavanju različitih grupa zanimanja i stepena stručne spreme.

4. *Organizacija istraživanja.* Istraživanje je organizovano u martu 2007. godine na uzorku od 53 preduzeća iz područja prerađivačke industrije. Podaci su prikupljani putem upitnika koje su administrirali stručnjaci iz lokalnih jedinica Nacionalne službe za zapošljavanje. Za obradu i analizu podataka korišćen je postupak regresione analize.

Razvrstavanje u profesionalne kategorije izvršeno je prema kategorizaciji grupa zanimanja Nacionalne službe za zapošljavanje koja predstavlja prilagođenu verziju Međunarodne standardne klasifikacije zanimanja (International Standard Classification of Occupations – ISCO-08). Shodno tome, istraživanje manipuliše sa sledećih 10 kategorija grupa zanimanja:

• Rukovodioci i menadžeri • Stručnjaci • Stručni saradnici i tehničari	• Službenici • Uslužni radnici i trgovci
• Kvalifikovani radnici u poljoprivredi i ribarstvu • Zanatlije • Izrađivači i serviseri alata, postrojenja i uređaja	• Rukovaoci mašinama i uređajima i monteri • Jednostavna zanimanja

Razvrstavanje prema stepenima stručne spreme, od I do VIII, izvršeno je u skladu sa Jedinstvenom nomenklaturom zanimanja.

Rezultati istraživanja

Međuzavisnost u zaposlenosti profesionalnih grupa

Ključno pitanje sa stanovišta politike obrazovanja jeste da li rast u zapošljavanju jedne profesionalne grupe ima za posledicu povećanje ili smanjenje zaposlenosti drugih profesionalnih grupa i da li je moguće izvršiti predikciju promena u jednoj na osnovu promena u drugim grupama zaposlenih? Stepen međuzavisnosti nivoa zaposlenosti u pojedinim grupama zanimanja i ukupnog nivoa zaposlenosti (zaposlenosti u svim ostalim grupama) prikazan je u tabeli 6.

Jedina grupa u kojoj nivo zaposlenosti nije determinisan nivoom zaposlenosti u svim ostalim grupama, do nivoa stroge statističke značajnosti, jeste profesionalna grupa zanatlija. Svi ostali koeficijenti multiple korelacije (R) statistički su značajni i umereno visoki ili čak veoma visoki, kao što je to slučaj u grupi *službenici*. Koeficijenti determinacije (R^2 – procenat objašnjenja varijanse u jednoj varijabli zajedničkim delovanjem ostalih 9 varijabli) kreću se u rasponu od 0.33 do 0.87, što govori da su promene u broju zaposlenih u jednoj grupi posledica zajedničkog delovanja zaposlenosti u drugim grupama zanimanja. Izuzetno jaka asocijacija između ukupnog nivoa zaposlenosti i nivoa zaposlenosti grupe službenika (0.87), kvalifikovanih radnika (0.77) i stručnih saradnika i tehničara (0.74) sugeriše da su ove grupe glavni organizatori posla i glavni generator zapošljavanja u prerađivačkoj industriji.

Tabela br. 1: Korelacije između pojedinih grupa zanimanja

	R	R^2	F	df1	df2	Sig
Rukovodioci i menadžeri	.577	.333	2.333	9	42	.031
Stručnjaci	.563	.317	2.166	9	42	.045
Stručni saradnici i tehničari	.865	.747	13.806	9	42	.000
Uslužni radnici i trgovci	.617	.381	2.873	9	42	.010
Službenici	.933	.870	31.302	9	42	.000
Rukovaoci mašinama i uređajima i monteri	.759	.576	6.348	9	42	.000
Zanatlije	.397	.158	.875	9	42	.555
Kvalifikovani radnici u poljoprivredi i ribarstvu	.877	.770	15.600	9	42	.000
Izrađivači i serviseri alata, postrojenja i uređaja	.817	.668	9.388	9	42	.000
Jednostavna zanimanja	.865	.747	13.806	9	42	.000

Identifikovanje pojedinačnih relacija između različitih grupa izvršeno je putem izračunavanja parcijalnih korelacija i testova njihove značajnosti. Međutim, procesu identifikovanja visine parcijalnih korelacija (direktna korelacija iz-

među dve varijable iz ukupnog niza varijabli) i semiparcijalnih korelacija (korelacije između dve varijable dobijene posle eliminacije uticaja svih ostalih varijabli na njihov odnos) među ispitivanim varijablama prethodilo je pitanje teorijskog opravdanja pozicioniranja nezavisnih varijabli. U razumevanju odnosa među različitim profesionalnim grupama moguća su tri modela pretpostavljenog pravca uticaja, odnosno determinacije.

Model 1 polazi od pretpostavke da profesionalne grupe iz područja organizacije i planiranja procesa proizvodnje (Menadžeri i rukovodioci i Stručnjaci) determinišu zaposlenost u svim drugim profesionalnim grupama.

Menadžeri i rukovodioci
Stručnjaci   ⟶

Službenici
Stručni saradnici i tehničari
Kvalifikovani radnici u poljoprivredi i ribarstvu
Rukovaoci mašinama i uređajima
Uslužni radnici i trgovci
Izrađivači i serviseri alata, postrojenja i uređaja
Jednostavna zanimanja
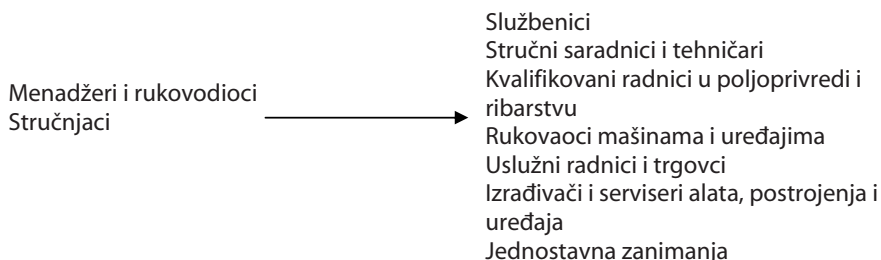
Model 1: Determinisanost nivoa zaposlenosti u pojedinim grupama zanimanja

Model 2 je nešto složeniji jer pretpostavlja dve vrste uticaja. On izražava očekivanje da više profesionalne grupe determinišu zapošljavanje u nižim, pri čemu i bazične (proizvodne) grupe zanimanja determinišu zaposlenost u pomoćnim, uslužnim i režijskim grupama zanimanja.

Menadžeri i rukovodioci
Stručnjaci

Službenici
Uslužni radnici i trgovci
Izrađivači i serviseri alata, postrojenja i uređaja

Stručni saradnici i tehničari
Kvalifikovani radnici u poljoprivredi i ribarstvu
Rukovaoci mašinama i uređajima
Jednostavna zanimanja
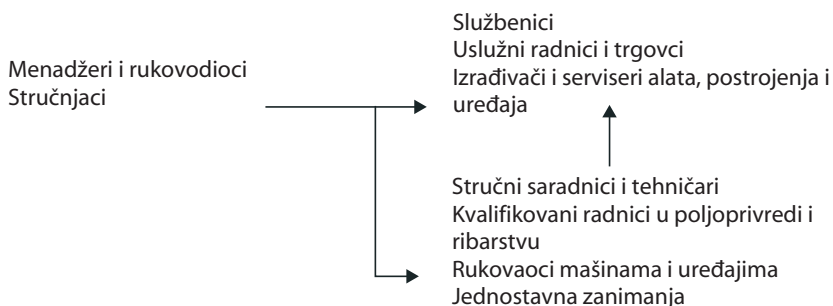
Model 2: Determinisanost nivoa zaposlenosti u pojedinim grupama zanimanja

Model 3 takođe pretpostavlja da više profesionalne grupe determinišu zapošljavanje nižih, ali samo posredstvom „režijske“, odnosno „birokratske“ grupe (službenici, stručni saradnici i tehničari).

Menadžeri i rukovodioci ⟶ Službenici
Stručnjaci   Stručni saradnici i tehničari

⟱

Uslužni radnici i trgovci
Kvalifikovani radnici u poljoprivredi i ribarstvu
Rukovaoci mašinama i uređajima
Izrađivači i serviseri alata, postrojenja i uređaja
Jednostavna zanimanja
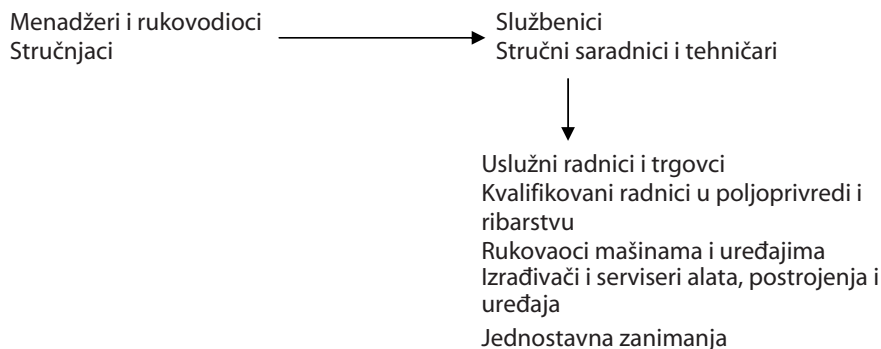
Model 3: Determinisanost nivoa zaposlenosti u pojedinim grupama zanimanja

Shodno modelovanom pravcu determinacije izračunate su parcijalne i semiparcijalne korelacije među različitim grupama zanimanja.

Bez obzira na relativno visoku (0.57) i statistički značajnu korelaciju između grupe Menadžeri i rukovodioci, na jednoj, i ukupnog nivoa zaposlenosti, na drugoj strani, nisu identifikovane statistički značajne korelacije na pojedinačnom nivou ni u jednom slučaju. To znači da broj zaposlenih menadžera u prerađivačkoj industriji nije statistički značajan prediktor broja zaposlenih u bilo kojoj pojedinačnoj grupi zanimanja. Relativno visoka ukupna korelacija između nivoa zaposlenosti menadžera i rukovodilaca i ukupne zaposlenosti u ostalim grupama u prehrambenoj industriji posledica je delovanja nekih drugih faktora, verovatno političkih, koji se „prelamaju“ preko ukupnog nivoa zaposlenosti.

Između grupe *stručnjaci* i grupe *jednostavna zanimanja* identifikovana je statistički značajna, ali dosta niska povezanost (parcijalna 0.29, semiparcijalna 0.17). U poziciji kada se grupa *jednostavnih zanimanja* tretira kao nezavisna, a grupa *stručnjaci* kao zavisna varijabla, parcijalna korelacija je 0.29, a semiparcijalna 0.25, što sugeriše da nivo zaposlenosti u grupi *jednostavna zanimanja* pre utiče na povećanje zaposlenosti u grupi *stručnjaci* nego što povećanje broja zaposlenih *stručnjaka* stimuliše rast zaposlenosti u grupi *jednostavna zanimanja*.

Tabela br. 2: Korelacije između grupe Stručnjaci i grupe Jednostavna zanimanja

	B	Beta	t	Sig.	Korelacija	
					parcijalna	semi-parcijalna
Nezavisna varijabla: Stručnjaci	-17.644		-1.286	.205		
	.708	.196	2.028	.049	.299	.170
Zavisna varijabla: Jednostavna zanimanja						

	B	Beta	t	Sig	pojedinačna	parcijalna
Nezavisna varijabla: Jednostavna zanimanja	9.781		1.714	.094		
	.126	.454	2.028	.049	.299	.259
Zavisna varijabla: Stručnjaci						

Između nivoa zaposlenosti u grupi *službenici* i nivoa zaposlenosti u grupi *stručni saradnici i tehničari* identifikovana je statistički značajna povezanost. Koeficijent korelacije između nivoa zaposlenosti u ove dve grupe je 0.61.

Izračunavanje parcijalnih i semiparcijalnih korelacija omogućava potpunije razumevanje odnosa između ove dve grupe zanimanja u smislu modelovanih pravaca determinacije. Kada se grupa *službenici* tretira kao nezavisna varijabla, koeficijent semiparcijalne korelacije sa grupom *stručni saradnici i tehničari* je 0.38. U obratnoj poziciji, koeficijent semiparcijalne korelacije između ove dve grupe je 0.27. To ukazuje na veću verovatnoću delovanja nivoa zaposlenosti grupe *službenici* na nivo zaposlenosti grupe *stručni saradnici i tehničari* nego obratno.

Tabela br. 3: Korelacije između grupe Službenici i Stručni saradnici i tehničari

	B	Beta	t	Sig.	Korelacija	
					parcijalna	semi-parcijalna
Nezavisna varijabla: Službenici	-1.934	.758	- .310	.758		
Zavisna varijabla: Stručni saradnici i tehničari	1.461	.853	5.002	.000	.611	.388

	B	Beta	t	Sig.	parcijalna	semi-parcijalna
Nezavisna varijabla: Stručni saradnici i tehničari	2.697		1.047	.301		
	.256	.438	5.002	.000	.611	.278
Zavisna varijabla: Službenici						

Koeficijent parcijalne korelacije između grupe *službenici* i grupe *uslužni radnici i trgovci* iznosi 0.37. Međutim, koficijent semiparcijalne korelacije sugeriše da zaposlenost u grupi *službenici* pre determiniše nivo zaposlenosti u grupi *uslužni radnici i trgovci* nego obratno.

Tabela br. 4: Korelacije između grupe Službenici i grupe Uslužni radnici i trgovci

	B	Beta	t	Sig.	Korelacija	
					parcijalna	semi-parcijalna
	8129	-.042	1.055	298		
Nezavisna varijabla: Službenici	1.135	.828	2.655	.011	.379	.322
Zavisna varijabla: Uslužni radnici i trgovci						

	B	Beta	t	Sig.	parcijalna	semi-parcijalna
	2.697		1.047	.301		
Nezavisna varijabla: Uslužni radnici i trgovci	.127	.174	2.655	.011	.379	.148
Zavisna varijabla: Službenici						

Koeficijent parcijalne korelacije između grupe *službenici* i grupe *kvalifikovani radnici u poljoprivredi i ribarstvu* je 0.52. Kada se grupa *službenici* nalazi na poziciji nezavisne varijable, koeficijent semiparcijalne korelacije iznosi 0.29. U slučaju pozicioniranja grupe *kvalifikovani radnici i trgovci* na mesto nezavisne varijable, koeficijent semiparcijalne korelacije je 0.22, što govori da je nivo zaposlenosti u njoj determinisan nivoom zaposlenosti u grupi *stručnjaci*.

Tabela br. 5: Korelacije između grupe Službenici i grupe Kvalifikovani radnici u poljoprivredi i ribarstvu

	B	Beta	t	Sig.	parcijalna	semi-parcijalna
					Korelacija	
	-5.088		-.974	.336		
Nezavisna varijabla: Službenici	1.066	.701	4.011	.000	.526	.297
Zavisna varijabla: Kvalifikovani radnici u poljoprivredi i ribarstvu						

	B	Beta	t	Sig.	parcijalna	semi-parcijalna
	2.697		1.047	.301		
Nezavisna varijabla: Kvalifikovani radnici u poljoprivredi i ribarstvu	.260	.395	4.011	.000	.526	.223

Zavisna varijabla: Službenici

Koeficijenti parcijalne korelacije između grupe *kvalifikovani radnici u poljoprivredi i ribarstvu* i grupe *izrađivači i serviseri alata, postrojenja i uređaja* je umereno visok i iznosi 0.57. Razlike u koeficijentima semiparcijalne korelacije sugerišu da nivo zaposlenosti u grupi *kvalifikovani radnici u poljoprivredi i ribarstvu* predstavlja značajnu determinantu zaposlenosti u grupi *izrađivači i serviseri alata, postrojenja i uređaja*.

Tabela br. 6: Korelacije između grupe Kvalifikovani radnici u poljoprivredi i ribarstvu i grupe Izrađivači i serviseri alata, postrojenja i uređaja

					Korelacija	
	B	Beta	t	Sig.	parcijalna	semi-parcijalna
Nezavisna varijabla: Kvalifikovani radnici u poljoprivredi i ribarstvu	1.025		.215	.831		
	.522	.694	4.589	.000	.578	.408
Zavisna varijabla: Izrađivači i serviseri alata, postrojenja i uređaja						

|	B	Beta	t	Sig.	pojedinačna	parcijalna
Nezavisna varijabla: Izrađivači i serviseri alata, postrojenja i uređaja	-5.088		-.974	.336		
	.640	.481	4.589	.000	.578	.340
Zavisna varijabla: Kvalifikovani radnici u poljoprivredi i ribarstvu						

Koeficijenti parcijalne korelacije između grupe rukovaoci *mašinama i uređajima* i grupe *jednostavna zanimanja* govori o umerenoj povezanosti ove dve grupe. Semiparcijalne korelacije sugerišu da nivo zaposlenosti u grupi *jednostavna zanimanja* pre determiniše nivo zaposlenosti u grupi zanimanja *rukovaoci mašinama i uređajima* nego obratno.

Tabela br. 7: Korelacije između grupe Rukovaoci mašinama i uređajima i grupe Jednostavna zanimanja

					Korelacija	
	B	Beta	t	Sig.	parcijalna	semi-parcijalna
Nezavisna varijabla: Rukovaoci mašinama i uređajima	-17.644		-1.286	.205		
	.476	.289	2.391	.021	.346	.201
Zavisna varijabla: Jednostavna zanimanja						

	B	Beta	t	Sig.	parcijalna	semi-parcijalna
	5.050		.498	.621		
Nezavisna varijabla: Jednostavna zanimanja	.252	.414	2.391	.021	.346	.240
Zavisna varijabla: Rukovaoci mašinama i uređajima						

Svi dobijeni nalazi mogu se grafički predstaviti na sledeći način:
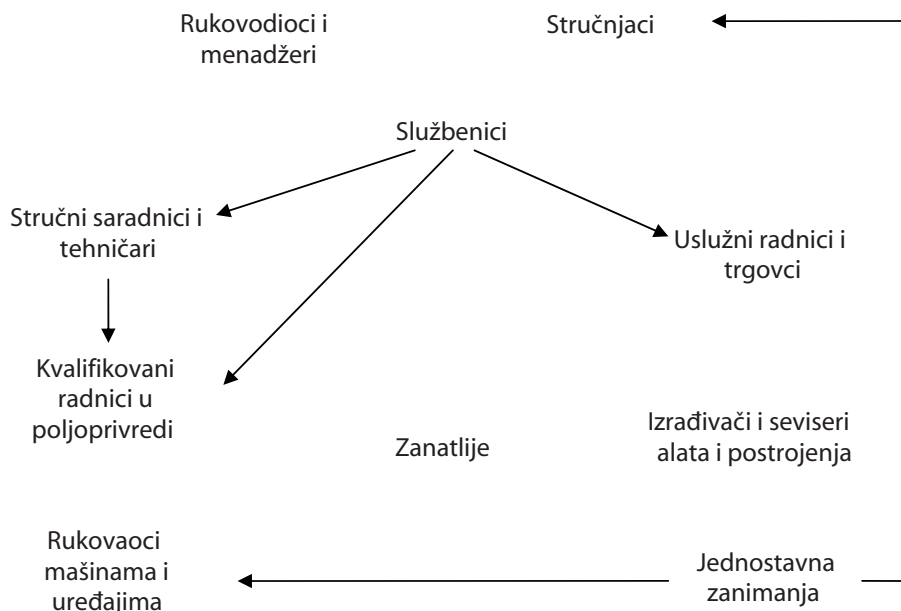
Determinisanosti u zapošljavanju među grupama zanimanja

Prethodna analiza pokazuje da nivo zaposlenosti u višim profesionalnim grupama (rukovodioci i menadžeri, stručnjaci) nije značajan prediktor nivoa zaposlenosti u drugim grupama. To upućuje na zaključak da grupa *rukovodioci i menadžeri* i grupa *stručnjaci* nisu značajan organizator zapošljavanja drugih profesionalnih grupa u prerađivačkoj industriji.

Nivo zaposlenosti u grupi *izrađivači i serviseri alata, postrojenja i uređaja, rukovaoci mašinama i uređajima* i grupi *zanatlije* nema statistički značajne relacije sa nivoom zaposlenosti u drugim grupama zanimanja. Ove grupe niti su posledica niti uzrok nivoa zaposlenosti u drugim profesionalnim grupama i kao takve su marginalne za prerađivačku industriju. Nivo zaposlenosti u njima mogao bi u prvom redu biti posledica ukupnog proizvodnog, pre svega materijalno-

tehničkog kapaciteta preduzeća (zemljište, postrojenja, mašine i alat i oprema), a ne unutrašnjeg kadrovsko-organizacionog preplitanja i varijacija u nivou zaposlenosti u drugim grupama zanimanja.

Značajne relacije identifikovane su između nivoa zaposlenosti u grupi *službenici*, s jedne, i grupi *stručni saradnici i tehničari, uslužni radnici i trgovci i kvalifikovani radnici u poljoprivredi i ribarstvu*, s druge strane, što ukazuje na delimičnu verovatnoću modela 3 pravca determinacije zaposlenosti među različitim grupama zanimanja i upućuje na zaključak da grupa zanimanja *službenici* predstavlja okosnicu uspostavljanja kadrovske organizacione strukture u prerađivačkoj industriji. To u izvesnoj meri važi i za grupu *stručni saradnici i tehničari*, čija zaposlenost determiniše zaposlenost u grupi *rukovaoci mašinama i uređajima*.

Podatak da se nivo zaposlenosti u grupi *jednostavna zanimanja* pojavljuje kao determinanta zaposlenosti stručnjaka i rukovaoca mašinama i uređajima nije jednostavan za tumačenje. Ono što u ovom momentu može da se kaže, na osnovu ovog nalaza, jeste da se strukturiranje zaposlenosti u prerađivačkoj industriji vrši po principu odozdo na gore – prvo se zapošljava jednostavna radna snaga, a potom stručnjaci (prvo učesnici, pa onda „komandant parade").

Međuzavisnost u zaposlenosti grupa sa različitim stepenom stručne spreme

Relacije između ukupnog nivoa zaposlenosti i nivoa zaposlenosti u pojedinačnim grupama različitog stepena stručne spreme prikazan je u tabeli 8.

Tabela br. 8: Koeficijenti multiple korelacije između pojedinih grupa zanimanja

Stepen stručne spreme	R	R²	F	df1	df2	Sig
VIII	.661	.437	4.268	8	44	.001
VII	.862	.743	15.888	8	44	.000
VI	.820	.672	11.281	8	44	.000
V	.849	.722	14.250	8	44	.000
IV	.935	.875	38.539	8	44	.000
III	.922	.851	31.299	8	44	.000
II	.596	.356	3.035	8	44	.008
I	.769	.592	7.974	8	44	.000
Nepotpuna OŠ	.494	.244	1.774	8	44	.108

Jedina grupa u kojoj nivo zaposlenosti nije determinisan ukupnim nivoom zaposlenosti jeste grupa sa nepotpunom osnovnom školom. Svi ostali koeficijenti multiple korelacije jesu statistički značajni i pozitivni i kreću se u rasponu od 0.49 do 0.93.

I ovde su među grupama sa različitim stepenom stručne spreme moguća tri modela determinacije u zapošljavanju.

Model 1 polazi od pretpostavke da dve dominantne grupe sa najvišim stepenom stručne spreme (VII i VI) predstavljaju glavne organizatore posla i zapošljavanja, odnosno da nivo zaposlenosti u njima determiniše zapošljavanje u svim ostalim grupama. Model 2 pretpostavlja da nivo zaposlenosti u grupama sa nižim stepenom stručne spreme determiniše nivo zapošljavanja u grupama sa višim stepenom stručne spreme. Model 3 pretpostavlja kombinovanje determinacije u smislu da svaka grupa sa postizanjem određenog nivoa zaposlenosti zahteva optimalan broj zaposlenih u nižim (podređenim) grupama.

Dobijeni nalazi pokazuju da između većeg broja grupa različitog stepena stručne spreme postoje pojedinačne statistički značajne relacije u oba smera, što ukazuje na opravdanost prihvatanja modela 3. Najveći broj statistički značajnih korelacija grupiše se oko IV i III stepena stručne spreme.

Koeficijent parcijalne korelacije između grupe sa IV i VIII stepenom stručne spreme je 0.46. Variranje pozicije zavisne varijable ukazuje da se grupa sa IV stepenom stručne spreme može tretirati kao značajan faktor u prilivu zaposlenih sa VIII stepenom stručne spreme.

Tabela br. 9: Korelacije između zaposlenih sa IV i VIII stepenom stručne spreme

					Korelacija	
	B	Beta	t	Sig.	parcijalna	semi-parcijalna
Nezavisna varijabla: IV stepen stručne spreme	-.111 .009	.986	-.712 3.477	.481 .001	.466	.393
Zavisna varijabla: VIII stepen stručne spreme						

	B	Beta	t	Sig.	parcijalna	semi-parcijalna
Nezavisna varijabla: VIII stepen stručne spreme	4.214 24.356	7.006	.514 3.477	.610 .001	.464	.185
Zavisna varijabla: IV stepen stručne spreme						

Identifikovane su takođe statistički značajne relacije između grupe sa IV i grupe sa VI stepenom stručne spreme. Varijacije pozicije zavisne varijable i vrednost koeficijenata parcijalne korelacije ukazuju na prevashodnu determinisanost zaposlenosti u grupi sa VI stepenom stručne spreme zaposlenošću u grupi sa IV stepenom stručne spreme.

Tabela br. 10: Korelacije između IV i VI stepena stručne spreme

	B	Beta	t	Sig.	parcijalna	semi-parcijalna
					Korelacija	
Nezavisna varijabla: IV stepen stručne spreme	2.113		1.204	.235		
	095	.708	3.221	.002	.437	.278
Zavisna varijabla: VI stepen stručne spreme						

	B	Beta	t	Sig.	parcijalna	semi-parcijalna
Nezavisna varijabla: VI stepen stručne spreme	4.214		.514	.610		
	2.015	.270	3.221	.002	.437	.172
Zavisna varijabla: IV stepen stručne spreme						

Grupa sa IV stepenom stručne spreme ima takođe statistički značajne relacije sa grupom sa III stepenom stručne spreme. Koeficijenti parcijalne i semi-parcijalne korelacije između ove dve grupe umereno su visoki. Varijacije u poziciji zavisne i nezavisne varijable sugerišu da zaposlenost u grupi sa IV stepenom predstavlja značajnu determinantu zaposlenosti u grupi sa III stepenom stručne spreme.

Tabela br. 11: Korelacije između IV i III stepena stručne spreme

	B	Beta	t	Sig.	parcijalna	semi-parcijalna
					Korelacija	
Nezavisna varijabla: IV stepen stručne spreme	-3.102		-.305	.762		
	.795	.703	5.565	.000	.643	.324
Zavisna varijabla: III stepen stručne spreme						

	B	Beta	t	Sig.	parcijalna	semi-parcijalna
Nezavisna varijabla: III stepen stručne spreme	4.214		.514	.610		
	.520	.588	5.565	.000	.643	.297
Zavisna varijabla: IV stepen stručne spreme						

Zaposlenost u grupi sa III stepenom stručne spreme može se, takođe, tretirati kao značajan korelat zapošljavanja u grupama sa V, II i I stepenom stručne spreme. Dobijeni koeficijent korelacije između grupa sa III i V stepenom stručne

spreme govori o njihovoj blagoj, ali negativnoj povezanosti. Razlike među koeficijentima semiparcijalne korelacije sugerišu veću verovatnoću determinacije zaposlenosti u grupi sa V stepenom stručne spreme zaposlenošću na trećem stepenu stručne spreme. S obzirom na to da je reč o negativnoj korelaciji, povećanje broja zaposlenih sa V stepenom najverovatnije će uzrokovati izvesno smanjenje broja zaposlenih sa III stepenom stručne spreme.

Tabela br. 12: Korelacije između zaposlenosti u III i V stepenu stručne spreme

					Korelacija	
	B	Beta	t	Sig.	parcijalna	semi-parcijalna
Nezavisna varijabla: III stepen stručne spreme	-4.228		-.792	.433		
	-.161	-.416	-2.123	.039	-.305	-.169
Zavisna varijabla: V stepen stručne spreme						

	B	Beta	t	Sig.	parcijalna	semi-parcijalna
Nezavisna varijabla: V stepen stručne spreme	-3.102		-.305	.762		
	-.577	-.223	-2.123	.039	-.305	-.124
Zavisna varijabla: III stepen stručne spreme						

Zaposlenost u grupi sa III stepenom stručne spreme takođe značajno determiniše zaposlenost u grupi sa II stepenom stručne spreme.

Tabela br. 13: Korelacije između zaposlenosti u III i II stepenu stručne spreme

					Korelacija	
	B	Beta	t	Sig.	parcijalna	semi-parcijalna
Nezavisna varijabla: III stepen stručne spreme	4.664		.823	.415		
	.211	.780	2.690	.010	.376	.326
Zavisna varijabla: II stepen stručne spreme						

	B	Beta	t	Sig.	parcijalna	semi-parcijalna
Nezavisna varijabla: II stepen stručne spreme	-3.102	-.305	.762			
	.670	.181	2.690	.010	.376	.157
Zavisna varijabla: III stepen stručne spreme						

Takođe je identifikovana značajna asocijacija između grupa sa III i I stepenom stručne spreme. Razlike u koeficijentima semiparcijalne korelacije govore u prilog tvrdnji da je zaposlenost u grupi sa III stepenom stručne spreme daleko verovatniji determinator zaposlenosti u grupi sa I stepenom stručne spreme nego obratno.

Tabela br. 14: Korelacije između zaposlenosti u III i I stepena stručne spreme

					Korelacija	
	B	Beta	t	Sig.	parcijalna	semi-parcijalna
Nezavisna varijabla: III stepen stručne spreme	1.050 .712	.882	.077 4.185	.939 .000	.534	.403
Zavisna varijabla: I stepen stručne spreme						

	B	Beta	t	Sig.	parcijalna	semi-parcijalna
Nezavisna varijabla: I stepen stručne spreme	-3.102 .400	.323	-.305 4.185	.762 .000	.534	.244
Zavisna varijabla: III stepen stručne spreme						

Grupa sa VII stepenom stručne spreme ima značajnu statističku asocijaciju samo sa grupom sa V stepenom stručne spreme (0.67). Vrednost semiparcijalnih korelacija ukazuje da je verovatniji pravac determinacije od grupe sa VII ka grupi sa V stepenom stručne spreme nego od grupe sa V ka grupi sa VII stepenom stručne spreme.

Tabela br. 15: Korelacije između zaposlenih sa VII i V stepenom stručne spreme

					Korelacija	
	B	Beta	t	Sig.	parcijalna	semi-parcijalna
Nezavisna varijabla: VII stepen stručne spreme	-4.228 .788	.701	-.792 6.049	.433 .000	.674	.481
Zavisna varijabla: V stepen stručne spreme						

	B	Beta	t	Sig.	parcijalna	semi-parcijalna
Nezavisna varijabla: V stepen stručne spreme	7.080 .576	.648	1.584 6.049	.120 .000	.674	.462
Zavisna varijabla: VII stepen stručne spreme						

Grupa sa VI stepenom stručne spreme ima statistički značajne relacije samo sa grupom zaposlenih sa nepotpunom osnovnom školom. Koeficijenti semiparcijalne korelacije između ove dve grupe su, iako statistički značajni, dosta niski. Razlike u veličini semiparcijalnih korelacija sugerišu da povećanje broja zaposlenih u grupi sa VI stepenom stručne spreme pre utiče na povećanje zaposlenosti u grupi sa nepotpunom osnovnom školom nego što povećanje broja zaposlenih u grupi sa nepotpunom osnovnom školom stimuliše rast zaposlenosti u grupi sa VI stepenom stručne spreme.

Tabela br. 16: Korelacije između zaposlenosti u grupi sa VI stepenom stručne spreme i grupe sa nepotpunom osnovnom školom

	B	Beta	t	Sig.	Korelacija	
					parcijalna	semi-parcijalna
Nezavisna varijabla: VI stepen stručne spreme	.687		1.005	.320		
	.124	.486	2.238	.030	.320	.293
Zavisna varijabla: Nepotpuna osnovna škola						

	B	Beta	t	Sig.	parcijalna	semi-parcijalna
Nezavisna varijabla: Nepotpuna osnovna škola	2.113		1.204	.235		
	.825	.210	2.238	.030	.320	.193
Zavisna varijabla: VI stepen stručne spreme						

Grupa sa VI stepenom stručne spreme takođe ima statistički značajan odnos sa grupom sa V stepenom stručne spreme. Koeficijent korelacije između ove dve grupe je 0.37. Vrednost semiparcijalnih korelacija, međutim, ukazuje da zaposlenost u grupi sa V stepenom stručne spreme u većoj meri determiniše zaposlenost u grupi sa VI stepenom stručne spreme nego što zaposlenost u grupi sa VI stepenom stručne spreme determiniše zaposlenost u grupi sa V stepenom stručne spreme.

Tabela br. 17: Korelacije između VI i V stepena stručne spreme

	B	Beta	t	Sig.	parcijalna	semi-parcijalna
					Korelacija	
Nezavisna varijabla: V stepen stručne spreme	2.113		1.204	.235		
	.124	.406	2.680	.010	.375	.231
Zavisna varijabla: VI stepen stručne spreme						

	B	Beta	t	Sig.	parcijalna	semi-parcijalna
Nezavisna varijabla: VI stepen stručne spreme	-4.228		-.792	.433		
	1.130	.345	2.680	.010	.375	.213
Zavisna varijabla: V stepen stručne spreme						

Dobijeni rezultati pokazuju da grupe sa vrha (VIII stepen stručne spreme) i sa dna kvalifikacione lestvice (nepotpuna osnovna škola, I i II stepen stručne spreme) ne determinišu zapošljavanje u drugim grupama zanimanja.

Ukupni grafički oblik dobijenih nalaza je sledeći:
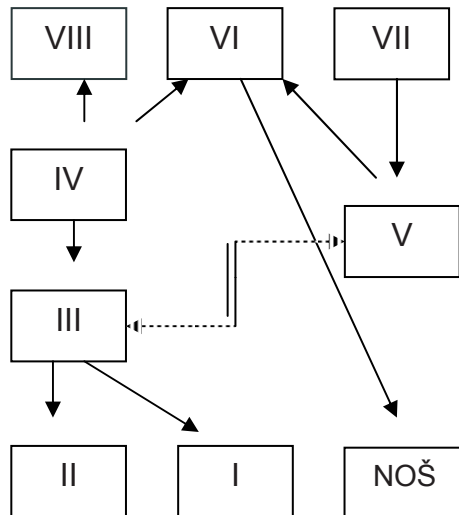
Determinisanost u zapošljavanju među grupama sa različitim stepenom stručne spreme

Kao što se može uočiti, postoji dosta složen odnos između nivoa zaposlenosti u grupama sa različitim stepenom stručne spreme, koji je najpribližniji modelu 3 pretpostavljenog pravca determinacije. Nivo zaposlenosti u grupi sa IV stepenom stručne spreme determiniše nivo zaposlenosti u grupi sa VIII, VI i III stepenom. Nivo zaposlenosti u grupi sa III stepenom stručne spreme deluje na nivo zaposlenosti u grupi sa II i I stepenom i vrši supresiju zapošljavanja radnika sa V stepenom stručne spreme. Nivo zaposlenosti u grupi sa VII stepenom stručne spreme determiniše nivo zaposlenosti u grupi sa V stepenom, a nivo zaposlenosti u grupi sa VI stepenom, zapošljavanje pojedinaca sa nepotpunom osnovnom školom.

U odnosima između grupa zaposlenih sa različitim stepenom stručne spreme uspostavljaju se dva pravca determinacije – onaj koji organizuju visokoškolski profili i onaj koji organizuju srednjoškolski profili. Visokoškolski organizuju bočne i marginalne profile i nemaju mnogo veze sa centralnom strukturom zaposlenih, odnosno bazičnom strukturom u organizaciji rada. Srednjoškolski profili, odnosno IV i III stepen stručne spreme, predstavljaju okosnicu organizacije zapošljavanja u prerađivačkoj industriji. U osnovi ove tendencije verovatno se nalazi potreba za uspostavljanjem hijerarhijske organizacione strukture u podeli poslova, a time i hijerarhije u zaradama.

Uzimajući u obzir identifikovani pravac determinacije i prosečnu zaposlenost po stepenima stručne spreme za uzorak od 54 preduzeća, izračunate su proporcije među korespodentnim grupama.

Tabela br. 18: Proporcija zaposlenosti među grupama sa različitim stepenom stručne spreme

Stepen stručne spreme	Aritmetičke sredine	Proporcija
VII - V	33.09 : 23.85	1 : 0.72
VI - NOŠ	13.46 : 1.31	1 : 10.27
V - VI	23.85 : 13,46	1 : 0.56
IV - VIII	91.54 : 0.28	1 : 0.003
IV - VI	91.54 : 13.46	1 : 0.14
IV - III	91,54 : 82.76	1 : 0.90
III - II	82.76 : 17.93	1 : 0.21
III - I	82.76 : 41.37	1 : 0.49

Proporcija između IV-VIII stepena stručne spreme je nepouzdana zbog malog broja zaposlenih sa VIII stepenom stručne spreme, dok se sve ostale mogu tretirati kao značajan izvor informacija u kreiranju politike obrazovanja, posebno upisne politike. Iako nije reč o idealnim, već o empirijskim proporcijama, upisna

politika bi se morala na njih oslanjati ili bar uvažavati stav da definisanje upisnih kvota u jednoj grupi nije nezavisno od definisanja kvota u drugim grupama.

Zaključak

Dobijeni rezultati omogućavaju izvođenje sledećih zaključaka:

- između nivoa zaposlenosti u različitim profesionalnim grupama i grupama sa različitim stepenom stručne spreme postoje stabilni i značajni odnosi determinacije;
- nivo zaposlenosti grupa koje su marginalne za dato područje rada (u slučaju prerađivačke industrije, grupe zanatlija i servisera) ne determiniše nivo zaposlenosti u drugim grupama, niti je njime determinisan;
- iako je registrovan opšti trend determinacije nivoa zaposlenosti u nižim nivoom zaposlenosti u višim hijerarhijskim nivoima, grupe na najvišim hijerarhijskim pozicijama nisu značajni organizatori zapošljavanja grupa na nižim hijerarhijskim pozicijama;
- zapošljavanje upravljačke strukture je izvan domena uticaja organizaciono-kadrovskih faktora preduzeća;
- zapošljavanje stručne strukture visokog nivoa obrazovanja je kumulativni efekat ukupnog nivoa zaposlenosti, pre svega zaposlenosti u grupama sa najnižim stepenom stručne spreme;
- glavni organizator zapošljavanja (u slučaju prerađivačke industrije) jeste administrativno-birokratska struktura koja upošljava bazičnu proizvodnu strukturu.

Dobijeni nalazi ukazuju na potrebu aktivne uloge sistema obrazovanja u istraživanju i razumevanju potreba tržišta rada i formulisanju politike obrazovanja. Mogućnost zapošljavanja pojedinih kategorija zaposlenih snažno je determinisana zapošljavanjem nekih drugih kategorija. Drugačije rečeno, nema efikasnog zapošljavanja stručnih saradnika i tehničara, kvalifikovanih radnika i uslužnih radnika i trgovaca bez optimuma zapošljavanja službenika, kao što nema efikasnog zapošljavanja I i II stepena stručne spreme bez optimuma zaposlenosti III stepena, ili zaposlenosti III i VI stepena bez optimuma zaposlenosti IV stepena stručne spreme. Zakonomernost prema kojoj zapošljavanje jedne zahteva ili suspenduje zapošljavanje neke druge kategorije morala bi da ima svoju refleksiju u politici obrazovanja i politici upisa, posebno u određivanju upisnih prioriteta i kvota za pojedine vrste i nivoe obrazovanja. Ona u veoma oštrom vidu postav-

lja pitanje granica i mogućnosti decentralizacije politike obrazovanja (pogotovu u uspostavljanju racionalnih odnosa između lokalnog, nacionalnog i globalnog nivoa planiranja), učešća poslodavaca u planiranju, širine dostupnosti pojedinih vrsta i nivoa obrazovanja, obima njihovog finansiranja i ozbiljnosti savetovanja i vođenja kroz svet rada i sistem obrazovanja.

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Interdependence of the Employment of Different Groups of Occupation and Level of Qualification[5]

Abstract: The main aim of the research whose results are presented in this study is to identify the interdependence of the employment of different groups of occupations and level of education, in order to determine the key generators and organizers of employment. The survey was conducted in 53 companies in the field of manufacturing. In the data processing procedure we used regression analysis with varying alternate position dependent and independent variables. In the most general sense research has shown that there is a statistically significant relation between the level of employment in a variety of professional groups and groups with different levels of qualification. Stable relationships were recorded between the administrative and bureaucratic structures and basic manufacturing. Managing professional structure is not important generator of employment of different professional groups and groups with different levels of qualification.

Key words: employment, unemployment, educational policy, employment policy, education.

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Partnerstvo u obrazovanju[2]

Apstrakt: U radu se razmatra problematika partnerstva, od nivoa vrednosne kategorije do nivoa operacionalizacije koncepta partnerstva u obrazovanju. Ukazuje se na dva pristupa u sagledavanju partnerstva, na polazišno-utilitaristički i procesno-podržavajući pristup i iz njih proistekle operacionalizacije pojma partnerstva. Elaborira se sistemski pristup u sagledavanju partnerstva koji podrazumeva holističko, kontekstualno i procesno sagledavanje dimenzija i karakteristika partnerskog odnosa i daje kontekstualno, strukturalno i procesno određenje partnerstva.

Ključne reči: partnerstvo, sistemski pristup, socijalni kapital.

Partnerstvo kao vrednosna kategorija

> *„Mnoge promene u budućnosti zahtevaće da istorijski dugo prisutni odnosi suparništva budu zamenjeni partnerskim odnosima.“*
> (Tom Peters, *Thriving on Chaos*).

Gotovo da nema oblasti i aktera društvenog delanja u okviru kojeg se danas ne koristi termin partnerstvo i partnerski odnosi. Partnerstvo postaje univerzalna, rekli bismo pomodna poštapalica za određivanje odnosa u najrazličitijim oblastima – politici, ekonomiji, međunarodnim odnosima, bezbednosnom sistemu, marketingu, korporativnoj sferi, obrazovanju, (zlo)upotrebljavana često samo kao deklarativna i dnevnopolitička „zastavica“.

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Postoji, međutim, bar nekoliko karakteristika savremenog društva iz kojih se generiše aktuelnost partnerstva. To su: globalizacija kojom fenomeni dobijaju univerzalnost; enormno povećanje i usložnjavanje znanja i iz toga proistekla potreba sve veće specijalizacije, uz istovremeno ubrzanje i stalne promene kojima se fenomeni usložnjavaju i zahtevaju multiple pristupe; doktrina ljudskih prava i iz nje proistekli dominantni ideali društvenog funkcionisanja (participacija, poštovanje različitosti, kooperacija); razvoj informatičkog društva i pomeranje paradigme u poimanju sveta ka sagledavanju sveta kao mreže odnosa. Ekološki pogled na svet i sistemsko sagledavanje fenomena uslovljavaju promenu paradigme društvenog razvoja sa obrasca rasta na obrazac održivosti, sa naglaska na kulturi samopotvrđivanja ka naglasku na kulturi integracije. (Capra, 1998) Kako ističe Kapra, ova promena paradigme nosi sa sobom promene i u načinu poimanja sveta i u vrednostima koje se promovišu (tabela br. 1). Jedna od tih vrednosti jeste partnerstvo.

Tabela br. 1: Mehanicističko i sistemsko poimanje sveta i promovisanih vrednosti (Capra, 1998: 23)

Poimanje		Vrednosti	
samopotvrđujuće	*integracijsko*	*samopotvrđujuće*	*integracijsko*
racionalno	intuitivno	širenje	očuvanje
analiza	sinteza	takmičenje	saradnja
redukcionističko	holističko	kvantitet	kvalitet
linearno	nelinearno	dominacija	partnerstvo

Dva su značenja pojma partnerstva u svakodnevnoj upotrebi:

1. kao vrsta *poslovne celine*, formalizovano udruživanje kroz koje partneri uzajamno dele dobitak ili gubitak u poslu u koji su zajednički investirali (ortakluk);
2. kao *odnos* između individua ili grupa koje karakteriše uzajamna saradnja i odgovornost u postizanju zajedničkih ciljeva.

Dominantan pristup u određivanju pojma partnerstva jeste da je partnerstvo polazište u odnosima koje proističe iz zajedničkih ciljeva i interesa i realizuje se kroz deljenje resursa i odgovornosti. Neki od primera ovakvog određenja su sledeći:

- *Odnos između dve ili više strana koje su se dogovorile da rade kooperativno prema zajedničkom i/ili kompatabilnom cilju i u kome postoji: podela moći i odgovornosti; povezivanje i deljenje resursa, podela obaveza i zajedničko preuzimanje rizika, kao i međusobna korist* (Rodal & Mulder, 1993, prema: *ECCD Partnership*, 2002) i

- *Odnos između pojedinaca ili institucija koji se bazira na uzajamnim ili komplementarnim potrebama i koji obuhvata deljenje resursa i zajedničko delovanje na obostranu korist.* (John Hopkins Institute for Policy Studies, prema: *Developing,* 1998)

Pojam partnerstva u obrazovanju

Termin partnerstvo je veoma prisutan i u oblasti obrazovanja, pa neki autori (Davies, 2002; Hargreaves, 2002) ističu da je postao „opšta mantra" u obrazovanju. Rut Ajsler govori o neophodnosti redefinisanja celokupnih odnosa u obrazovanju u partnerske. To podrazumeva korenite izmene postojećih socijalnih struktura zasnovanih na modelu dominacije (na autoritativnosti, nejednakosti, strahu i sili) i uspostavljanju modela partnerstva zasnovanog na ravnopravnosti, demokratskim načelima, brizi i staranju. (Eisler, 2002)

Koncept partnerstva je ideal ili model odnosa baziran na pretpostavci da različiti akteri povezuju i udružuju svoje snage i resurse u donošenju odluka i preduzimanju aktivnosti u pravcu zajedničkog cilja, a to je kreiranje optimalnih uslova za obrazovanje, učenje i razvoj deteta. Partnerstvo se određuje kao forma ili struktura odnosa koja podrazumeva odnos među jednakima koji su se saglasili oko zajedničkih ciljeva, zajednički odredili svoje uloge i imaju jednako distribuirani autoritet u donošenju odluka.

Model partnerstva kao forme odnosa među različitim sistemima danas je veoma prisutan u sferi obrazovanja, pa se govori o partnerstvu različitih obrazovnih institucija (npr. škole/vrtića i univerziteta), partnerstvu sa različitim subjektima zajednice (partnerstvo škole/vrtića sa porodicom, poslovnim organizacijama, nevladinim organizacijama; partnerstvo istraživačkih institucija sa nosiocima obrazovne politike), partnerstvu obrazovnih institucija na nivou lokalne zajednice ili šire (npr. partnerstvo različitih univerziteta u realizaciji studijskih programa). Isto tako, partnerstvo se razmatra kao kvalitet odnosa koji se uspostavlja između različitih aktera u obrazovanju, pa se govori o partnerskom odnosu u nastavi, u procesu učenja, među zaposlenima.

U literaturi iz oblasti obrazovanja nailazimo na različita određenja ovog pojma. Zbog velikog broja i raznolikosti ovih definicija, u tabeli 2 br. data je sinteza *obrazaca* u definisanju partnerstva, obavljena na osnovu analize literature o odnosu porodice i javnog vaspitanja.[3]

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[3] Analiza je obuhvatala teorijske studije (16 monografija i 56 članaka), istraživanja (24 članka i 2 sintezne monografije), programe i evaluacije programa (14 članaka i 8 sinteznih monografija), priručnike (17 i 5 veb sajtova) i legislativu (5 monografija, 1 sintezna monografija i 9 veb sajtova).

Tabela br. 2: Obrasci definisanja partnerstva

1. Ne postoji definicija
Na prvi pogled iznenađujuće, ali u velikom broju radova koji se bave partnerstvom ne postoji definicija partnerstva. Termin partnerstvo se koristi za označavanje poželjnog oblika odnosa, ističe se važnost partnerstva, govori se o efektima, navode se područja realizacije i problemi u uspostavljanju, bez preciziranja značenja samog termina.[*]
2. Definisanje partnerstva kao organizacione forme
Partnerstvo se definiše kao organizacija ili entitet sastavljen od dva člana ili više članova. Članovi su partneri.   *Partnerstvo je organizacija, tj. socijalni entitet u kome su ljudi uključeni na zajedničkom poslu, koja je usmerena na obostranu dobit koju partneri, pojedinačno, ne bi mogli da ostvare.* (Clifford & Millar, 2007)
3. Definisanje kroz položaj u aktivnosti ili organizaciji
Definisanje položaja u odnosu na drugog u nekoj aktivnosti ili organizaciji ili širem odnosu.   Npr. *U tom procesu (aktivnosti, nastojanju i sl.) roditelji su partneri škole; partneri univerziteta u projektu su (određene) škole.*
4. Definisanje kroz druge oblike interpersonalnih ili interorganizacionih odnosa
Interpersonalni odnosi: saradnja, kooperacija, kolaboracija, mreža.   *Partnerstvo je kolaborativni odnos između dve strane, a uključivanje roditelja je sredstvo za njegovo uspostavljanje.* (Deslandes, 2001)   Interorganizacioni odnosi: konzorcijum, udruženje, joint venture, alijansa, kolaborat.   *Partnerstvo je alijansa između roditelja i nastavnika s ciljem podrške napretka škole i boljeg uspeha sve dece.* (Swap, 1993)
5. Manifestno određenje
Definisanje kroz područja i/ili oblike realizacije.   *Partnerstvo se realizuje kroz pet bazičnih tipova interaktivnih odnosa: 1. dvosmerna komunikacija, 2. podrška deteta, porodice i programa, 3. učenje jedni o drugima i kako da rade zajedno, 4. deljenje odgovornosti, 5. kolaboracija u donošenju odluka i zastupanju.* (Chrispeels & Rivero, 2000, prema: Henderson & Mapp, 2002)
6. Definisano
Kroz polazište   *Partnerstvo se zasniva na premisi da partneri imaju zajedničke osnove za delovanje i osećanje međusobne zavisnosti koje podupire njihovo udruživanje.* (Swick, 2001)   Kroz proces   *Model odnosa zasnovan na međusobnoj razmeni u kojoj uče iz uzajamnog znanja i iskustva.* (Bouchard et al., 2001)   Kroz svojstva (karakteristike odnosa)   *Odnos koji karakteriše deljenje smisla, uzajamno poštovanje i spremnost da se angažuje.* (Pugh, prema: Rabuscova, 2002)   Integrativna definicija koja sadrži određenje kroz polazišta, proces i prirodu odnosa.   *Partnerstvo kao reciprocitet – deljenje (iako ne jednake) moći, odgovornost, razmena koja počinje slušanjem drugog, dijalogom i uzajamnim davanjem i uzimanjem, zajednički ciljevi zasnovani na zajedničkim vrednostima, prepoznavanje razlika i saglasnost za zajedničke aktivnosti u pravcu zajedničkog cilja.* (Bastiani, 2003)   *Partnerstvo se zasniva na uzajamnom poverenju, zajedničkim ciljevima i dvosmernoj komunikaciji.* (Deslandes, 2001)

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[*] Potvrdu čestog odsustva definicije partnerstva našli smo i u radu Matju Kliforda i Suzan Miler (Clifford and Millar, 2007) koji se odnosi na evaluaciju partnerstva univerziteta i škole u okviru SCALA (Syistem-Wide Change for All Learners and Educators) projekta. Prema njihovim rezultatima, od 77 analiziranih članaka koji se bave ovom problematikom u 40% slučajeva ne postoji definicija partnerstva.

Izmešano
Ovo su definicije kojima je izmešano više obrazaca određenja (npr. određenje kroz područja i organizacionu formu).
*Partnerstvo obuhvata dugoročno obavezivanje, uzajamno poštovanje, širok opseg uključivanja porodice i edukatora na različitim nivoima aktivnosti i deljenje odgovornosti u planiranju i donošenju odluka.* (Swap, 1993)
Partnerstvo karakterišu: zajednički ciljevi i koristi, odnos poverenja, otvorena komunikacija, podržavajući odnosi, zajedničko odlučivanje, efektivno liderstvo. (McCullum, 2000)

Dva modela partnerstva

U području obrazovanja mogu se uočiti dva pristupa u sagledavanju partnerstva, pri čemu je prvi nesumnjivo dominantan, odražavajući uobičajeni pristup partnerstvu i u drugim sferama delatnosti (šema br. 1).

Takav pristup nazvaćemo polazišno-utilitaristički. On se zasniva na postavci da partnerstvo proističe iz postojanja komplementarnih interesa i podudarnih ciljeva koji su osnov za deljenje zajedničkog smisla i iz čega sledi proces zajedničkih aktivnosti. Po ovom pristupu, budući da npr. porodica i škola imaju preklapajuće sfere interesa i delovanja, a to je dete i njegovo obrazovanje, identifikacijom i definisanjem zajedničkih ciljeva između njih uspostavlja se partnerstvo koje se potom ispoljava kroz proces zajedničkih aktivnosti.
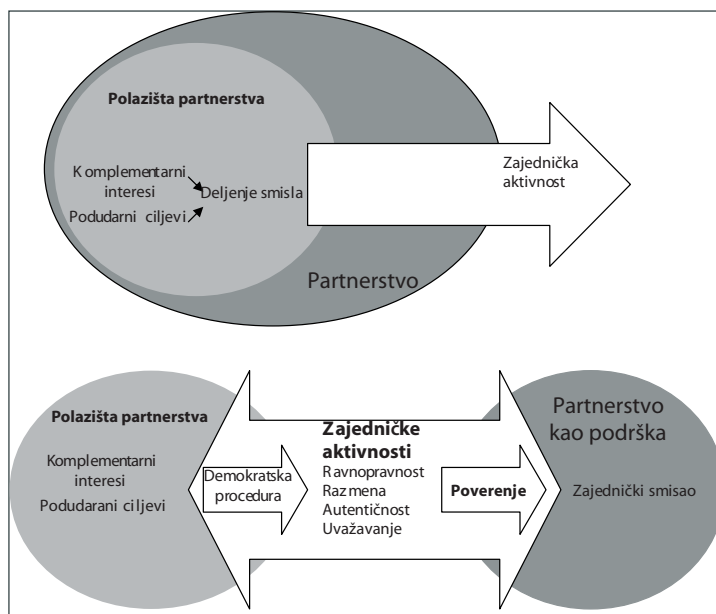
Šema br. 1: Polazišno-utilitaristički i procesno-podržavajući model partnerstva

Drugi pristup u određenju partnerstva nazvaćemo procesno-podražavajući. Po njemu, komplementarni interesi i podudarni ciljevi samo su polazište za razvijanje partnerstva, ali da bi se partnerstvo uspostavilo, neophodan je *proces* zajedničkih aktivnosti kojim se izgrađuje *poverenje* i zajednički smisao i čiji je ishod partnerstvo kao uzajamna podrška. Partnerstvo u ovom slučaju nije polazište nego proces čiji je ishod podrška. Postojanje komplementarnih interesa i podudarnih ciljeva pretpostavka je (razlog je) uspostavljanja odnosa, ali se time ne određuje *priroda* tog odnosa – partnerstvo ne proističe iz podudarnosti i komplementarnosti interesa i ciljeva. Priroda odnosa kao partnerskog uspostavlja se kroz proces interakcija koji odlikuje ravnopravnost, razmena, autentičnost i uvažavanje, kao osnove za uzajamno poverenje.

Iz ovakvih različitih određenja proističu i različite operacionalizacije partnerstva:

1. U okviru prvog pristupa operacionalizacija je manifestna: partnerski odnos se operacionalizuje kroz organizacione strukture i područja delovanja. Partnerstvo se svodi na manifestovane organizacione strukture i oblike realizacije odnosa. Npr. u ovakvoj operacionalizaciji odnosa škole i porodice akcenat je na oblicima saradnje sa porodicom, njihovoj raznovrsnosti i učestalosti i obuhvatu roditelja, pa se govori o partnerstvu u području komunikacije, upravljanja, učešća roditelja u programu, razvijanju roditeljskih kapaciteta i sl. i iz toga proisteklim različitim oblicima saradnje sa porodicom (npr. roditeljski sastanci, individualni obrazovni planovi, volontiranje roditelja).

2. U drugom pristupu reč je o supstancijalnoj operacionalizaciji, kojom se partnerstvo određuje kroz prirodu i karakteristike samog odnosa. Supstancijalna operacionalizacija otvara suštinsko pitanje *prirode* i *kvaliteta* odnosa: pitanje uzajamnog poverenja, razmene i jednakosti moći. Supstancijalno sagledavanje odnosa predstavlja izazov za status pojedinih aktera u odnosu jer podrazumeva deljenje moći, a ne posedovanje moći nad drugima na osnovu statusa ili hijerarhije znanja. Npr. u odnosu istraživača i praktičara ovakav odnos podrazumeva promenu statusa praktičara iz objekta proučavanja u subjekta istraživanja i predstavlja izazov za ekspertski status istraživača; u odnosu porodice i škole ovakav odnos predstavlja izazov za zaposlene u školi i njihov ekspertski status (kao onih koji „znaju šta treba"), jer supstancijalni partnerski odnos podrazumeva da je znanje roditelja isto toliko važno kao znanje profesionalaca, njime se roditeljima daje pravo glasa, deli se moć sa roditeljima u zajedničkom odlučivanju, upravljanju i učenju i isključuje se ekskluzivno pravo na istinu. (Hughes, 2007)

Obe operacionalizacije nose ograničenja. U prvom slučaju zanemaruju se priroda i kvalitet samih odnosa (pa se npr. realizuju oblici saradnje koje osmišljavaju eksperti *za* roditelje). U drugom slučaju odnos se sagledava kao dijadni sistem uzajamnog poverenja, jednakosti i razmene a zanemaruju se šire kontekstualne dimenzije kojima se odnosi oblikuju, kao što su npr. politika obrazovanja, dominantni kulturni modeli, organizacioni kontekst.

Sistemsko određenje partnerstva

Sistemski pristup određenju partnerstva podrazumeva holističko, kontekstualno i procesno sagledavanje odnosa iz tri perspektive: holističke perspektive, kojom se sagledavaju odnosi u kontekstu („ptičija perspektiva" prema Banatiju (Banathy, 1991); strukturalno-funkcionalne perspektive, kojom se sagledavaju pojedine dimenzije i subdimenzije i njihova uzajamna povezanost, i procesne perspektive, kojom se sagledavaju uzajamnost, dinamičnost i promena.

Kontekstualno i holističko sagledavanje partnerstva podrazumeva sagledavanje partnerstva kao kompleksnog sistema različitih, uzajamno uslovljenih, uzajamno povezanih i uzajamno zavisnih dimenzija koje ga određuju. Pri tome, poimanje konteksta nije statično, kao nezavisnih struktura odnosa, već se kontekst sagledava „kroz interakciju u kojoj su svi aktivni, u uzajamnoj sprezi i pod uzajamnim uticajem" (Bronferbrener, 1985: 17) i zasniva na *relacionom poimanju konteksta* u kome delovi i celina uzajamno oblikuju jedni druge i nema *a priori* značajnijeg uticaja nijednog konteksta nad kontekstima koji su u njega uklopljeni, niti subordiniranosti konteksta (Datnow et al., 2002).

Identifikovali smo četiri ovako shvaćene dimenzije odnosa: društvenu, programsku, personalnu i organizacionu.

Društvena dimenzija. Društveni kontekst istovremeno oblikuje sve aktere u odnosu, kao i njihov uzajamni odnos. Društveni kontekst je kompleksan, multilevelan, uzajamno uslovljen i dinamičan sistem koji obuhvata dimenzije socijalnog konteksta, kulturnog konteksta, prosvetne politike kao izraza dominantnih društvenih potreba i određenja funkcije obrazovanja, kao i naučne paradigme iz koje sagledavamo ove odnose i aktuelnih naučnih saznanja. Društveni kontekst determiniše kulturna obeležja i ideale, funkcije različitih sistema i organizacija, kao i socijalne uloge različitih aktera. Iz različitih socijalnih uloga sledi različitost perspektiva, očekivanja i značenja koje pojedini akteri imaju i u odnosu na obrazovanje i na uzajamni odnos (npr. različitost socijalnih uloga istraživača u odnosu na praktičare u obrazovanju).

Programska dimenzija. Odnos partnerstva uspostavlja se i realizuje u okviru određenog programa. Praksa programa reflektuje određena polazišta o akterima partnerskog odnosa i, shodno tome, određuje njihov položaj i uloge. Bitne subdimenzije programa, koje ne moraju biti i najčešće nisu do kraja eksplicitne i elaborirane u programskom konceptu, jesu: programski pristup drugom akteru (npr. program saradnje istraživača sa praksom: da li polazi od deficitarnog pristupa praksi koju eksperti treba da poboljšavaju ili se bazira na pristupu razvoja kapaciteta vaspitne prakse kroz uzajamnu podršku); polazište za uspostavljanje odnosa (da li je to potreba istraživača, škole ili njihov odnos); programske uloge aktera (npr. praktičari kao objekti podučavanja i istraživanja ili kao participatori; nosioci prosvetne politike u istraživačkom projektu kao sukreatori ili nadzor).

Organizaciona dimenzija. Program je nerazdvojiv od konteksta – on realno ne postoji mimo određenog konteksta. Neposredni kontekst realizacije programa je organizacija (organizacije) u okviru koje se odnos uspostavlja: njena struktura i kultura, kao i područja delovanja, oblikuju ovaj odnos.

Personalna dimenzija. Koliko god da ove interakcije oblikuju i na njih utiču određeni društveni kontekst, programska koncepcija i kontekst u kome se program realizuje, one su uvek *lični susret pojedinaca* kroz koji se svi navedeni uticaji prelamaju i istovremeno pojedinaca koji te uticaje personalno uobličavaju. Personalna dimenzija obuhvata npr. uverenja o vlastitoj ulozi, doživljaj pozvanosti, doživljaj vlastite moći uticaja, personalnu istoriju odnosa.

Razumevanje i razvijanje odnosa, dakle socijalnih interakcija, jeste pitanje sagledavanja i menjanja položaja subjekta u tim odnosima kroz uloge koje imaju. Partnerske uloge proističu iz rekonstrukcije u sve četiri dimenzije (šema br. 2).

Na nivou društvene dimenzije ovo znači rekonceptualizaciju socijalnih uloga dekonstruisanjem hijerarhijskih odnosa: promenom strukture moći od *moći nad* drugima u *moć sa* drugima. Moć aktera se ne bazira na hijerarhiji ekspertskog znanja ili statusnoj hijerarhiji institucije, nego na potencijalu stvaranja uslova za ojačavanje drugih (čime se razvija *moć za* i vlastito osećanje moći – samopoštovanje) i jača *moć sa*. (Chambers, 2004)

Šema br. 2: Dimenzije partnerskog odnosa

Na programskom nivou to znači razmenu kroz *dijalog* kroz koji će akteri „sagledavati svoja uverenja o deci, podučavanju i učenju ne kao neutralna i nezavisna već kao istorijski i kulturno uslovljena i time otvorena za tumačenje, kriticizam i rekonstrukciju, vlastitu i sa drugima, i podsticanje drugih da čine to isto" (Hughes & MacNaughton, 2007).

Na organizacijskom nivou to znači strukturu i kulturu ustanove (organizacije) kojom se promoviše *pozvanost* (Hoover, 2005; Henderson & Mapp, 2002) i participacija: organizacija prostora i vremena koja omogućava participaciju; transparentne procedure participacije; kultura kolaboracije i kontinuiranog učenja.

Na personalnom nivou to znači *poverenje* kao spremnost da izložimo sebe drugome, izgrađeno kroz socijalne interakcije bazirane na poštovanju, pažnji, integritetu i kompetencijama druge strane. (Bryk & Schneider, prema: Mendoza et al., 2003)

Uzajamno povezane i potkrepljujuće dimenzije (prikazane središnjim kvadratom na šemi br. 2) dijaloga, deljenja moći, poverenja i pozvanosti generišu suštinu partnerstva (spoljašnji obod na šemi br. 2): *mrežu* kao strukturu odnosa koji se zasnivaju na zajedničkoj moći (Capra, 1998) – razvijeni *socijalni kapital* izražen kroz mrežu odnosa kojima se uspostavlja dostupnost resursa (Coleman, 1991; Mendoza et al., 2003); izgrađivanje *zajedničkog značenja; zajedničko dela-*

nje (kolaboracija ili su-delovanje) i *emancipaciju* – jačanje vlastitih kapaciteta za razumevanje obrazovanja i učenje i menjanje društvene prakse.

Socijalni kapital nije generički kapacitet: on se razvija kroz socijalne interakcije i dobija svoj karakter iz prirode interakcija iz kojih se generiše i određenog sistema prakse i podrazumeva odgovarajuće strukturalne kapacitete. (Halverson, 2003) Kakva će, prema tome, biti priroda odnosa, da li će on biti odnos suparništva, uključivanja, saradnje ili partnerstva, ili nešto drugo, zavisi od prirode *procesa* kojima se ove interakcije povezuju i usaglašavaju.
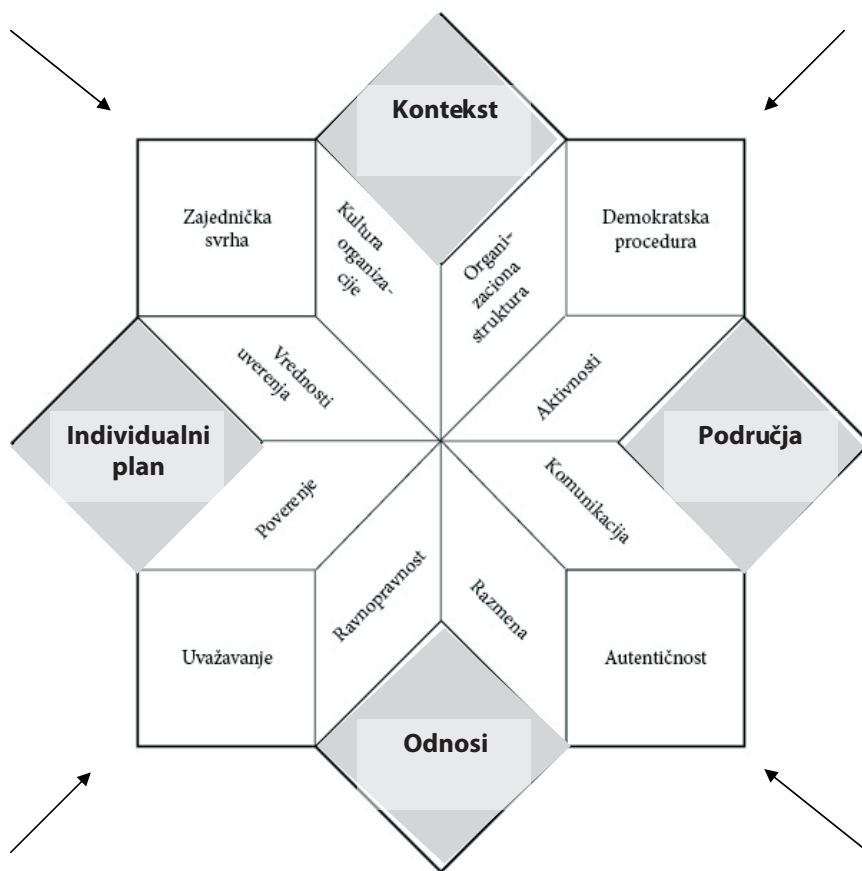
Šema br. 3: Origami „žabica" procesa uspostavljanja partnerstva

Na šemi br. 3 prikazan je proces uspostavljanja partnerstva. Metafora origami „žabice" predstavlja pokušaj grafičkog prikaza celovitog, dinamičnog, uza-

jamno uslovljenog i preklapajućeg procesa čije dimenzije i pojedine aspekte samo za potrebe detaljnijeg određenja možemo prikazivati pojedinačno i izdvojeno.

Model „žabice" ukazuje: prvo, na uzajamnu povezanost dimenzija uspostavljanja *odnosa* partnerstva sa dimenzijama na *individualnom planu*, kroz različita *područja* u dimenzijama organizacijskog *konteksta*; drugo, na unutrašnju dinamiku kojom se pomeranja jednog aspekta date dimenzije odražavaju na pomeranja u drugima aspektima te dimenzije, ali i u drugim dimenzijama; treće, na isprepletanost i uzajamna preklapanja u kojima pojedini aspekti istovremeno oblikuju više dimenzija; četvrto, na spoljašnju dinamiku: origami se pomera, približava ili udaljava zavisno i od spoljašnjih faktora kao što su program, regulativa, prosvetna politika, širi kulturni kontekst, socijalno determinisane uloge aktera.

Karakteristike odnosa	
Ravnopravnost	*Jednakost u mogućnosti realizacije svojih prava* i moći uticaja u skladu sa svojim pravima. To znači biti jednak *u pravu* na koje se ima pravo, a ne jednakost prava. (Larenz, 1979)
Razmena	Mogućnost uzajamnog poznavanja i izgrađivanje zajedničkog značenja.
Karakteristike Odnosa/Područja	
Autentičnost	Mogućnost ispoljavanja i zadovoljavanja vlastitih potreba, interesa i interesovanja i razvijanje vlastitih kapaciteta.
Karakteristike Odnosa/Individualni plan	
Uvažavanje	Izgradnja vlastitog statusa na bazi kompetencija i podrška razvoju kompetencija drugog.
Područja	
Aktivnosti	„Pošto smo mi ono što radimo, ako želimo da se promenimo, moramo da počnemo sa promenama onoga što radimo" (Wills, prema: Donahoe, 1993: 166). Odnos sa drugima izgrađuje se kroz zajedničko polje delovanja, učešćem u mreži recipročnih obaveza i dužnosti i zajedničkih aktivnosti. Time se pružaju mogućnosti učesnicima da se u realizaciji zajedničkih zadataka i interesa oslone jedni na druge i u tom procesu se izgrađuje uzajamno poverenje i reputacija (pouzdanost drugog aktera) Organizacije sa visokim nivoom socijalnog kapitala imaju visok nivo pouzdanosti među članovima. Uspostavljanje prakse poverenja pomaže ljudima da kroz razmenu ostvaruju pristup i uzajamno korišćenje resursa. (Halverson, 2003)
Komunikacija	Područje komunikacije je osnov za uspostavljanje odnosa. Stepen i kvalitet komunikacije oblikuje uzajamne odnose i način realizacije odnosa. Komunikacija prožima sva druga područja aktivnosti i realizuje se i kroz različite oblike i tipove aktivnosti u drugim područjima, kao što se druga područja i oblici dominantno realizuju kroz komunikaciju. Komunikacija ne podrazumeva samo uzajamnu razmenu informacija, već pre svega dijalog kao proces izgrađivanja zajedničkog značenja kojim ojačavaju kolektivne težnje i istovremeno se akteri menjaju na individualnom planu.

Individualni plan	
Poverenje	Poverenje je spremnost pojedinca ili grupe da izloži sebe drugome na osnovu uverenja da je druga strana benevolentna (da će delovati u našem najboljem interesu), pouzdana (da se možemo osloniti i računati na nju), kompetentna (verovanje u sposobnost druge strane da će uspešno obaviti ono što proističe iz njene uloge), poštena (stepen do kog druga osoba ili institucija manifestuje integritet, govori istinu i realno prikazuje stanje) i otvorena (stepen do kog druga strana podržava komunikaciju i razmenjuje informacije). (Hoy & Tschannem-Moran, Railsback, 2003)
Vrednosti	Vrednosti (šta se smatra važnim, šta je dobro, šta je standard za vredno); verovanja kao kognitivno poimanje istine i realnosti (Ott, 1989: prema Peterson, 2002); norme kao mreža postavljenih očekivanja u vezi s različitim aspektima socijalnih odnosa (očekivano poželjno ponašanje, adekvatno oblačenje, primereni jezik); pretpostavke kao podsvesni sistemi verovanja, percepcije i vrednosti (pretpostavke o zainteresovanosti i potencijalima druge strane, o ulogama) određuju načine na koji mislimo i delamo.
Kontekst	
Struktura	Organizacionu strukturu ustanove (infrastrukturu) čine: organizacija prostora, infrastruktura aktivnosti (radno vreme, raspored aktivnosti, način tranzicije, organizacija rutinskih aktivnosti); struktura zaposlenih (broj, obrazovanje, pol, fluktuacija, struktura odnosa među zaposlenima). Upravo elementi infrastrukture, kao realno opaženo i doživljeno, nose poruku o stvarnom položaju i ulogama aktera vaspitne prakse.[**] (Pavlović-Breneselović, 1990) Kulture ne postoje u vakuumu; one su uspostavljene u strukturama vremena i prostora. Ove strukture oblikuju odnose. (Hargreaves, 1995) Bitni elementi strukture, kada govorimo o procesu uspostavljanja partnerstva, jesu: 1. pitanje organizacione strukture zaposlenih sa dva, uzajamno povezana, aspekta, a to su postojanje uzajamno zavisnih uloga (struktura timskog rada umesto strukture izolacije) i pitanje moći i autonomije organizacije; 2. vreme i 3. fizička bliskost kao prostorna struktura kojom se omogućava neposredna i kontinuirana interakcija (npr. pitanje veličina ustanove, postojanje prostora za zajedničko delanje, otvorenost prostora).
Kultura	Kultura organizacije, kao sistem vrednosti, pravila, verovanja, znakova, simbola i rituala, jeste organski deo organizacijske zajednice. Ako se kultura menja, sve se menja. Kulturu organizacije čine zajednički smisao i svrha koji ne moraju biti, i najčešće nisu, identični proklamovanoj funkciji i zvaničnim ciljevima programa; vrednosti, norme i pretpostavke; rituali, tradicije i ceremonije, institucionalna istorija kao manifestacija vrednosti, zajedničkog smisla, pripadništva i normi; arhitektura, artefakti i simboli kao elementi fizičkog prostora kojima se manifestuju vrednosti, norme i pretpostavke. Kultura organizacije se manifestuje kroz odgovarajuće obrasce ponašanja, socijalne norme i mentalne modele i formira naše tumačenje i doživljaj odnosa i aktivnosti. Prema Petersonu (Peterson & Deal, 2002), ona određuje fokus (šta smatramo važnim); predanost (stepen do kog se identifikujemo sa onim što radimo); motivaciju (spremnost da na tome radimo); produktivnost (stepen do kog ostvarujemo cilj).

[**] „Ideologija je u stvari sistem predstavljanja, ali u većini slučajeva ove predstave nemaju nikakve veze sa svešću. One se velikoj većini ljudi nameću pre svega kao strukture; one su opaženi-prihvaćeni-doživljeni objekti" (Altiser, 1971, prema Pavlović-Breneselović, 1990).

Kontekst/Područja	
Demokratska procedura	Razvijena i transparentna procedura kojom se omogućava razmena, autentičnost i ravnopravnost kroz postojanje razvijenih i transparentnih struktura kroz koje se ostvaruje komunikacija kao što su zajednički sastanci, pisana komunikacija, neformalni susreti i sl. i pravila i procedure kojima se regulišu procesi donošenja odluka, podela uloga, preuzimanje vođstva i razrešavanje konflikata.
Kontekst/Individualni plan	
Zajednička svrha	Iz poverenja se, kroz zajedničke aktivnosti, artikuliše zajednička svrha i smisao odnosa kao uzajamne *podrške*, jer je poverenje osnov socijalnog kapitala. Zajednički ciljevi (vrednosti i svrha) pokreću naše delanje i determinišu kulturu, a kultura istovremeno proističe iz kompatibilne strukture i oslanja se na nju.

Partnerstvo smo iz ove perspektive odredili kao proces realizacije „odnosa sa" zasnovan na komplementarnim ciljevima i interesima, koji karakteriše ravnopravnost, autentičnost, razmena, uvažavanje i koji se realizuje u razvijenoj demokratskoj proceduri kroz komunikaciju i učešće u zajedničkim aktivnostima u kompatibilnom kontekstu.

„Odnos sa" kao način realizacije odnosa nije fenomen sam po sebi, on je konstrukcija koja se izgrađuje i manifestuje kroz zajedničko polje delovanja i zavisi i od našeg „odnosa prema" (uverenja, očekivanja, vrednosti) i od celokupnog konteksta delovanja. „Odnos sa" izgrađuje se u *procesu delanja* i ne može se uneti spolja kao zahtev ili gotov obrazac. Kakva će biti priroda odnosa, da li će on biti partnerski, zavisi od naših težnji i verovanja, ali i od procesa kroz koji se realizuje u datom kontekstu. Iz toga sledi:

1. Promene karaktera odnosa u partnerske ne mogu se uneti kao gotovi obrasci ili zahtevi spolja – one se dešavaju kroz proces realizacije tih odnosa među *subjektima* interakcije u određenom *kontekstu*.

2. Promene karaktera odnosa u partnerske ne mogu se uspostaviti izmenama u pojedinom području delovanja unošenjem gotovih modela odnosa, već se promene dešavaju kroz *interaktivni proces razvijanja* takvih modela. Npr. unošenjem nekog novog oblika saradnje sa porodicom ne menjamo automatski karakter odnosa porodice i vrtića. Ono što ga menja jeste *proces* uspostavljanja i realizacije tog oblika – koliko odražava autentične potrebe porodice, koliko proističe iz razmene i zajedničkog razumevanja.

3. Priroda (karakteristike) uspostavljenih odnosa *ne može prethoditi* praksi nego *sledi* iz prakse delovanja. Partnerstvo kao moguća priroda (karakteristike) odnosa nije polazište nego ishod, ono se manifestuje kroz realno uspostavljene odnose u kontekstu delovanja. Npr. uvaža-

vanje kao jedna od dimenzija partnerstva, kao zahtev, ostaje uvek na deklarativnom nivou jer se ne može manifestovati samo po sebi – tek realizacijom odnosa kroz proces delovanja koji se zasniva na orijentaciji na kapacitete, a ne na deficite aktera, organizacionom strukturom kojom se omogućava učešće i dijalog, postojanjem procedura kojima se omogućava uticaj i sl., ostvaruje se uvažavanje.

Da se partnerstvo može propisati, mogli bismo ga zatvoriti kao temu u obrazovanju. To što pitanje partnerstva nije pitanje zahteva, opredeljenja ili forme, već pitanje procesa izgrađivanja odnosa kroz praksu zajedničkog delovanja, čini da se njime moramo uvek iznova baviti.

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Partnership in Education[5]

Abstract: This paper discusses the problems of partnership ranging from the level of value-categories to the operationalization of the concept of partnership in education. Two approaches are described in the analysis: the utilitarian and process-oriented approach, as well as operational levels derived from these approaches. System approach to partnership is elaborated, which includes holistic, contextual and procedural review of the dimensions and characteristics of partnership and provides contextual, structural and procedural definition of partnership.

Keywords: partnership, system approach, social capital.

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Capacity Development for Protected Area Management in Serbia – Needs and Opportunities

Abstract: In the times of global environmental, social and economic challenges affecting all the sectors of human activities, protected areas are perceived as potential models of sustainability. At the same time, however, there is still growing pressure on natural resources, as well as the complexity of its management. In Serbia there is a lack of research in this field, as well as of education initiatives to systematically develop protected area management capacities. Protected area staff profesionalization and stakeholders' empowerment did not find its adequate place neither in national policy nor in practice. In this paper we discuss needs and opportunities for analyzing these capacities, in order to find the best way to improve effectiveness of protected area management in Serbia. Specific national situation in the field is described in the context of international trends and developments. Based on that, some potential steps are recommended, and necessity to develop strategic approach to education in the field especially emphasized.

Key words: protected area management effectiveness, capacity development, education, sustainability.

Overview

During the second half of XX century, number of protected areas (PA) in the World has increased significantly. In first decade of XXI century, there is large network of more than 120 000 nationally designated nature PA worldwide, covering around 11% of the Earth territory. (UNEP-WCMC, 2008)

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Despite the highly recognized importance of PA in terms of its' ecological, economic and social value, they are constantly under the local/national and global threats – from pollution, infrastructure development, overexploiting – to biodiversity loss, climate change and poverty.

Challenging the Planet's ability to sustain, global changes affect different regions and countries respond in accordance with their capacities and circumstances. Especially in years of global economic crisis, in countries with less developed economies there is generally lower capacity to respond to the challenges, including the requirement to effectively manage such a complex systems as PAs are. Experts in the field all around the World are worried nowadays that PA systems are growing far faster than capacity to protect and manage them.

There is a growing awareness that improvement of capabilities of all actors of protected area management and governance is crucial. However, it is still more reflected in international agreements and conclusions of conferences, than in national regulations, policy and financial instruments and system, or strategic education approach.

Protected Area management

Following the definition provided by the World Conservation Union (IUCN), protected area (PA) is "/.../ a clearly defined geographical space recognized, dedicated and managed, through legal or other effective means to achieve the long-term conservation of nature with associated ecosystem services and cultural values" (UNEP-WCMC, 2008).

Widely recognized as a strong mechanism for conserving species and ecosystems and preserving of biodiversity, protected area is currently also considered as a rich source for local development – providing goods and services, such as watersheds, fertile soil as well as opportunities for initiating various forms of sustainable tourism. Beside those, its social dimension is strongly emphasized in many aspects – from its' special cultural and spiritual value for local communities and indigenous people, to its socio economic functions, related to impacts on community livelihood.

Within an effort to standardize approach to PA *management*, World Conservation Union (IUCN) experts developed categorization system, as the standard used by most of the countries nowadays. This classification refers to the management objectives, and doesn't tell much about relationships and responsibilities. Therefore, the term *governance* is more and more in focus of studies of protected areas, addressing who makes decisions and how decision makers are held accountable. (Lockwood, et al., 2006)

Modifying the approach from one focused on "neutral" management to governance categories, changes the view on the factors and actors of successful development of protected area. There is a growing trend to look at the connectivity in terms of regions promoting biodiversity, but at the same time strengthening the links between surrounding communities, their social and economic life – with the life of protected area.

Protected Area management effectiveness

complex nature of protected areas with their ecological, socio – economic and cultural function, varieties of management and governance solutions in different countries, make them at the same time very delicate and challenging potential models of sustainability, and rich learning sources in many ways. In order to reach its sustainability and high education value for the people all around the World, it is necessary to improve the effectiveness of their management.

These trends are widely present in international conservation community nowadays, reflected in globally accepted documents and agreements. One of them is Program of Work on Protected Areas, adopted in 2004, by the Conference of Parties to the CBD, aiming at comprising at least 30% of nationally protected areas at the territory of all the parties with the management effectiveness assessment, by 2010.

It encouraged number of initiatives, such as Global study of management effectiveness, implemented between 2005-2007, by IUCN World Commission on Protected Area. Their methodological framework, comprising context, planning, inputs, processes, outputs and outcomes as main elements of assessment (Hockings, Solton and Dudley, 2000), have been implemented in performing Global study which analyzed information from over 6300 PA in more than 100 countries. With certain modification, this methodology was used as the basis for various research studies organized by other international organizations, such as WWF International (RAPPAM assessment tool), World Bank, UNEP, GEF and UNDP (Tracking Tool), etc.

These studies brought numerous findings useful for improvement of PA managers; its results show that the strongest correlation exists between awareness rising and education programs organized by the PA and effectiveness of it's' management. High correlations are also found between financial and human resource inputs and effectiveness. These assessments and its findings are meant to serve as the source for learning about things that should be improved and capacities to be strengthen on the way to management and governance effectiveness.

Protected Area management and governance capacity

since capacity development is growing issue in current research and practice in most of the fields, there are different approaches and definitions in use. For example, within the UNDP Capacity Assessment Framework, capacity development is defined as "the process through which individuals, organizations and societies obtain, strengthen and maintain the capabilities to set and achieve their own development objectives over time" (UNDP, 2008: 3).

Looking at the capacity development for PA management, similar definitions can be found: "Developing capacity is about facilitating and encouraging a process of transformation or change by which individuals, organizations and societies develop their abilities, both individually and collectively, to perform functions, solve problems, and set and achieve their own goals" (Lockwood, et al., 2006: 165).

Both definitions state that capacity development is process, that it is undergoing at three levels – individual, organization and society – and that it leads to improved capability to perform in more autonomous and effective way.

In this context, we shall look at the capacity for PA as ability to plan, perform, act and reflect on it. It implies that individuals are aware of the goals and needs, being capable of setting and implementing them, but also that they are able and open to learn, formalize and share the knowledge and experience within and between organizations.

In some definitions, capacities are considered as skills, abilities and aptitudes, while in others it is perceived as the role, position and/or potential for some action or a function (Merriam – Webster's online Dictionary).

In majority of nature conservation studies and projects, the focus is on individual capacities, no matter how much authors agree that other levels are important as well. In some cases, the meaning of capacity development is reduced to training initiatives and programs. Being powerful method of capacity development on both individual and organizational level, training is only part of available mechanisms and tools that can be used.

Looking at the capacities for PA management and governance from adult education point of view, we do believe that training should be supported by other development mechanisms. Beside the knowledge and skills gained within training programs, all the actors should be supported by their co-actors, organizations and societies in order to change and constantly improve their views, understanding and ability to implement and share what they have gained through education and communication process. We believe that this wider process of learning is the core of capacity development process – but can't be effective if not strategically designed and supported by financial, policy, legal, political, cultural and institutional mechanisms available within countries. Growing individual and organiza-

tional capacities and creating the climate of learning is prerequisite for maintaining and improving of capabilities. Without that, sustainability of management organizations and protected areas is seriously under the question.

Before all the other steps, the most basic one is to find out what capacities exist in reality. Again, many different approaches are being applied in this process. Most often, training and learning programs were designed based on basic training needs assessments, experts' views or donors' expectations. It resulted in partial, ad hoc and project driven training programs as part of capacity development in PA management/governance field, without deep understanding of differences between protected areas, its governance, and countries.

Recent trends show that competence approach is taking more and more credits among researchers and practitioners in the field. Understanding competences as complex set of knowledge, skills, and practical experience in performing activities within their job/profession, authors are trying to recognize and recommend standards, as a framework to be used by different sites/systems/countries depending on their own characteristics. Analyzing jobs and activities at one and existing training offers at another side, it is possible to identify gaps as a starting point in further development of training curricula, job descriptions, policy decisions, and, generally, in creating more effective management strategies.

Protected area management in Serbia

The national system of protected areas in Serbia is composed of: national parks (NPs), nature reserves, nature parks, landscapes and natural monuments. Several protected areas in Serbia have international designation: Golija-Studenica Biosphere Reserve, and nine Ramsar sites: Ludas Lake, Obedska bara, Stari Begej – Carska bara, Slano Kopovo, Peštersko polje and Labudovo okno, Gornje Podunavlje, Zasavica and Vlasina. There are 38 Important Bird Areas as well as 10 Green Belt and Transboundary Areas.

Currently, 6.2% of the Serbian territory is legally protected covering nearly 600.000 ha.

All national parks in Serbia are managed by public enterprises (PE) established by the Act of National Parks ("Official Journal of the Republic of Serbia" no. 39/93, Articles 22 and 23). Other protected areas categories are mostly managed by PE "Serbia Forests" while for the rest different public or business entities and, in few cases, nongovernmental organizations, are responsible.

Table 1: Protected areas network in Serbia*

Protected area category	Number of areas
National Parks	5
Nature Parks	16
Landscapes	15
Nature Reserves	70
Nature Monuments	284
TOTAL	**428**

*Source: Ministry of Environment and Special Planning of Republic of Serbia

Area can be proposed for designation by national authorities, legal or physical entities at national, regional or local level. The area is officially designated based on the experts' study prepared by the Institute for the Protection of Nature of Serbia, and decision can be made by National Assembly (for National Parks), National, Provincial or Local Government (depending of the significance of the area).

Management categories of PA in Serbia are harmonized with the IUCN classification and standards.

Capacities for Protected Area management and governance

At national level, the main authority in charge is Ministry of Environmental Protection and Spatial Planning of Republic of Serbia (MESP), while the main experts' institution is the Institute for the Protection of Nature of Serbia. All the protected areas at National level are reporting to the National Ministry, while those designated at the Provincial (Vojvodina) and Local level, are reporting to adequate authorities at those particular levels.

The Law on Environmental Protection and the Nature Protection Law are the main legislative documents in the field. The National Environmental Strategy is elaborated along with the National Environmental Action Plan (NEAP) for the mid-term period (2007-2016). The National Strategy on Biodiversity Protection and Action Plan are in progress, coordinated by UNDP Serbia and supported by GEF. Laws and regulations in this field are as most of the others, in the process of harmonization with EU legal framework.

PA may be financed from the national Budget, Fund for Environmental Protection, taxes for using the PA resources, income from their own activities, projects and other donations. In most cases, the percentage of costs covered by public funds is approximately 5-10% of the total operational costs. The PA

budget of the MESP covers at best partly the operational costs and it shows a decreasing trend. Therefore, most of the PAs in Serbia suffer from inadequate funding and are pushed to find their own way in providing finances. Shortage of funds is directly affecting development of all other capacities within PA management organization.

This especially applies to nongovernmental organizations and small public enterprises managing PAs in Serbia. The only advantage of some NGOs in these terms is their capacity for preparing and conducting projects, knowledge of the donor community's strategies and expectations, as well as flexibility in work. Besides that, NGOs and units within some other enterprises are usually protected from political changes in appointing top management of PA organizations, which is especially influencing National Park directors.

Lack of funding, strategic planning and continuity in work, as well as appropriate system's support, affect opportunities for planning the improvement of PA management at organizational and individual level. Initiatives to meet these needs are fragmented and occasional, or project based. Years of economic sanctions towards Serbia affected opportunities to use donor funds, which made the situation even more complex.

Management effectiveness of Protected Areas in Serbia

First analysis of Management effectiveness of PAs in Serbia has been performed in February 2009, within the workshop organized by the Ministry and supported by WWF Mediterranean. Representatives of three National Parks and 13 other PA categories management bodies were there to self evaluate effectiveness of their performance, within facilitated process of using Rapid Assessment and Prioritization of Protected Area Management (RAPPAM) questionnaire.

As mentioned above, WWF's RAPPAM draws on an evaluation framework developed by the World Commission on Protected Areas (WCPA) of World Conservation Union (IUCN). In last years, RAPPAM assessments have been performed in number of countries, including our neighbouring Bulgaria, Romania, Croatia and Montenegro. The questionnaire is slightly modified in accordance with Serbian local characteristics, and questions related to evaluation of the context, biological, socio economic values and vulnerability were excluded.

Among the main actual pressures perceived by the participants, there is water resources management, unsolved property and legal issues as well as land use change. Water resource management is also high on the scale of foreseen threats along with the tourism and recreation development. (Piščević and Orlović-Lovren, 2009)

Evaluation concerning planning, investments and processes of management, according to PA representatives, reflects the opinion that the strengths are in planning, legal security and infrastructure, while the weakest points are financial and human resources – including the attractiveness of PA jobs, opportunities for professional improvement and training. The level of cooperation with local communities is relatively low in majority of areas, especially in terms of common planning and decision making. Results of scientific studies are often not accessible and in some cases not appropriate to needs of the area. (Ibid.)

It is interesting to compare these briefly reviewed results of the assessment with those performed in some of neighbouring countries. In Romania, for instance, there is high similarity in most of the weaknesses perceived by PA representatives, such as :lack of medium and long term strategy for the national system of protected areas, low level of available resources, long term financial instability, staff hiring conditions, lack of specific training, etc. (Stanciu and Steindlegger, 2006)

Similar results were gained from the assessment in Croatia, in terms of human resources, where number of employees, employment conditions and retaining of high quality staff are perceived as weak points. Unlike in Serbia and Romania, there is satisfaction found among PA representatives with the financing of PAs in last five years, as well as percieved stability in long term financing. (Croatia, 2009)

Conclusion

Modern approach to PA management comprises both scientific and socio – economic dimensions. There is a growing evidence that communication skills and continuous improvement of knowledge and knowhow are crucial for protected area management effectivenes . One of the most important dimension of sustainability is cooperation with local community and common development. One of the prerequisits of development is continuous learning and ability to implement it.

In Serbia there is lack of understanding and practicing of this concept of PA management. Financial recources are insufficient, and criteria for budget funds' distribution not always clear and transparent. There are unharmonized regulations in fields relevant for this activity. Protected areas are not adequatly open to community and thus not supported by them. There is high demand for qualified staff and better working conditions. Only sporadic training programs

are organized for PA staff and learning opportunities within organizations for management are not being strategically developed.

Obviously, there are serious gaps between existing and desired capacities to manage PAs effectively in Serbia. In order to overcome it, it is necessary to better understand it. Thorough analysis of individual and organization capacities is needed, as well as improvement of the financial and social support to PA managers. Training needs and competences analysis on the way of increasing capacities are necessary starting steps in this process.

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Razvoj kapaciteta za upravljanje zaštićenim prirodnim područjima – potrebe i mogućnosti

Apstrakt: U vreme globalnih ekoloških, socijalnih i ekonomskih izazova koji utiču na sve oblasti ljudskog delovanja, zaštićena prirodna područja se opažaju kao potencijalni modeli održivosti. Istovremeno, međutim, raste pritisak na prirodne resurse, kao i kompleksnost upravljanja njima. U Srbiji nedostaju istraživanja ovih problema, kao i obrazovne inicijative za sistematski razvoj kapaciteta za upravljanje zaštićenim prirodnim područjima. Profesionalizacija osoblja zaštićenih prirodnih područja i podrška snaženju zainteresovanih strana još uvek ne zauzimaju adekvatan prostor u nacionalnoj politici niti praksi. U radu se razmatraju potrebe i mogućnosti analize ovih kapaciteta, kako bi se pronašao najbolji put za unapređenje efektivnosti upravljanja zaštićenim prirodnim područjima u Srbiji. Dat je kratak prikaz specifičnosti nacionalnih prilika u ovoj oblasti, u kontekstu međunarodnih trendova i dešavanja. Polazeći od toga, predloženi su mogući koraci, uz poseban naglasak na neophodnost razvoja strateškog pristupa obrazovanju u ovom domenu.

Ključne reči: efektivnost upravljanja zaštićenim prirodnim područjem, razvoj kapaciteta, obrazovanje, održivost.

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Proces profesionalnog razvoja iz ekološke paradigme[2]

Apstrakt: Rad se bavi otkrivanjem mogućnosti i ograničenja profesionalnog razvoja iz perspektive ekološke paradigme. Ekološka paradigma pokušava da shvati čoveka kao skup energije koji sa svojom okolinom čini jedinstveno energetsko polje u kojem su promene međusobno povezane, dok razvoj čine sinergijski procesi i interakcija svih delova sistema. U integraciji velikog broja različitih, nelinearnih procesa u profesionalnom razvoju nastaju mogućnosti za promenu ukupnog konteksta profesionalnog delovanja, pri čemu se u svakom kontekstu grade autentični putevi promene. Pitanja profesionalnog razvoja zaposlenih u obrazovanju sagledana su na osnovu samo nekih procesa kao što su otvorenost, samoregulacija i umrežavanje. Profesionalni razvoj iz perspektive ekološke paradigme predstavlja model profesionalnog razvoja usmeren na samoregulaciju i učenje kroz stalnu razmenu u kontekstu delovanja, na razvoj samorazumevanja i saradnje, na kapacitet i snagu da se više postavljaju pitanja i istražuje nasuprot jednokratnim ekspertskim obukama, racionalizaciji i standardizaciji.

Ključne reči: ekološka paradigma, profesionalni razvoj zaposlenih, obrazovanje.

Zašto ekološka shvatanja profesionalnog razvoja?

Ekološka paradigma utemeljena je na shvatanju promene „celine" kao uslova promene pojedinca i njegovog razvoja, pri čemu „celina" predstavlja više od zbira njenih pojedinačnih delova a razvoj podrazumeva promene koje nastaju u procesima i doprinose celini strukture. U osnovi razumevanja razvoja, pa tako i profesionalnog razvoja, jesu procesi i održiva promena celine, za razliku od shvatanja

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mehanicističke paradigme koja razvoj shvata kao postignuće i samopotvrđivanje pojedinca.

Tabela br. 1: Odnos mehanicističke i ekološke paradigme (Capra, 1991)

Promena vrednosti		
	Mehanicistička paradigma: samopotvrđivanje	Ekološka paradigma: integracija
Razmišljanje	racionalnost	intuicija
	analiza	sinteza
	redukcija	jedinstvo
Vrednosti	ekspanzija	održanje
	kvantitet	kvalitet
	konkurencija	saradnja
	moć	ravnopravnost

Ako bismo pokušali da predstavimo model profesionalnog razvoja na osnovu leve strane tabele, on bi mogao izgledati ovako: postoje utvrđene društvene strukture (državne, naučne i stručne institucije i udruženja, škola, dečji vrtić...), i postoje osmišljeni i uređeni mehanizmi (regulativa, programi, oblici stručnog usavršavanja) hijerarhijskog niza struktura, odnosno osmišljeni načini kako strukture deluju na strukture unutar sistema. Iz njihovog delovanja nastaju procesi koji su značajni za profesionalni razvoj pojedinca a koji rezultiraju postignućem. Ekološka paradigma polazi od drugačijeg modela: procesi određuju organizacijski obrazac strukture, oni prevazilaze okvire jedne strukture i povezuju sve strukture. Procesi (komunikacija, samoorganizacija, autonomija, umrežavanje, otvorenost, kružna uzročnost) u našem primeru, značajni za profesionalni razvoj, nastaju u odnosima profesionalaca i njihovog okruženja, njihovoj interakciji i integraciji, i dinamičnim vezama povezuju društvene strukture tako da one ne mogu postojati nezavisno jedne od drugih (institucije obrazovanja, naučne institucije, politika obrazovanja...). Procesi povezivanja su kompleksni, uključuju „različita preklapanja“ (Urry, 2004: 8) društvenih struktura i zbog toga se grade kao nelinearni a ne hijerarhijski odnosi. Nelinearni procesi u stalnom protoku energije prave mrežu odnosa i grade „otvoreni sistem“. (Bertalanffi, prema: Capra, 1998: 50)

Šta je izvor tih procesa, šta pokreće promenu prema ekološkom modelu? Najšire gledano, ekološka paradigma polazi od novijih shvatanja fizike i biologije,
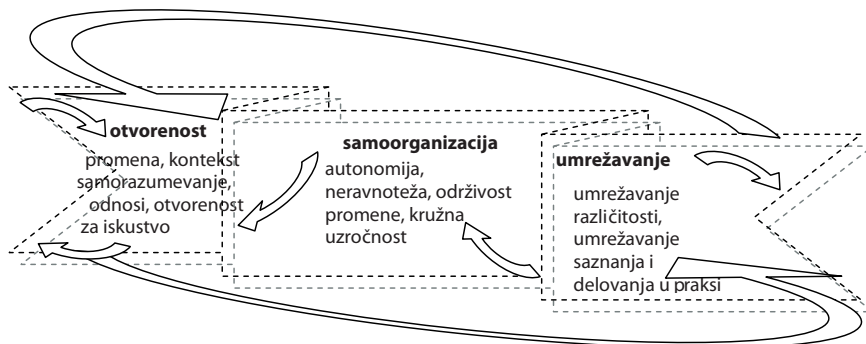
o protoku energije kao izvoru i pokretaču promena. Čovek je, kao i svaki živi organizam, skup energije koji je povezan i umrežen u energetskom polju sa svim drugim organizmima i stvarima. Svako ljudsko biće je, takođe, otvoren sistem u kontinuiranoj razmeni energije sa svojom okolinom. Dakle, sve što je u društvenim sistemima, kao ekosistemima, ne može biti u izolaciji, svaki deo je „uronjen" u jedan sistem, koji je povezan i umrežen dinamičnim, nelinearnim odnosima. Žive sisteme čini „otvorenim sistemima" (Ibid., 50) stalni protok energije kao proces, resurs i uzrok svih promena. Energija se stalno transformiše, ali se pri tome transformišu i strukture koje učestvuju u procesima razmene. Na osnovu stalne razmene energije i materije čovek sa svojim okruženjem čini jedinstveno energetsko polje u kojem su promene, kao i razvoj, međusobno povezane. Razvoj društvenih sistema, kao i ekosistema, čine odnosi usklađivanja, sinergije (a ne borbe i nestajanja!) „kojima ljudi stalno djeluju jedni na druge kao i na sredinu, jednako kao što i ona djeluje na njih" (Capra, 1998: 85). U odnosu npr. na profesionalni razvoj, procesi utiču na dve vrste promena: one koje nastaju u „samostvaranju" i „samoorganizovanju" (Ibid., 12) unutar društvene strukture i one kojima se stvaraju nove strukture.

Detaljnije posmatrano, ekološka paradigma se bavi „atraktorima" ili „privlačivačima" (Ibid., 129), pokretačima promene. Oni predstavljaju skup vrednosti prema kojima teži obrazac ponašanja ili funkcionisanja, odnosno „vrednosti prema kojima teži promena strukture u određenom vremenu" (Clayton, prema: Marinić, 2008: 164). U društvenim strukturama vrednosti ili privlačivači osetljivi su na početne uslove u celoj strukturi ili na njen prethodni obrazac funkcionisanja. Dakle, vrednosti kojima se teži, kao izvori promene, zasnovani su na vrednostima i obrascima ponašanja date društvene strukture, koji će u određenom vremenu ili situaciji biti slični, ali nikada u potpunosti identični ponašanju u ranijim situacijama. To promenu čini „primerenijom" organizacijskom obrascu celine, ali istovremeno i unapred nepredvidivom, jer se iz svake društvene strukture vrednosti mogu razvijati različito i do najsloženijih odnosa.

Pokušaj da neka shvatanja ekološke paradigme razumemo u profesionalnom razvoju zaposlenih u obrazovanju mogli bismo otvoriti pitanjem procesa koji povezuju društvene strukture, kao i pitanjem odnosa promena u profesionalnom razvoju zaposlenih i promena obrazovnih institucija u celini. Drugim rečima, kako procesi u profesionalnom razvoju zaposlenih doprinose promeni i transformaciji obrazovne institucije, koja je istovremeno i kontekst njihove prakse? Da bismo to razumeli, potrebno je da shvatimo komplementarne odnose i celinu u kojoj se ostvaruje praksa, odnose koji se grade između njenih učesnika, odnose institucija koje se bave obrazovanjem, kao i moguće načine njihove transformacije. Procesi koji pokreću profesionalni razvoj zaposlenih u obrazovanju i

razvoj institucija obrazovanja, kao međuzavisnu i nedeljivu promenu, doprinose da se obrazovna institucija transformiše kao društvena struktura koja olakšava i podstiče razvoj pojedinaca i istovremeno stvara sebi, kao celini, kapacitet da se dalje umrežava i razvija nove veze.

Pogledajmo profesionalni razvoj zaposlenih u obrazovanju kroz tri dimenzije procesa, odnosno mogućnosti za profesionalni razvoj, koje proizlaze iz ekoloških shvatanja: otvorenost, samoorganizaciju i umrežavanje. Navedeni procesi omogućavaju stalnu povezanost i međuzavisnost društvenih struktura koje učestvuju u profesionalnom razvoju praktičara.

otvorenost
promena, kontekst
samorazumevanje,
odnosi, otvorenost
za iskustvo

samoorganizacija
autonomija,
neravnoteža, održivost
promene, kružna
uzročnost

umrežavanje
umrežavanje
različitosti,
umrežavanje
saznanja i
delovanja u praksi

Šema br. 1: Dimenzije procesa profesionalnog razvoja

Otvorenost

Održanje i razvoj života, prema ekološkoj paradigmi, zasnovano je na dinamičnoj razmeni energije i materije. Za naglašavanje značaja procesa razmene uvodi se pojam „otvoreni sistem". (Bartalanffy, prema: Capra, 1998: 172) Obrazovanje, kao i profesionalni razvoj zaposlenih u obrazovanju, treba da doprinosi „otvaranju sistema" i razvoju načina komunikacije između različitih društvenih struktura. Međutim, to može činiti samo ukoliko i sam jeste organizovan kao „otvoreni sistem". Šta to znači?

Prvo, profesionalni razvoj treba da doprinese „otvaranju" prema pojedincu, i to tako da doprinosi njegovom samorazumevanju kao obliku refleksije na lično i profesionalno znanje i promene u kontekstu prakse. Istraživanja različitih pristupa profesionalnom razvoju dokazuju uticaj etničkog, kulturnog identiteta, društvenih uloga, uloge pola, iskustva u radu sa drugim kulturama i tipa prethodnog iskustva na samorazumevanje i razumevanje suštine svog delovanja.

(Hargreaves & Fullan, 1992) Međutim, ključni proces za samorazumevanje jeste razvijanje kolegijalnosti, koja vodi i ohrabruje pojedince da uče jedni od drugih. U jednom istraživanju sa nastavnicima (Obergand & Underwood, prema: Harrgreaves and Fullan, 1992) koje je imalo za cilj da obezbedi kontinuirano kritičko preispitivanje svakog učesnika, kao i istraživača, učesnici su koristili sopstvene narative o svakodnevnoj praksi kao „najbolje učitelje" za razvijanje samorazumevanja. Nastavnici i istraživači pisali su o svojoj praksi kroz deskripciju svakodnevnih događaja i beleženje svojih pogleda i shvatanja, odnosno načina razumevanja onoga što se opisuje. Zatim su se pojedinačno bavili analizom i preispitivanjem svog narativa: šta to znači, čemu teže takvim stavovima ili shvatanjem problema. Ponovno razmatranje napisanog obavili su zajedno sa svojim kolegama i u prisustvu onih koji odlučuju i utiču na njihovu praksu (npr., administrativno osoblje, saradnici). Narativi o praksi otkrili su svakog nastavnika kao „pronalazača" u odnosu na razumevanje i prevazilaženje spoljašnjih ograničenja i zabrana u sopstvenoj praksi. Istraživanje pokazuje da su učesnici gradili samorazumevanje na osnovu svojih narativa koji nisu bili unapred napisana teorija o praksi, tako da je „njihova svest ostala otvorena za produbljivanje, kretanje napred-nazad između iskustva i mišljenja, za razliku uznemirenja i neugodnosti od spremnosti da se čuje drugačije mišljenje, pri ponovnom 'pretresanju' narativa". (Ibid.)

Međutim, ono što je ovo istraživanje pokazalo kao posebno važno za samorazumevanje u vezi je ne samo sa pisanjem i preispitivanjem sopstvenih narativa, nego i sa slušanjem kao kritičkim samoosvešćivanjem. Istraživači su našli da je svako samorazumevanje građeno na odnosima u grupi zasnovanim na slušanju koje nije bilo slušanje „grešaka drugih" koje treba korigovati ili odbaciti. Nastavnici su slušali jedni druge jer su razjašnjavali sopstveno mišljenje kroz sličnost svojih pitanja i različitost svog iskustva.

Navedeno istraživanje može biti primer koji potkrepljuje tezu ekoloških shvatanja o međusobnoj povezanosti delova u sistemu na način na koji se svaki deo razvija kroz razvoj onog drugog.

Drugo, mogućnost „otvorenosti" profesionalnog razvoja odnosi se na podršku odnosima koji se grade u kontekstu zasnovanim na pružanju osećanja prihvaćenosti, uvažavanja i ohrabrenja za kontinuirani razvoj uz poštovanje autonomije. U suprotnom, lični razvoj se može smatrati nezavisnim od profesionalnog razvoja i promena u praksi tako da njihov odnos ostaje u domenu ličnog za svakog pojedinca.

Primer jednog istraživanja mišljenja vaspitača o njihovom profesionalnom razvoju (Krnjaja, 2004) pokazuje razlike u shvatanju doprinosa programa stručnog usavršavanja, koje oni smatraju najznačajnijim za svoju praksu, promenama u praksi. Razlika između uzorka N (249) i A (103) jeste u tome što su vaspitači

uzorka A u svom stručnom usavršavanju dve ili više godina učestvovali u programu stručnog usavršavanja koji za ciljeve ima podsticanje njihovih istraživanja u kontekstu prakse i promenu dečjeg vrtića kao celine.

Tabela br. 2: Doprinos najznačajnijeg programa stručnog usavršavanja

Program koji vaspitači smatraju najznačajnijim najviše je doprineo:	f A	f N	f A	f N	f A	f N	f A	f N	f A	f N
Ličnom razvoju	1	**162**	17	47	28	24	**55**	7	2	9
Promeni odnosa sa decom	**72**	64	25	**133**	2	25	0	19	1	15
Promeni odnosa sa roditeljima	23	8	6	49	**55**	**119**	10	45	9	36
Promeni odnosa sa pretpostavljenima	0	5	0	7	3	26	8	83	**89**	**111**
Promeni odnosa sa kolegama na poslu	3	9	**55**	11	15	48	30	**86**	2	69
Nešto drugo	4	1		2		2	1	1		

Tabela prikazuje razlike u učestalosti izbora ponuđenih tvrđenja na osnovu kojih se može zaključivati o shvatanju doprinosa programa stručnog usavršavanja ličnom razvoju vaspitača u odnosu na druge promene. Posmatrajući uzorak N može se videti da se lični razvoj shvata kao izdvojena kategorija koja je nezavisna od promena u praksi. Treće, procesi otvorenosti profesionalnog razvoja odnose se na promene konteksta kao celine, kojima se ne zanemaruju neki delovi konteksta, niti ugrožavaju njegovi kapaciteti i resursi za dalje promene. „Otvaranje" konteksta čine procesi koji doprinose da se društvena struktura „otvara" prema svojim nosiocima kao i prema okruženju, pri čemu se razvija osetljivost za međusobne promene. Osnova profesionalnog razvoja ne odnosi se na „vakuum", ona je deo konteksta prakse svakog učesnika u kontekstu, a društvene strukture kao što su škole i dečji vrtići nisu „izdvojena ostrvca" (Stoll i Fink, 2000) koja postoje nezavisno od svog okruženja. Promene u profesionalnom razvoju i promene konteksta međusobno su zavisne: kontekst, kao celina, može da podstiče ili da otežava profesionalni razvoj, a promene konteksta pokrenute su iz profesionalnog razvoja. Međutim, pojedinačne, izdvojene promene jednog dela konteksta nemaju mogućnosti da se zadrže i razvijaju ukoliko celina deluje suprotno od njih, odnosno „seme razvoja neće se razviti ukoliko je posejano na kamenitu površinu" (Hargreaves & Fullan, 1992). Razvoj konteksta kao otvorenog sistema značajan je za „otvorenost" u profesionalnom razvoju iz najmanje dva razloga:

1. Kontekst obezbeđuje uslove za profesionalni razvoj jer procesi u kontekstu učestvuju u stvaranju vrednosti, obrazaca ponašanja, koji utiču na profesionalni razvoj tako što „tokom vremena kreiraju sopstveni

akcioni kontekst" (Urry, 2004: 9), ili kulturu, čiji je profesionalni razvoj deo. Prema ekološkoj paradigmi, do promena dovode samo oni procesi koji nisu „strani" (Capra, 1998: 254) prethodnoj organizaciji društvene strukture, tako da svaka struktura organizuje svoj kontekst promene s kojim se profesionalni razvoj usklađuje.

2. Kontekst može sam za sebe da bude fokus profesionalnog razvoja, odnosno predmet stalnog istraživanja, kritičkog preispitivanja i održive promene. (Hargreaves & Fullan, 1992) Profesionalni razvoj orijentisan na istraživanje, razumevanje i promenu celine doprinosi promeni konteksta kao „kulture", za razliku od kreiranja profesionalnog razvoja u kojem se unose rešenja u kontekst kao rešenja do kojih je došao neko drugi. Promene u kontekstu građene na saradnji i zajedničkom učenju uključuju strategije učestvovanja u donošenju odluka, humanističke vrednosne oslonce, inicijativu, nasuprot centralizaciji, racionalizaciji i standardizaciji.

Nivo promene konteksta (grafikon br. 1) pokazuje razliku između dva uzorka. Oko 34% vaspitača uzorka N misli da se promena odnosi na vrtić kao celinu dok 66% vaspitača istog uzorka smatra da se promena odnosi samo na grupu u kojoj oni rade. Vaspitači uzorka A (97%) misle da promenu grade kao promenu dečjeg vrtića u celini. Oni su u svojim istraživanjima stalno preispitivali mogućnosti promene celine na osnovu malih koraka i promena koje su pokretali u praksi.
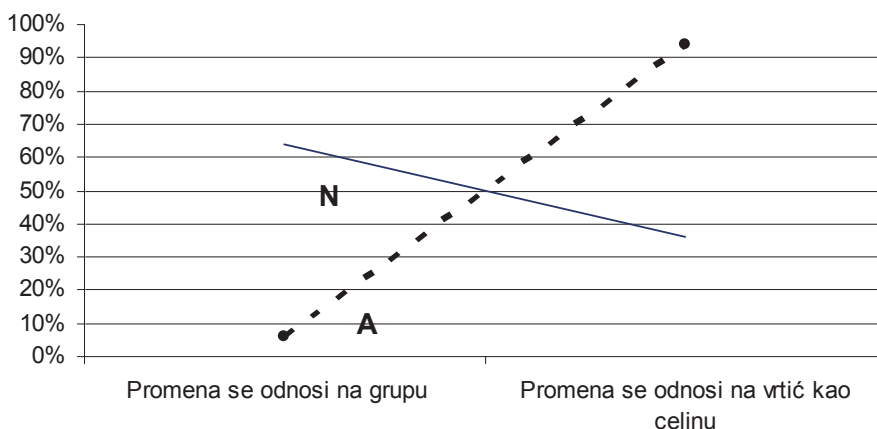
Grafikon br. 1: Nivo promene na osnovu programa stručnog usavršavanja

Četvrto, procesi otvorenosti u profesionalnom razvoju uključuju otvorenost za učenje iz sopstvenog iskustva. To je moguće samo ako se lično iskustvo i iskustvo u okviru jednog konteksta prakse prihvata kao relevantno i od njega se polazi u promeni. Poznato je da iskustvo nije nešto što se može prekopirati ili podrazumevati kao identično.

Profesionalni razvoj praktičara, podstaknut i „vođen spolja" od eksperata za određene oblasti, u većini slučajeva odvojen je od realnog konteksta prakse, ili se dešava mimo njega, tako da su praktičari „konzumenti" jednokratnih radionica i seminara. Ovakav pristup nosi poruku da „dobra praksa" dolazi od spoljašnjih pravila i saveta eksperata. Najveći problem ovog pristupa je nemogućnost da se u potpunosti uvaže različita iskustva, pravila, nesigurnosti i dileme s kojima praktičari dolaze na seminare ili radionice. Ovo su sve značajni resursi u profesionalnom razvoju koji ostaju nedovoljno uključeni u jednokratnim obukama i seminarima. Praktičari tada u svoj odnos prema promeni unose poruku ovog pristupa, da „njihovo mišljenje i iskustvo nije značajno i da je to nešto što je svojstveno samo njima" i dalje, oni čak dobiju poruku „da su tuđa mišljenja i ekspertize mnogo bolji" (Hargreaves Fullan, 1992, 36). Obuke eksperata često polaze od pretpostavke da imaju „sveti" status, kao i da su u potpunosti tačne, iz čega sledi da praksu bez problematizovanja treba uskladiti sa obukom. Očekivanje u odnosu na pokretanje i održivost promene na osnovu ovakvog pristupa može biti razočaravajuće, jer je izostalo uvažavanje, podrška i kritička procena „unutrašnje mudrosti" praktičara. (Ibid.)

Samoorganizacija i samostvaranje

Ključni procesi društvenih struktura, prema ekološkim shvatanjima, odnose se na „autpoiesis" (Capra, 1998), odnosno na samoorganizaciju i samostvaranje. Pitanje samostvaranja društvene strukture, ili „autopoiesis", ekološka paradigma tumači kroz odnos neravnoteže i samoorganizacije sistema. Zbog stalne razmene energije, društvene strukture gotovo su uvek u cikličnoj smeni ravnoteže i nestabilnosti. U osnovi neravnoteže jesu procesi koji su izvor promene. Neravnotežu društvene strukture kakva je, recimo, obrazovna institucija nemoguće je u potpunosti kontrolisati spolja i ona se može razvijati samo stalnim obnavljanjem i samoregeneracijom. „Autpoiesis" ili samostvaranje jeste obrazac funkcionisanja u kojem je „funkcija svake komponente da učestvuje u stvaranju ili transformaciji drugih komponenti, tako da ona stalno stvara samu sebe" (Capra, 1998: 159). Posmatrajući profesionalni razvoj kao deo promene obrazovne institucije, možemo reći da njegove perspektive zavise od mogućnosti samoorganizovanja

i samostvaranja te institucije. Samoorganizaciju pokreće svest o problemima u kontekstu delanja, koji, ukoliko su osvešćeni u odnosu na vrednosti kojima se teži, postaju izvori razvoja i promene. Proces samoorganizovanja određuju saznanja o problemima funkcionisanja, uvidi o vrednostima kojima teži i usmerava se promena, kao i načini intenzivne komunikacije i povezivanja. (Fulan, 2000: 70) Mogućnosti za profesionalni razvoj kroz samoorganizovanje i samostvaranje mogu se predstaviti na sledeći način:

Prvo, osnov profesionalnog razvoja kroz samoorganizaciju je profesionalna autonomija. Profesionalni razvoj ispunjava svoju svrhu u promeni konteksta prakse samo ako je samokreiran, odnosno ako pojedinac odlučuje o svom profesionalnom razvoju i za to preuzima odgovornost. Autonomija u profesionalnom razvoju odnosi se ne samo na osećaj superiornosti u davanju predloga i odlučivanju, nego i sagledavanju dubine i kompleksnosti sopstvenog delovanja. Podaci dati u tabeli br. 3 pokazuju u kojoj meri se vaspitači samostalno opredeljuju za uključivanje u programe obuke, što naravno otvara pitanja njihove autonomije ne samo u načinu izbora programa obuke, nego i prethodnog upoznavanja problematike programa. Razlika u odgovorima uzorka A može se pripisati i specifičnostima programa obuke koji se odnosi na istraživanje i za koji je potrebna odluka vaspitača da se u narednom višemesečnom ili godišnjem periodu bave istraživanjem sopstvene prakse.

Tabela br. 3: Način uključivanja u programe stručnog usavršavanja

| Na koji način su vaspitači uključeni u programe?	Br. / %	Br. %
Sami su se prijavili jer ih zanima problematika	58 / (23,5%)	75 (72,7%)
Uključio ih je stručni saradnik	111 / (44,5%)	15 (14,8%)
Uključio ih je direktor	49 / (19,6%)	2 (1,9%)
Uključio ih je nadzornik	6 / (2,4%)	1 (0,9%)
Uključila ih je koleginica	10 / (4%)	8 (7,8%)
Pozvao ih je voditelj programa	15 / (6%)	2 (1,9%)
Ukupno	**N249**	A103

Autonomija i samoorganizacija profesionalnog razvoja povezani su sa poštovanjem profesionalnosti praktičara. Obuke praktičara koje su osmišljene i vođene spolja mogu da oslabe njihovu inicijativu i dovedu u pitanje promenu jer su „strane" dotadašnjem obrascu funkcionisanja njihove prakse. Obuka, kojom se trenira ili „deli" saznanje i rešenje praktičarima, neprilagođena njihovim iskustvima i praksi, može biti samo podrazumevanje i kvazi-uvažavanje njihove profesionalnosti. Suština etike samoorganizacijskih procesa jeste poštovanje profesionalaca koji treba da „razvijaju sami sebe", a ne da „budu razvijani" (Hargreaves

and Fullan, 1992) od strane eksperata. U hijerarhijskim odnosima moći između eksperata, čije se mišljenje smatra značajnijim, i praktičara, čije se mišljenje smatra ličnim i samim tim manje vrednim, neslaganje se vrlo često posmatra kao problem a ne kao mogućnost podsticanja kritičke refleksije. Samoorganizacija u profesionalnom razvoju zasnovana je na „emancipaciji" i „participaciji" (Pešić, 2004) svakog učesnika, koji može da pruži vredan i značajan doprinos promeni. Emancipacija se povezuje sa autonomijom i individualnom strukturom iskustva i saznanja a ravnopravnost se odnosi na prihvatanje doprinosa svakog dela strukture ili svakog učenika promene kao značajnog za promenu celine. Procesi emancipacije i participacije u odnosu između eksperata i praktičara se mogu preispitivati, kao i neravnoteža između njihovog stručnog usavršavanja, s obzirom na to da postoji disproporcionalnost u stručnom usavršavanju između onih koji vode obuku i koji se više razvijaju u određenoj oblasti, u odnosu na one koji se obučavaju.

Drugo, samoorganizacija u profesionalnom razvoju podstiče istraživanja problema u sopstvenoj praksi na osnovu „feedback" procesa. Zašto? Samoorganizacija se zasniva na procesima kružne uzročnosti, na osnovu kojih se grade nelinearni odnosi promene, što znači da mali koraci u promeni mogu dovesti do najsloženijih obrazaca promene. Ova vrsta povratne veze funkcioniše tako što poslednja veza utiče na prvu, pri čemu se veza menja prolazeći kroz svaki ciklus i tako promenjena vraća se svom izvoru. Na taj način struktura se samoorganizuje, regulišući sebe samu, stalnom samokontrolom „realnog" a ne „očekivanog" funkcionisanja. (Capra, 1998) Samoorganizacija svojom cikličnom vezom razlikuje nelinearne društvene strukture od linearnih, u kojima se promena jednog dela razvija na osnovu linearne veze uzrok-posledica.

Ono što će se dogoditi u promeni zavisi od prethodne istorije i organizacije društvene strukture, od prethodnih obrazaca ponašanja, kao i od novih pokretača razvoja koji se mogu javiti kao specifični za datu strukturu, tako da se način na koji će se promena razvijati ne može do kraja predvideti. Međutim, vrednosti i procesi koji su pokretači promene u određenoj strukturi, a koji su osetljivi na „realne" probleme kroz feedback koncept iz same strukture, imaju daleko jači kapacitet da menjaju strukturu kao celinu od pokretača promene osmišljenih „spolja". Pokretači promene, proistekli iz same društvene strukture i osetljivi na njene probleme, imaju značenje za učesnike te društvene strukture, koje se „spolja" teško može u potpunosti razumeti ili odrediti. Oni se najviše vezuju za potrebu praktičara da u svom profesionalnom razvoju rešavaju probleme koji ih „muče" u svakodnevnoj praksi i za koje postoji „uvid" da su u raskoraku u odnosu na vrednosti. Tako se profesionalni razvoj i promena celine može sagledati i kao odnos „šanse i potrebe". (Ibid., 185)

Razlike u shvatanjima vaspitača uzorka N i A, o tome šta pokreće promenu u praksi, pokazane su grafikonom br. 2. Kod vaspitača uzorka A je tokom dvogodišnjih istraživanja podsticana osetljivost za osvešćivanje problema u praksi, odnosno za osvešćivanje raskoraka između onoga šta rade i šta očekuju, tj. „misle da rade". (Pešić, 2004: 126) To je vrlo blisko tumačenjima ekološke paradigme o tome da procesi uzajamne uzročnosti dovode do toga da se gradi akcioni kontekst delovanja svake strukture u odnosu na autentičan problem ili pokretač i da se pojačava osetljivost za promene celine.

Rešavanje onoga što vidi kao problem u svojoj praksi
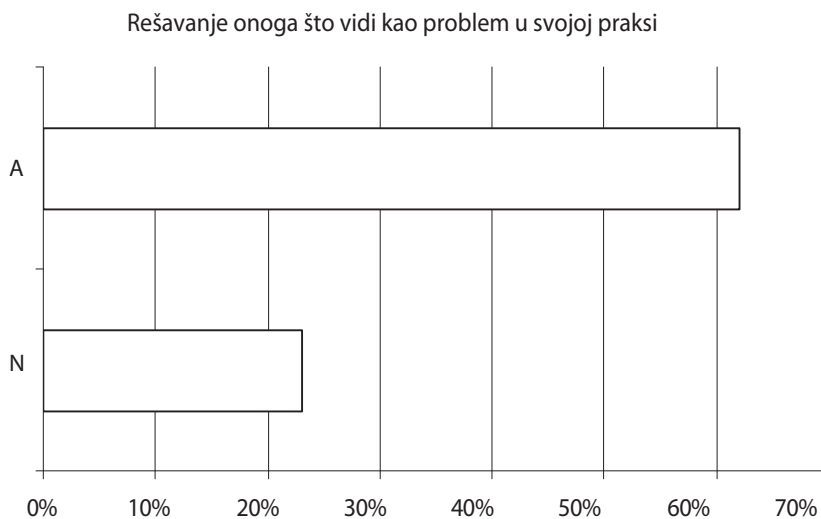
Grafikon br. 2: Pokretanje i razvoj promene u praksi

Eksperti sa strane, u najmanju ruku, mogu pomoći u istraživanjima problema a ne biti „označitelji" jedne vrste rešenja koju oni zastupaju. Suština odnosa u „samoorganizovanju" svake društvene strukture ili otvorenog sistema izražena je emancipacijom i (samo)kritičkim odnosom kao „feedback konceptom" (Capra, 1998: 63), koji čine povratne, ciklične veze. Kružna ili uzajamna uzročnost na neki način pokazuje da ne postoji isključenost u odnosu delova sistema i u tom smislu ona može biti minimalan uslov za otvorenost.

Vaspitači uzorka A (grafikon br. 2) u navedenom istraživanju podsticani su programom stručnog usavršavanja da razvijaju refleksiju i samokritički uvid u svoja shvatanja „o" onome što rade u praksi, „kako i zašto" to rade. (Pešić, 2004) Odgovornost i stalne povratne veze ili refleksije u odnosu na sopstveni profesionalni razvoj i razvoj njihove prakse omogućila im je da postanu osetljiviji za probleme u svojoj praksi i da ih uviđaju kao mogućnosti za promene.

Treće, procesi samoorganizacije vezani su za održivost promene kao stalnu smenu stabilnosti i neravnoteže, u organizacijskom obrascu strukture kao celine. Samoorganizacija društvenih struktura uključuje nestabilnost i dinamičnost. „Održivost" (Capra, 1998) se odnosi na one promene koje ne ugrožavaju druge delove strukture, tako da uništavaju ili zaustavljaju njihov kapacitet za promenu. Razvoj, u smislu procesa koji izazivaju nagle promene, za koje nije postojala adekvatna osnova u organizacijskom obrascu društvene strukture, može čak i štetiti toj strukturi. Fragmentarne promene ili razvoj ostvaren naglo, „revolucijom" jednog dela strukture, neće doprineti promeni strukture kao celine i nakon određenog vremena pojaviće se problem održivosti promene.

Međutim, sledeća metafora nas može uvesti u pitanje kada procesi suštinski menjaju jednu strukturu tako da se ona grana i gradi nove složenije strukture iz celovite promene: „Živeti u sadašnjem vremenu sve više liči na usklađivanje sa brzacima reke. Pitanje je da li nam pažnju okupira ‚krpljenje' površine belom penom ili ulaženje u ‚dubinu'." (Hargreaves and Fulan, 1992) Posmatrajući ovo poređenje iz perspektive ekološke paradigme, mogli bismo reći da „pojačavanje rezolucije", odnosno ulazak u dubinu, otkriva neopisivu raznolikost i bogatstvo strukture. Samoorganizacija svake društvene strukture koja se orijentiše na fokusiranje „duboko unutar strukture" (Capra, 1998: 150) može dalje graditi složenije strukture i kompleksnije procese. Praktičari, koji se u svom profesionalnom razvoju orijentišu na istraživanje složenosti odnosa u sopstvenoj praksi, fokusiraju područje iz kojeg bolje mogu razumeti obrasce organizovanja i funkcionisanja ali i razvijati kontest svoje prakse kao celinu u promeni.

Podaci u tabeli br. 4 pokazuju da teškoće praktičarima u razvijanju programa nakon programa obuke ne predstavljaju sami programi obuke, a da su to vrlo često (kod uzorka N to misli više od polovine anketiranih, a kod uzorka A svi ankretirani) uticaji u kontekstu prakse.

Tabela br. 4: Teškoće u razvijanju programa nakon obuke

Najveću teškoću vaspitačima u razvijanju programa nakon obuke čini:	N	A
Naporna obuka	22(9%)	
Nedovoljno konkretna obuka	56(22%)	
Najčešće obuka ne pomaže da reše problem u grupi	19(8%)	
Program je dobar, ali ga ne razvijaju zbog specifičnih okolnosti u kojima rade	132(53%)	
Nešto drugo	20(8%)	103(100%)
Ukupno	**249**	**103**

Podaci istog istraživanja (Krnjaja, 2004) pokazuju da vaspitači nakon programa obuke nastavljaju da unose promene u praksu tako što koriste obuku za građenje svog autentičnog programa u kontekstu, ali to čini 30% uzorka N i 63% uzorka A. Ova razlika se može razumeti na osnovu prirode programa obuke koju su imali. U drugom uzorku program obuke je koncipiran na istraživanju konteksta prakse i istraživanju onoga što se vidi kao problem u datom kontekstu.

Umrežavanje

Nelinearni, međupovezani procesi u društvenim strukturama grade mrežu odnosa. Prevazilazeći okvire jedne strukture oni se „umrežavaju" (Capra, 1998: 165) u sistemu, stvarajući nove strukture i gradeći otvoreni sistem. U mreži kao obrascu na osnovu kojeg se organizuje otvoreni sistem funkcija svake strukture i procesa jeste da učestvuje u stvaranju ili transformaciji drugih struktura i procesa.

U društvenoj strukturi, kao i u ekosistemu, način na koji se individua povezuje sa okolinom i „umrežava" zavisi od njene individualne strukture. Ovde je važno napomenuti da ekološka paradigma ne promoviše individualizovan pristup profesionalnom razvoju, već da ona pre svega naglašava značaj povezivanja i „umrežavanja", pri čemu je važno voditi računa o individualnim strukturama kao neophodnoj autonomiji, jer upravo ništa ne postoji objektivno „nezavisno od individualnog procesa saznaja" (Ibid., 172). Ekološka paradigma polazi od drugačije filozofije razumevanja individualnosti i suprotstavlja se ideji individualizovanog, u smislu da je pojedinac izolovan od svega ostalog i da se razvija za sebe. Ona individualnost koristi da naglasi različitost živih bića i za to koristi primere specifičnosti i kompleksnosti zakona fizike ili hemijske akcije i reakcije u svakom živom organizmu (Ibid.). „Različitost" je najznačajnija mogućnost življenja a umrežavanje je proces kroz koji se ona ostvaruje i razvija. Mogućnosti profesionalnog razvoja na osnovu procesa umrežavanja mogu biti:

Prvo, profesionalni razvoj treba da podstiče umrežavanje različitosti u zajedničkoj ideji o promeni. Ekološka paradigma prihvata raznolikost i složenost kao karakteristiku svojstvenu svim društvenim strukturama. Živa bića tumače svoje okruženje na različite načine i svaki živi organizam razvija odnos sa svojim okruženjem kroz „povratno međudelovanje" (Ibid., 253). Tako saznanje zavisi od načina na koji živi organizam razvija interakciju sa svojim okruženjem. Npr. mačke ili ptice će videti drveće sasvim drugačije od načina na koji ga mi vidimo, jer vide svetlost u različitim frekvencijskim opsezima. (Capra, 1998) Tako su sva ljudska bića različita zbog različitih saznanja, a diferencirano saznanje određuje različite individualnosti. Okruženje samo „pobuđuje" promene – ono ih ne odre-

đuje niti njima „upravlja" (Ibid., 201), što znači da podsticaji iz okruženja neće značiti za sve isto. Da li će oni podstaći stvarnu promenu zavisi od individualne strukture koja prema tim podsticajima stvara i organizuje svoje značenje sveta. Dakle, nije, kako navodi Fulan (Hargreaves, Fullan, 1992: 16), različitost sama po sebi toliko značajna, koliko „različitost u kojoj vlada saradnja". Suština celine je u mreži odnosa koji integrišu različitost. Promena zavisi od integracije različitosti, koje, ukoliko nisu uvažene i uključene, u promeni mogu postati otpori i njene otežavajuće sile. Vitalnost društvene strukture ili sistema počiva upravo na tenzijama, konfliktima i neravnoteži, ali ukoliko okruženje procesima pruža „dobar oslonac" u smislu razumevanja značaja različitosti i poverenja i podrške u njihovu integracju.
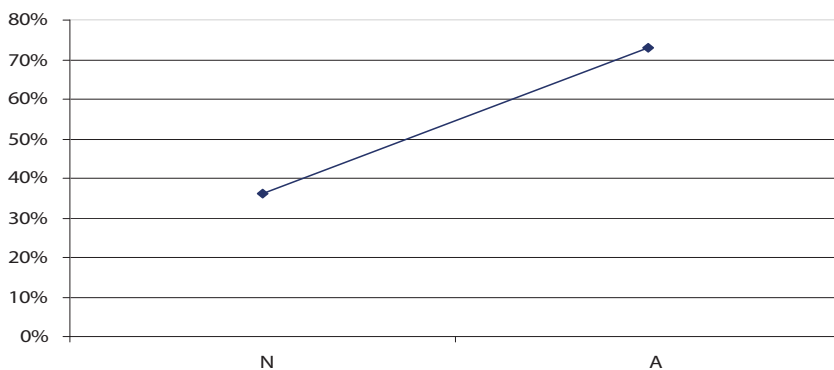
Grafikon br. 3: Razmena ideja o promeni sa kolegama na poslu

U društvenim strukturama pojedinci nisu „ni centri, niti vlasnici promena" (Capra, 1998: 223), a svaki deo mreže odnosa potreban je i vredan. Društvene strukture su, prema ekološkoj paradigmi, ljudskom racionalnošću razvile hijerarhijske odnose, kojima se uspostavljaju kontrola i dominacija. Iz pristupa ekološke paradigme, „od hijerarhije ka mrežama" (Ibid., 10), sledi da profesionalni razvoj treba manje voditi administrativnim merama ili jednokratnim intervencijama (paket radionica, jednokratni seminar) i konkurencijom, a više podržavati kroz principe koegzistencije, odnosno kroz „umrežavanje interakcije" između praktičara, teoretičara, stručnih i naučnih institucija u obrazovanju.

Drugo, mogućnost umrežavanja saznanja i delovanja znači da profesionalni razvoj treba da bude što više koncipiran na učenju u kontekstu prakse, odnosno na učenju kroz rad na onome što se usavršava, istražuje ili menja. Obrazovanje, kao i profesionalni razvoj, shvaćeno je kao otvoreni sistem koji regulišu

dinamični, ciklični procesi, daleko od stanja ravnoteže u smislu statičnog zadržavanja istog stanja. Procese i promene moguće je predvideti i generalizovati samo u strukturama i sistemima koji su u ravnoteži kao statičnom stanju, koji slede univerzalne zakone i njihovo ponašanje se ponavlja. Međutim, u društvenim strukturama barem je jedan element uvek neponovljiv, što ih čini teže predvidivim do kraja. Kako se udaljava od statičnog stanja i postaje kompleksnija, struktura uključuje sve više raznolikosti, zbog čega ne može da sledi univerzalne zakone. Istovremeno, procesi unutar strukture, kao i oni koji je povezuju sa drugim društvenim strukturama, grade se na nelinearnim, povratnim vezama i otvaraju uvek više mogućnosti i više od jednog rešenja. Od čega onda zavisi kako će se promena dešavati?

Promena sledi zakonitosti koje su jedinstvene za određenu strukturu. Ona zavisi od prethodnog iskustva i „istorije" razvoja društvene strukture, npr. određene obrazovne institucije, i različitih uslova u njenom okruženju. Svaki kontekst procesa obrazovanja, pa samim tim i profesionalnog razvoja praktičara, ima svoj specifičan put, istoriju razvoja, koja značajno utiče na sve što se dalje dešava u kontekstu. S obzirom na jedinstvenost i specifičnost puta razvoja, spoljašnja ekspertiza nikada ne može do kraja da „skroji" model profesionalnog razvoja za određeni kontekst. Ono što se dešava na seminarima i programima obuke nastavlja da se razvija u određenom kontekstu tako što se procenjuje, isprobava i dobija nova značenja, za šta je potrebna unutrašnja ekspertiza iz koje se sopstveno delovanje posmatra ponovo, ispočetka, na drugačiji način.

Učenje i usavršavanje ne dolazi prosto kao rezultat porasta novih sadržaja, seminara, ono je konstrukcija koja se kreira radom, proveravanjem kroz akciju i više kroz odnose razmene sa drugima nego kroz „deljenje i ulivanje" znanja. Odnos znanja i delovanja je kompleksan; za Freira to je odnos „apstraktnih pojmova i subjektivnog iskustva" (Freire, prema: Torkington, Landers, 2000) koji treba preispitivati u ravnopravnoj komunikaciji. Djui je odnos između sopstvenog iskustva i obrazovanja smatrao „fundamentalnim jedinstvom filozofije obrazovanja". (Torkington and Landers, 2000) Učenje kroz rad, u profesionalnom razvoju, predstavlja kontinuiranu transformaciju sopstvene prakse na osnovu preispitivanja značenja i razumevanja sopstvenog delanja.

Ako ekološka paradigma polazi od shvatanja da ne postoji samo jedan poredak stvari, to znači da se u profesionalnom razvoju mora uzeti u obzir sve što donosi višeznačnost i kontekstno značenje, kao što su npr. „implicitne teorije praktičara". (Pešić, 2004) Njihova uverenja, način na koji shvataju obrazovanje, dete, razvoj i svoju ulogu u učenju, utiču na to šta i kako oni rade u praksi, i zbog toga ona moraju da budu uključena, integrisana i samoprocenjena. Ona predstav-

ljaju izvore profesionalnog razvoja i svaka promena može se smatrati održivom tek ako menja, odnosno osvešćuje „implicitne pedagogije" učesnika u promeni.

Treće, u profesionalnom razvoju komunikacija i dijalog su medijumi povezivanja, odnosno umrežavanja. Etika ekološke paradigme je u „uzajamnoj dobiti" (Gouldner, prema: Capra, 1998: 249) i razvoju sposobnosti umrežavanja kroz stalnu komunikaciju. Komunikacija, prema Santjago teoriji saznanja, predstavlja više od prenosa informacija, ona je „koordinacija ponašanja živih organizama" (Maturana, prema: Capra, 1998: 250). Komunikacija u profesionalnom razvoju odnosi se na razmenu značenja i građenje zajedničkog razumevanja, koje se razlikuje od linearnih procesa, „jednom obučiti nekoga" na seminaru. Tabela 5. pokazuje razlike između uzorka N i A na zajedničkom radu u promeni, razmeni ideja i načinima komunikacije koji su oblikovali promenu.

Tabela br. 5: Odnosi sa kolegama u razvijanju programa u praksi

Kako su reagovale kolege na ideju o promeni	N	A
Tražili su isti seminar	49(20%)	19(18%)
Primili su informaciju i zadržali se na tome	58(23%)	3(3%)
Tražili su materijal sa seminara	64(26%)	9(9%)
Moje ideje su pomogle da zajedno razvijamo program	68(27%)	70(70%)
Nisu zainteresovani jer imaju svoje programe	4(2%)	1(1%)
Nisu zainteresovani	6(3%)	1(1%)
Ukupno	**249**	**103**

Dijalog kao razmena značenja kojoj je svojstvena „kolektivna priroda misli" (Sengi, 2003: 245) otvara mogućnosti umrežavanja na osnovu: a) uvažavanja prava svakog da učestvuje u dijalogu kao autonoman i ravnopravan; b) različitih značenja izgrađenih na snazi argumenata; c) orijentacije na zajedničku dobit; d) slobode da se provere dileme i vrednuju tumačenja; e) podrške da se izmeni kontekstni, postojeći okvir značenja i razumevanja; g) slobode da se rekonstruišu i menjaju pravila; h) slobode da se na različite načine istražuje značenje i ispituje argumentacija. (Morrison, prema: Adey, 2004: 232)

Mogućnosti i ograničenja profesionalnog razvoja iz ekološkog pristupa

Poslovica „Kad dodirneš travu, možeš uznemiriti zvezdu", nastala u starom veku, govori o stalnim nastojanjima ljudi da svet i svoju ulogu u njemu protumače kroz odnose povezanosti i međuzavisnosti unutar jedne celine. Ako bismo tu ideju

pokušali da sagledamo u profesionalnom razvoju, mogli bismo postaviti sledeća pitanja: koje su mogućnosti i ograničenja ovakvog pristupa ili kako podsticati procese povezivanja o kojima smo govorili?

Osnovni problem ili ograničenje u razumevanju razvoja uopšte, pa možemo reći i profesionalnog razvoja, ekološka paradigma vidi u jednoj dominantnoj filozofiji življenja, u kojoj težimo da zadržimo razumevanje sveta, vrednosti i odnosa koji polaze od čoveka kao izdvojene jedinke u ekonomskom i tehnološkom društvu, usmerene na stalnu borbu za egzistenciju i postignuće. Da bismo ograničenja razvoju pretvorili u mogućnosti, potrebno je da preispitujemo i menjamo predstavu o sebi samima i svetu, a da bismo razumeli „mrežu života" (Capra, 1998), potrebno je da kao vrednosti sagledamo uzajamnu dobrobit i zajednicu kao kapacitet razvoja. Da li ovaj problem može istovremeno biti i pokretač procesa promene i profesionalnog razvoja zaposlenih u obrazovanju zavisi od njihovog shvatanja vrednosti življenja, obrazovanja, odnosno njihovog delanja koje uključuje spremnost da se preispituje odnos između vrednosti i potupaka.

Jedna od mogućnosti daljeg izgrađivanja pristupa profesionalnom razvoju zaposlenih u obrazovanju može polaziti od viđenja praktičara o tome šta su za njih vrednosti promene. Oni mogu da daju „čvorne tačke" odnosa promene društvene strukture u kojoj ostvaruju svoju praksu kao celine i sopstvenog profesionalnog razvoja.

Ekološka paradigma se ne suprotstavlja u potpunosti pokretačima promene koji dolaze spolja, ali naglašava da je reč o svrsishodnim procesima za datu strukturu, koji će osnažiti njenu autonomiju i samoorganizaciju i pojačati poverenje praktičara u svoje inicijative i učenje u kontekstu prakse.

Ekološka paradigma otvara mogućnosti da razmišljamo o podsticanju svesti zaposlenih u obrazovanju o značaju promene celine obrazovne institucije kroz njihov profesionalni razvoj. Znanje eksperata u održivosti promene može biti mogućnost da profesionalni razvoj bude više podržavan kao kritička refleksija praktičara o promenama u praksi a manje vođen od samih eksperata. To se odnosi na osnaživanje nelinearnih odnosa, osnaživanje profesionalnog razvoja u datom kontekstu prakse, kroz procese integracije i umrežavanja. Ključno pitanje za eksperte i kreatore profesionalnog razvoja tada postaje kako podržati pokretače promena u datom kontekstu, koji profesionalni razvoj orijentišu prema istraživanju sopstvene prakse i preispitivanju vrednosti na kojima se ona gradi.

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Professional Development in the Perspective of Ecological Paradigm[4]

Abstract: The paper focuses on the possibilities and limitations of professional development from the perspective of ecological paradigm. Ecological paradigm sees a person as a set of energy, being a part of a unique energy field with his environment. The changes within are connected and development consists of synergy processes and interaction of all parts of the system. In the professional development the large numbers of different, non-linear processes are integrated. It creates the opportunities to change the overall context of professional activity, while in each context the authentic ways of change has been opened. Professional development of teachers is analysed from the point of view of following processes: openness, self-regulation and networking. Professional development from the perspective of the ecological paradigm as a model of professional development is focused on self-regulation and learning through sharing in the context of ongoing activities. Further issues are the development of self-understanding and cooperation, capacity and strength to question and research.

Key words: ecological paradigm, professional development of employees, education

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Ispit zrelosti kao uslov za nastavak školovanja u Srbiji krajem XIX i početkom XX veka[2]

Rezime: U Srbiji su ispiti zrelosti polagani prvi put školske 1875/76. Zakonom su propisani 1873. godine, a regulisani 1876. posebnim Pravilima u koja su unošene izmene 1880, 1892, 1902. i 1907. godine. Od ispita zrelosti, prema ovom dokumentu, očekivalo se da proceni da li je znanje koje učenik poseduje dovoljno kvalitetno za pohađanje nastave na Velikoj školi, odnosno Univerzitetu, tj. da li je znanje koje iznosi iz srednje škole dovoljno obimno, sistematično i primenljivo. Ispit je u svakoj školi organizovala komisija sastavljena od nastavnika, upravnika škole i izaslanika Ministra prosvete. U radu je analiziran program ispita zrelosti, kriterijumi, stavovi i dileme u vezi sa procenom zrelosti, prolaznost, kao i organizacioni aspekti ovog ispita.

Ključne reči: ispit zrelosti, ocenjivanje, istorija obrazovanja, škola.

Ispit zrelosti je za srednje škole (gimnazije i realke) u Srbiji propisan 1873. godine, a prva generacija maturanata polagala ga je 1876. godine, kada su propisana i prva Pravila o ovom ispitu. Ispit zrelosti trebalo je da pokaže da li je učenik spreman za nastavak školovanja na Velikoj školi, što prvi član Pravila definiše na sledeći način: „Kao dokaz postignute zrelosti, na ovom ispitu se traži od ovakoga pripravnika, da je toliko u naukama napredovao i umno se razvio, da može bez velikog naprezanja i s pouzdanjem dati u glavnom račun *o* onome*,* što je dotle u gimnaziji ili realci učio, i da je zadobio potrebnu spremu za dalje fakultetsko obrazovanje“. Učenik koji je želeo da nastavi obrazovanje na Velikoj školi trebalo je da na ispitu zrelosti pokaže „dovoljnu meru osnovnog, harmonijski spojenog

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znanja, ume li tim znanjem da se koristi, i pokazuje li potrebnu logičnost u izvođenju, a pouzdanost i pravilnost u iskazivanju svojih zaključaka" (Prosvetni zbornik zakona i naredaba, 1887: 206). Dakle, trebalo je osmisliti i organizovati proveru ne samo obima znanja učenika, već i sposobnosti da ta znanja poveže u sistem i da ih kritički primeni.

Učenika su ispitivali predmetni nastavnici pred komisijom u kojoj su se nalazili nastavnici predmeta koji se polažu, tri nastavnika koje je izabrao profesorski savet, direktor škole i izaslanik Ministra prosvete i crkvenih dela. Ispiti nisu bili javni, ali su mogli da im prisustvuju ostali nastavnici iz škole, bez prava da postavljaju pitanja.

Za izaslanike je Ministar prosvete birao profesore Velike škole, kasnije Univerziteta, a samo u nekoliko slučajeva to su bili referenti iz ministarstva, upravnik Narodne biblioteke ili profesori i pedagozi u penziji. Izaslanik je imao zadatak da prati realizaciju propisanih Pravila o ispitu zrelosti. Međutim, pored ovog zadatka, koji je bio više formalne prirode, izaslanici su predstavljali i vezu između srednje škole i fakulteta i srednje škole i Ministarstva.

Prema Pravilima iz 1876. godine, učenici gimnazije polagali su ukupno 14 ispita iz 12 predmeta, a učenici realke 14 ispita iz 17 predmeta. Prvobitna koncepcija ispita zrelosti u Srbiji bila je usmerena ka ispitivanju skoro svih sadržaja koje je učenik izučavao tokom srednje škole jer se činilo da je to najpouzdaniji put da se odgovori osnovnom zadatku ovog ispita koji je definisan članom 1. Pravila. Praksa je, međutim, ubrzo pokazala da to nije najbolje rešenje. Prve izmene u Pravila o ispitu zrelosti unete su već 1880. godine, a zatim i 1892, 1902. i 1907. godine, i odnosile su se na sažimanje sadržaja ispita i na neke aspekte organizacije ispita, što se može i videti iz tabele 1.

Tabela br. 1.

1876.	1902.
Pismeno i usmeno	**Pismeno i usmeno**
Srpski jezik sa stilistikom	Srpski jezik
Nemački jezik	Živi strani jezik
Francuski jezik	Matematika
Matematika	*Samo u gimnaziji:*
Samo u gimnaziji:	Latinski jezik
Latinski jezik	*Samo u realci i samo pismeno:*
Samo u realci:	Nacrtna geometrija
Nacrtna geometrija	
Crtanje	
Fizika sa mehanikom	
Usmeno	**Usmeno**
Nauka hrišćanska	Opšta i narodna istorija sa
Opšta i narodna istorija sa zemljopisom	zemljopisom
Jestastvenica	*Samo u realci:*
Fizika sa kosmografijom	Fizika sa hemijom

Članom 19. Pravila o ovom ispitu iz 1876. godine bilo je propisano da u jednom terminu za usmeni ispit učenik odgovara iz svih predviđenih predmeta. Jedan učenik je, tako, u ispitnoj situaciji provodio od 3 do 4 sata, jer su istovremeno ispitivana po 2 učenika iz 9 predmeta. „Kad se uzme na um kako je već potresen svaki pripravnik kad se prozove i na ispitnu stolicu sedne, pa kad se tome prida fizički i duševni napor za vreme ispitivanja, onda se tek može pojmiti stanje u kom se ispitanik nalazi kad se posle 4 sahata sa pomenute stolice digne. Ovo je za nj bila prava tortura", zabeležili su u izveštaju o ispitima u Prvoj beogradskoj gimnaziji profesori i izaslanici Panta Srećković i Kosta Aković 1879. godine (Prosvetni glasnik, 1880: 46-49).

I drugi izaslanici su u svojim izveštajima navodili slična zapažanja, kao i predloge da se usmeni ispiti rasporede tako da se ispituje jedan po jedan predmet, kako bi se smanjio stres kojem su učenici izloženi, rasteretila komisija a izaslanici mogli „načiniti i pouzdaniju ocenu o nastavničkoj sposobnosti ispitujućeg profesora" (Ibid.) Neki izaslanici su, na svoju ruku, ispite tako i organizovali, što su i navodili u izveštajima. Inače, ispiti zrelosti su, u zavisnosti od rokova koje propiše ispitna komisija, mogli trajati po mesec dana, a izaslanici su bili obavezni da sve vreme budu prisutni.

Vremensko trajanje ispita preciznije je regulisano 1892. godine, kada je propisano da se usmeni ispit organizuje najkasnije tri dana od pismenog i da ne traje duže od četiri dana. Usmeno ispitivanje jednog učenika iz jednog predmeta trebalo je da traje oko 10 minuta, uz napomenu da „učenika ne treba požurivati već mu dopustiti da se o svakoj stvari, koja u stavljena mu pitanja dolazi, može jasno, tačno, smišljeno i dosledno iskazati" (Prosvetni glasnik, 1892: 324).

Centralni deo ispita zrelosti činili su srpski jezik, matematika i strani jezici, u gimnaziji i latinski jezik, i oni su polagani pismeno i usmeno. U Pravilima iz 1880. godine okvirno su dati kriterijumi za procenu zrelosti učenika na osnovu rezultata na ovim ispitima (Prosvetni zbornik zakona i naredaba, 1887: 209).

Na pismenom ispitu iz srpskog jezika, koji je podrazumevao pisanje sastava na određenu temu, od učenika se očekivalo da pokaže razumevanje i poznavanje zadate teme, gramatičko pravilno, jasno i dosledno izlaganje i prirodno i pravilno zaključivanje.

Prema Pravilima iz 1880. godine, tema je trebalo da se odnosi na kulturnu, političku, književnu narodnu ili opštu istoriju i zemljopis, uz napomenu da se učenici tokom školovanja nisu njome već bavili na sličan način.   M i h a i l o Vulić je u već navedenom izveštaju zabeležio da se učenik kome je, na primer, zadato da objasni „Pretežnost Jevrope prema ostalim delovima sveta" nalazi pred preteškim zadatkom koji ga zbunjuje, zbog čega on zaboravlja na kom se ispitu nalazi i zbog čega. Time se gubi smisao ispita iz srpskog jezika, smatrao je

Vulić. Pismenost učenika bi se mogla proveriti i jednostavnijom temom koja bi se odnosila na njegovo poznavanje i mišljenje o nekom određenom istorijskom periodu ili događaju ili o nekom delu planete, pre svega svoje zemlje (Prosvetni glasnik, 1880: 628).

Svetislav Vulović, izaslanik na ispitima u niškoj gimnaziji, zapazio je da su učenici pišući sastave na suviše široko postavljene teme pokušavali da pokažu što više znanja, što je nastavnika dovodilo do pitanja o tome šta i kako ocenjivati (Prosvetni glasnik, 1885: 682). Neki nastavnici, navodi on, ocenjivali su samo broj gramatičkih grešaka, što nije dovoljan pokazatelj ni pismene zrelosti učenika niti njegove sposobnosti da prati fakultetska predavanja. Vulović smatra da treba najpre da se definiše cilj pismenog ispita iz srpskog jezika – da li se na njemu ispituje znanje iz neke oblasti, pismenost ili sposobnost učenika da prati predavanja na Velikoj školi. Ako je reč o ovom poslednjem, onda bi ispit bio organizovan drugačije. Učenicima bi trebalo održati nekoliko fakultetskih predavanja na razne teme, a zatim oceniti njihove beleške.

U Pravilima iz 1892. godine uvažene su sugestije izaslanika u vezi sa opsegom teme, pa se samo navodi da tema za prozni sastav treba da bude „u domašaju mogućnog razvitka znanja i misli u svršenog gimnaziste ili realca". Evo nekoliko primera: „Kakve koristi mogu imati država i otadžbina od valjanoga sina svoga i građanina (sa dokazima iz srpske istorije)?", „Upoređenje stare i dubrovačke književnosti", „Zamišljeno putovanje po Srpskoj zemlji, propraćeno sećanjem na istorijske događaje iz prošlosti" (Nastavnik, 1895: 57).

Značenje maternjeg jezika na ispitu zrelosti definisao je Bogdan Popović u komentaru povodom ispita u Drugoj beogradskoj gimnaziji 1895. godine. Na ispitu su učenici pokazali poznavanje velikog broja podataka iz istorije književnosti, međutim dela autora o kojima govore nisu čitali, zapazio je on. Čitanje izvornih dela je najpouzdanija priprema za pismeno izražavanje koje se od njih na ispitu zrelosti i očekuje. Književno obrazovanje nije poznavanje niza činjenica o književnosti već je to „naročita kultura duha, koja se ne da ničim drugim zameniti, i koja je svakom potrebna, i onome koji će docnije učiti istorijske i onome koji će učiti prirodne nauke" (Prosvetni glasnik, 1895: 442).

Na ispitu iz matematike od učenika se očekivalo brzo rešavanje svih računskih zadataka iz života i razumevanje osnova aritmetike i geometrije. Učenici realke kao poseban ispit polagali su i nacrtnu geometriju. Pravilima iz 1880. godine propisano je da se na pismenom ispitu nađe po jedan zadatak iz aritmetike i algebre i dva iz geometrije. Program za usmeni ispit obuhvatao je sledeće teme: „pravila o upoređenju i podizanju na prvi i drugi stupanj, o radnji s logaritmima, o izvlačenju korena i ostalim važnijim tvarima i njihovoj naučnoj svezi", kao i

razumevanje i rešavanje zadataka koji zahtevaju povezivanje znanja iz geometrije, planimetrije i trigonometrije.

Iz nastavnog programa za gimnaziju, pa samim tim i iz programa za ispit zrelosti, bile su izostavljene dve matematičke oblasti – stereometrija i analitička geometrija u ravni. A gimnazijalci su, iako ne poznaju ove oblasti, imali pravo upisa na Tehnički fakultet Velike škole. Ovaj propust zapazili su Dimitrije Nešić i Jovan Turoman i to obrazložili u izveštaju o ispitu zrelosti u Kragujevačkoj gimnaziji 1879. godine. Prema njihovom mišljenju, trebalo bi izvršiti racionalizaciju nastavnog plana i programa u gimnaziji, kako bi navedene oblasti bile uključene bez dodatnog opterećivanja učenika. Kosmografija ne mora da bude zaseban predmet, napomenuli su oni, zatim iz latinskog jezika bi trebalo sažeti neke oblasti, sintaksu na primer, i u nastavu uključiti lakše i zanimljivije tekstove, itd. (Prosvetni glasnik, 1880: 101).

Sugestija o dodatnim nastavnim oblastima iz matematike za gimnazijalce je uvažena, ali tek u Pravilima o ispitu zrelosti iz 1892. godine. Skup znanja koji se od tada i od gimnazijalaca očekivao iz matematike proširen je prema potrebama Velike škole i nije menjan do kraja perioda kojim se bavimo u ovom radu.[3] Na pismenom ispitu iz matematike trebalo je da se bar jedan od zadataka odnosi na neku realnu, životnu situaciju. Jovan Žujović je 1885. godine na ispitu u Kragujevačkoj gimnaziji zapazio da na ovaj „vrlo umesno stavljen zahtev" nastavnici nisu obratili pažnju, a učenicima su zadali teške i kompleksne zadatke. Takvim zadacima se, smatrao je on, može ispitati sposobnost logičkog mišljenja i pripremljenost za velikoškolske matematičke studije, ali to ne bi trebalo činiti na račun praktičnih znanja (Prosvetni glasnik, 1885: 591).

Iz pokušaja nastavnika da na što adekvatniji način odgovore zahtevu za „praktičnošću" nastajali su matematički zadaci koji nisu samo zanimljivi u opštem i pedagoškom smislu, već i kao ogledalo društvenih i ekonomskih okolnosti u Srbiji krajem XIX i početkom XX veka. Na primer, učenicima Gimnazije Kneza Miloša Velikog 1900. godine dat je sledeći zadatak: „Neki siromašak zatraži stan u jednoga tvrdice; kad mu ovaj ne dade, siromašak učini ovakav predlog; pristajete li veli, da Vam za prvi dan platim 1 dinar, za drugi 2, za treći 3 itd., ali da Vi meni

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[3] I. *Aritmetika i algebra*: O metarskim merama, rad s običnim i desetnim razlomcima i računskim zadacima iz života. Prve četiri vrste računanja s algebarskim brojevima i izrazima. Razmere i srazmere. Stepenovanje i korenovanje. Kvadrat i kvadratni koren algebarskih brojeva i određenih brojeva. Logaritmovanje algebarskih izraza i brojeva. Rešavanje jednačina prvog stepena s jednom i s više nepoznatih količina. Aritmetički i geometrijski redovi; njihovo sabiranje. Rešavanje kvadratnih jednačina s jednom nepoznatom i više nepoznatih. Iz nauke o kombinovanju: način sklapanja i broj permutacija, kombinacija i varijacija. — II. *Geometrija*: Vrste geometrijskih slika. Pravila o linijama i uglovima u krugu. Izračunavanje kružnog obima, luka i površine. Vrste i osobine rogljastih i okruglih tela. Izračunavanje površine i zapremine kod prizama, piramida, pravilnih tela, oblica, konusa i lopte. Osnovni obrasci trigonometrijskih funkcija; njihove primene na rešavanje trouglova. Glavni pojmovi iz analitičke geometrije.

date za prvi dan samo 1/1000 deo pare (din.), za drugi 2/1000, za treći 4/1000 itd. Gazda pristade na ovako originalnu pogodbu za mesec dana. Kakav je bio uzajamni račun posle ovoga vremena?“ (Prosvetni glasnik, 1900: 25). Učenici Druge beogradske gimnazije 1911. godine rešavali su sledeći zadatak: „Neko hoće svoju redovnu polugodišnju rentu od 550 dinara, koju ima da uživa 16 godina, da proda i novac koji za nju dobije, da izda pod prost interes, pa onda da uživa samo taj interes, ne krnjeći kapital. Koliko će imati polugodišnjeg prostog interesa ako je procenat pod složenim interesom 5%, a pod prostim 8%?“ (Prosvetni glasnik, 1911: 649).

Na ispitu iz živog stranog jezika učenike je očekivalo pismeno i usmeno prevođenje sa srpskog na strani jezik i „jednog težeg teksta“ na srpski jezik. Dobar prevod, prema Pravilima o ispitu zrelosti, podrazumevao je razumevanje osnovne ideje nepoznatog teksta, razumevanje rečeničkih konstrukcija i duha jezika, kao i usklađenost sa duhom srpskog jezika. Bogdan Popović, u već navedenom izveštaju, komentariše i deo ispita koji se odnosi na prevod sa srpskog na strani jezik. Najbolja metoda za izučavanje stranih jezika u školi jeste ona koja učenika motiviše da što više čita i prevodi sa stranog na maternji, a ne obrnuto, istakao je on. Ovo drugo podrazumeva dobro savladan jezik, obiman rečnik, poznavanje frazeologije jezika i rečeničkih konstrukcija. „Inače, to je za đaka mučan i beskoristan kuluk“, konstatuje on, i ovaj zahtev ima smisla postaviti samo na profesorskim ispitima (Prosvetni glasnik, 1895: 442). U nastavi bi trebalo ograničiti beskonačno učenje gramatike u korist čitanja, jer se tako uči i maternji jezik, napomenuo je Popović.

Pravilima iz 1876. godine predviđeno je polaganje ispita i iz nemačkog i iz francuskog jezika. Ova odredba ublažena je već 1880, kada je učenicima omogućeno da biraju jedan od ova dva jezika, a tek od 1902. godine ovaj ispit je podrazumevao samo prevod na srpski jezik „jednog dužeg i težeg sastava“ (Prosvetni glasnik, 1902: 133).

Usmeni ispit iz stranog jezika mogao je do 1892. godine presudno, po učenika i njegove planove, da utiče na dalji tok ispita zrelosti. Pravilima o ispitu zrelosti iz 1876. i 1880. godine propisano je da prvi po redosledu na usmenim ispitima bude strani jezik. Prema Pravilima iz 1876. godine, učenik koji ne položi ovaj deo usmenog ispita trebalo je da ponavlja završni, sedmi razred. To je značilo da ponovo treba da polaže i godišnji ispit, a zatim i ispit zrelosti (Prosvetni glasnik, 1880: 47). Pravilima iz 1880. godine ova odredba je ublažena pa je učenik koji ne dobije prelaznu ocenu samo gubio pravo da nastavi sa ispitom zrelosti i ponovo je mogao da ga polaže nakon tri meseca ili godinu dana. Izaslanici su u izveštajima isticali da je navedena odredba suviše stroga i da bi je trebalo ukinuti,

a ispit iz stranog jezika izjednačiti sa ostalim ispitima, što je i učinjeno 1892. godine.

Pored živog stranog jezika, gimnazijalci su polagali i latinski jezik. Do 1892. godine ovaj ispit se sastojao iz usmenog dela na kome je učenik trebalo da pokaže poznavanje gramatike i sposobnost prevođenja bez rečnika, i pismenog sa rečnikom. Od 1892. usmeni deo ispita je olakšan i podrazumevao je „prevođenje i tumačenje lakšeg teksta" (Prosvetni glasnik, 1892: 325).

Značajnije promene unošene su u deo programa ispita zrelosti predviđenog za usmeno polaganje. Ove izmene donekle su menjale i samu koncepciju zrelosti, odnosno pripremljenosti za fakultetsku nastavu. Za usmeno ispitivanje, pored prethodno prikazanih predmeta, bili su predviđeni i opšta i narodna istorija sa zemljopisom, fizika, hemija, kosmografija i jestastvenica.

Iz istorije je trebalo da učenici pokažu pregledno poznavanje „starije i novije istorije srpskoga naroda", kao i glavnih političkih i kulturnih momenata svih perioda (učenici realke samo nove istorije). Ovaj program propisan je 1880. godine i nije menjan, dok je deo programa koji se odnosio na zemljopis postepeno sužavan. Tako je od učenika, prema Pravilima iz 1880. godine, očekivano poznavanje osnovnih znanja iz matematičke, fizičke geografije i političke podele zemljine površine, a posebno Balkanskog poluostrva i Evrope, kao i mreža najvećih reka i ortografski pregled. Ova poslednja tema je 1892. godine isključena, a 1902. godine od učenika se očekivalo da pokažu samo ona znanja iz geografije koja su potrebna za razumevanje istorije. Istorija je, međutim, na ispitu zrelosti bila zastupljena u širem obimu nego što je propisano ovim programom, jer su teme za pismeni ispit iz srpskog jezika često bile istorijskog karaktera.

I program iz fizike i hemije postepeno je sužavan. Ispit iz fizike je prema Pravilima iz 1880. predviđen samo za gimnaziju i od učenika se očekivalo poznavanje, „bez izvođenja matematičkih dokaza", opštih svojstava tela, zakona kretanja i ravnoteže, toplote, svetlosti, zvuka i magnetizma. A u realkama je trebalo polagati još i hemiju i kosmografiju. Iz hemije se očekivalo da učenici poznaju osnovne elemente, hemijska jedinjenja, srodstva, sile' znake, formule, kiseline, baze, soli, važnije metale i njihova hemijska svojstva,' alkohol, etar i životinjske materije. Iz kosmografije oblik Zemlje, sklop i oblik kopna, mora, nastanak brda, provala, ravnica, položaj i odnos Zemlje prema Suncu i planetama.

Proširenje programa za ispit zrelosti iz matematike, 1892. godine, uticalo je na isključenje kosmografije kao oblasti znanja potrebne budućem studentu. Neki izaslanici (Jovan Žujović, Jovan Cvijić) sa ovakvom izmenom nisu se u potpunosti slagali i isticali su da učenik treba da pokaže i neka osnovna znanja o planeti na kojoj živi. Od 1902. godine učenici realke su umesto kosmografije

polagali fiziku, a 1907. fizika je isključena iz programa za gimnazije, pa su je uz hemiju polagali samo učenici realke.

Jestastvenica je bila sastavni deo ispita zrelosti do 1892. godine. Na ovom ispitu učenik je trebalo da pokaže osnovno poznavanje „sistemne podele triju carstava i njihovih glavnijih klasa i redova; da ume u nekoliko razložiti fiziološke pojave i funkcije važnijih životinjskih i biljnih organa" (Prosvetni zbornik zakona i naredaba, 1887: 216). Jovan Žujović je komentarišući organizaciju ispita iz ovog predmeta u kragujevačkj gimnaziji, 1885. godine, predstavio i svoje viđenje nastave i smisla ove naučne discipline kao nastavnog predmeta. Na ispitu iz jestastvenice nije bilo primeraka „ni iz jednog carstva prirodnog", zapazio je on, a to je bilo potrebno, ne kako bi se proverilo da li ih učenici prepoznaju nego „da li umeju sistematski da ih promatraju i naučno opisuju" (Prosvetni glasnik, 1885: 591). Za ovaj predmet, istakao je on, predviđen je dovoljan broj časova, međutim znanje koje su učenici na ispitu zrelosti pokazali „ne odgovara uloženom radu ni upotrebljenom vremenu". Žujović napominje da nastava ne treba da ima za cilj upoznavanje učenika sa velikim brojem činjenica već, razvijanje „posmatračke" i sposobnosti za „stvarno razumevanje celokupne prirode". Međutim, nastavnici se samo na rečima zalažu za izučavanje prirode iz nje same, a u praksi su, ipak, učenike upućivali na udžbenik. Nastavnicima bi trebalo „staviti u dužnost" da sa učenicima odlaze u prirodu i prikupljaju i posmatraju prirodne predmete, smatra Žujović.

Nekoliko godina kasnije, 1891. godine, direktor kragujevačke gimnazije napravio je i kritički osvrt na koncept ispita zrelosti u izveštaju o radu škole. Od učenika se traži isuviše veliki broj predmeta, smatrao je on, i zato nije moguće ostvariti osnovni zadatak ovog ispita. Jestastvenicu bi trebalo isključiti iz ispita zrelosti, a lista predmeta bi trebalo da bude svedena na jezike, matematiku s fizikom i geografiju s istorijom. Tako bi imalo smisla od učenika očekivati i zahtevati dublje i svestranije znanje od onog koje nakon ispita zrelosti učenici iznose iz škole (Prosvetni glasnik, 1891: 15). Pravilima o ispitu zrelosti iz 1892. godine jestastvenica je i isključena iz ispita zrelosti. Jovan Cvijić se, kao izaslanik na ispitima u pirotskoj gimnaziji 1895. godine, u svom izveštaju zalagao za ponovno uvođenje ovog predmeta jer je smatrao da učenici treba da pre dolaska u Veliku školu pokažu poznavanje nekih elementarnih pojmova prirodnih nauka (Prosvetni glasnik, 1895: 448). A. Henrih Liler, profesor Prve beogradske gimnazije, u članku o koncepciji ispita zrelosti, koji je iste godine objavljen u časopisu *Nastavnik*, konstatovao je: „U vremenu, kada su prirodne nauke tako važne, kada one svet kreću i njime vladaju, izbaciti prirodne nauke sa ispita zrelosti, na kome se predmeti ispituju samo u opštim crtama, čini mi se da je u najmanju ruku pogreška, ako ne i greh" (Liler, 1895: 593).

Preliminarnu listu zadataka za pismeni ispit sastavljao je predmetni nastavnik. Zatim je u dogovoru sa direktorom sužavao ovu listu tako da ostane za 10 pitanja više od broja prijavljenih kandidata. I konačno, ispitna komisija je na sam dan ispita sa ove liste odabirala ona pitanja koja će se zadati učenicima. Za usmeno ispitivanje pripremane su kombinacije pitanja na listićima, od kojih je učenik izvlačio jednu, s pravom da je zameni. I nastavnici i izaslanici su smatrali da bi trebalo da se obezbedi jedoobraznost maturskih ispita koja bi sve učenike srednjih škola postavila u isti položaj. Programi ispita za pojedine predmete koji su dati u okviru Pravila bili su uopšteni pa su nastavnici mogli da sastave veoma teška ili veoma laka pitanja. Jedan od predloga koji se najčešće zastupao bio je da svi maturanti polažu ispit na jednom mestu, što je tehnički bilo teško izvodljivo. Kao drugi oblik jednoobraznosti predlagano je da svi učenici istovremeno polažu ispit u svojim školama, a da zadaci budu sastavljeni u Ministarstvu. Međutim, nijedan od ovih predloga nije realizovan i učenici su na ispitu odgovarali na pitanja koja su njihovi nastavnici sastavljali, što je i bilo najadekvatnije rešenje u decenijama kojima se ovaj rad bavi. Realizacija nastave u većini srednjih škola svake godine nailazila je na prepreke karakteristične samo za određenu školu, na primer, nema propisanog udžbenika, pa učenici uče iz diktiranih beleški, odsustvo ili zamena nastavnika, nastavnici koji predaju nematične predmete, različiti materijalni uslovi rada, tek formirana škola, itd. Na ispitu zrelosti su predmetni nastavnik i ispitna komisija uzimali u obzir i ove okolnosti, pa su ili pitanja ili samo ocenjivanje donekle usklađivali sa njima, o čemu su, takođe, izaslanici izveštavali.

Na ispitu zrelosti u kragujevačkoj gimnaziji 1885. godine Jovan Žujović je primetio da ispitni odbor donosi ocene na „porotnički način", a ne strogo prema uspehu učenika na ispitu. „Sa time sam se i ja slagao, jer na svakome ispitu priličnu ulogu igra, ono što se obično zove „sreća", „slučaj", „stidljivost" il „strah", pa je dobro da ispitivači poznaju iz ranije zaslužnost kandidata i na minimum svedu ulogu pomenutih prilika" (Prosvetni glasnik, 1885: 592). Ovakav pristup ispitivanju je, prema Žujoviću, u saglasnosti sa prvim članom Pravila o ispitu zrelosti. Strogo ocenjivanje činjeničkog znanja treba ostaviti za Veliku školu i godišnje ispite u srednjoj školi, napomenuo je on, a „zrelost" može da se ima i dokaže i ako se i ne pokaže detaljno poznavanje izučavanih sadržaja. Zrelost ne treba priznati samo onima koji su jedva prelazili iz razreda u razred i koji su nezainteresovani i bez volje za daljim obrazovanjem.

Ispitna komisija je procenjivala „zrelost" svakog učenika dva puta, nakon pismenog i nakon usmenog ispita. Pravilima iz 1892. godine uvedena je mogućnost oslobađanja učenika od usmenog dela ispita i preciznije je definisano pitanje slabih ocena i „nepriznavanja" zrelosti. Učenik koji bi dobio slabu ocenu

iz srpskog, ili više od dve slabe iz drugih predmeta, nije mogao na usmeni ispit, i u tom slučaju njegov ispit je odlagan na godinu dana. Učenici primernog vladanja, koji su u završnom razredu imali vrlo dobar ili odličan uspeh, mogli su biti oslobođeni usmenog dela ispita zrelosti iz srpskog jezika, matematike i stranog jezika ukoliko su na pismenom ispitu ocenjeni kao odlični. Ispita iz predmeta koji se polažu samo usmeno učenik je oslobađan ukoliko je u najvišem razredu iz njih imao vrlo dobre i odlične ocene.

Prema procenama ispitnih odbora, ovaj član Pravila nije bio dovoljno preciziran jer su se često postavljala pitanja da li i koga treba osloboditi kog dela ispita. Nastavnici i izaslanici su predlagali da se ovaj član jednostavno isključi i da se nijedan učenik ne oslobađa ispita zrelosti. Prvo, zato što i najboljim učenicima treba dati priliku da pokažu ono što znaju, a za njih ustanoviti posebnu nagradu. Drugo, ako usmeni ispit polažu samo đaci sa slabim i dobrim uspehom, izgubiće se uvid u kvalitet nastave, čijoj proceni su ipak mogli doprineti odgovori vrlo dobrih i odličnih učenika. Pravilima iz 1902. godine precizirano je da usmenog ispitivanja mogu biti oslobođeni samo učenici primernog vladanja, koji su u poslednjem razredu gimnazije imali sve vrlo dobre i odlične ocene, a na pismenim ispitima prosečnu ocenu preko četiri.

Iako nisu mogli uticati na odluke o priznavanju zrelosti za svakog pojedinog učenika, izaslanici su u svojim izveštajima iznosili opštu ocenu o načinu ocenjivanja i zrelosti učenika određene škole, a uz nju i svoje viđenje kvaliteta nastave i rada škole u celini. Bogdan Popović je 1895. godine, u vezi sa „zrelošću" učenika Druge beogradske gimnazije, zabeležio da iako učenici „znaju svoje predmete", njihovo opšte znanje i stečene sposobnosti ipak nisu dovoljne da bi se odgovorilo zahtevima navedenim u članu 1. Pravila o ispitu zrelosti. To znači, smatrao je Popović, da „đaci znaju malo za svoje godine i za vreme koje su proveli u učenju", što važi i za najbolje učenike: „Što se tiče umne razvijenosti, ja nisam opazio da su naši đaci navikli da lično rade i samostalnije razmišljaju o predmetima koje uče." Od srednjoškolaca se ne može očekivati stepen samostalnosti „u opažanju i umovanju" koji se traži od studenata Velike škole, ali bi nastavnici, smatra on, trebalo da ih navikavaju na kritički pristup sadržajima koje izučavaju. Učenje ne bi trebalo da se svede na prosto zapamćivanje, već da učenici „uvek razumeju zašto i kako nešto biva, i da sami prave kombinacije na osnovu onoga što su naučili". Ispitani učenici ne umeju „da prave te kombinacije", konstatovao je Popović, pa tako ni osnovni zadatak koji je ispitu zrelosti postavljen nije moguće realizovati. Maturantima se izdaje svedočanstvo o umnoj zrelosti, dokument koji im otvara put ka studijama za koje oni, u stvari, nisu spremni jer „ta zrelost baš je ono u čemu oni oskudevaju najvećma". Prvo, zato što nisu naučili samostalno da misle i „kolika je šteta od toga za njihovo dalje učenje, pojamno je". I drugo, zato što

iz škole ne iznose sva potrebna znanja da bi nastavili školovanje. Odlični učenici zaista su odlični, ističe Popović, u pojedinim naučnim disciplinama, ali su slabi u dve osnovne, opšte, a to su maternji jezik i strani jezici. Popović napominje još i da je nesrazmerno mali broj odličnih učenika u odnosu na ostale, što predstavlja „nov znak slaboga uspeha u našim gimnazijama, i jedan od najozbiljnijih, od onih o kojima treba najveću brigu voditi" (Prosvetni glasnik, 1895: 442).

Tri godine kasnije, 1898, izaslanik u ovoj gimnaziji bio je Mihailo Nedeljković (inače i član komisije Glavnog prosvetnog saveta koja je sastavila predlog Pravila o ispitima zrelosti 1892. godine). On je zapazio još jedan problem koji je uticao na opštu sliku o kvalitetu nastave u ovoj školi. Od 40 prijavljenih kandidata, zrelost je priznata samo šesnaestorici i pored ocenjivanja koje je bilo „blago i korektno". Nedeljković, na primeru problema zatečenih u ovoj školi, predlaže mere organizacionog i sistemskog karaktera koje bi se mogle primeniti u svim školama kako bi njihov rad bio kvalitetniji. On smatra da dužnosti direktora škole treba da budu precizno definisane, da bi trebalo uvesti stalni nadzor savetodavnog karaktera, da nastavnici treba da predaju predmete za koje su školovani i pedagoški obrazovani na Velikoj školi, da treba sastaviti detaljne nastavne programe, preporučiti najbolje nastavne metode i posebnu pažnju posvetiti dobrim udžbenicima (Prosvetni glasnik, 1898: 70, 123).

Ipak, izaslanici su uglavnom konstatovali da su učenici kojima je priznata zrelost spremni za pohađanje fakultetske nastave. Oni kojima zrelost nije priznata imali su tri meseca ili godinu dana da se pripreme za to. Prolaznost na ispitima zrelosti, kretala se, na primer, u periodu od 1903. do 1906. godine u pojednim gimnazijama od 35,29% do 100%.

Tabela 2. (**Objavljeno u**: Prosvetni glasnik, 1907: 285)

Gimnazija	1903. g. %	1904. g. %	1905. g. %	1906. g. %
Prva beogradska	61, 29	79,07	71,43	82,76
Druga beogradska	90,32	77,08	76,67	40,74
Treća beogradska	71,74	86,11	47,37	73,44
Zaječarska	100,00	66,67	78,57	100,00
Kragujevačka	60,00	81,25	74,36	78,26
Niška	35,29	65,00	71,43	87, 50
Požarevačka	-	78,95	57,14	62,50
Užička	-	82,35	85,71	100,00
Svega	**68,08**	**78,11**	**65,82**	**76,19**

Statističari Ministarstva prosvete brižljivo su prikupljali, obrađivali i u Prosvetnom glasniku objavljivali podatke o ispitima zrelosti iz godine u godinu.

Javnosti su bili dostupni i zadaci sa pismenih ispita održanih u svakoj pojedinoj škola, kao i izveštaji izaslanika. Sve to ukazuje da je ispitima zrelosti posvećivana značajna pažnja od strane Ministarstva prosvete. Međutim, s obzirom na obimnost objavljene dokumentacije, kritički osvrti i teorijski radovi o ovoj temi nisu bili česti. Profesorsko društvo je do 1912. godine održalo više od 20 godišnjih skupština i za to vreme o ispitima zrelosti raspravljano je svega dva puta. Rezultat ovih diskusija predstavljen je uopštenim rezolucijama kojima se konstatuje da su ispiti zrelosti značajni i da se njima treba baviti kontinuirano. Ove diskusije vođene su na osnovu kraćih studija čiji su autori Mita Nešković (1892) i Henrih Liler (1895).

Ispitom zrelosti trebalo je proceniti pripremljenost učenika za dalje obrazovanje. Pripremljenost je do 1892. godine podrazumevala, pored pismenosti, i poznavanje određenog obima činjenica koje je učenik izučavao u okviru više predmeta. Ovakav koncept ispita pokazao se složenim i nepraktičnim jer se u moru činjenica, čije je poznavanje učenik trebalo da za kratko vreme pokaže, gubio uvid u njegovu sposobnost da prati nastavu na fakultetu. Do odgovarajućeg obima ispita došlo se 1902. godine, kada su doneta Pravila prema kojima je ispit zrelosti trebalo da polaže prva generacija učenika srednje škole reformisane 1898. godine. Predviđeno je da se i pismeno i usmeno učenik ispita iz disciplina koje čine osnovu pismenosti i samo usmeno iz predmeta specifičnih za smer srednje škole koji je pohađao – realni ili klasični.

Programi za ispite zrelosti, nasuprot očekivanju i insistiranju izaslanika, nisu precizirani, već su uopštavani. To je koncepciju ispitivanja udaljavalo od potrebe za jednoobraznošću na koju se takođe ukazivalo, a nastavnicima se ostavljalo više slobode u sastavljanju ispitnih pitanja. Kriterijumi, kao i oblik ispitivanja zrelosti u smislu člana 1. Pravila o ovom ispitu, takođe nisu bili precizirani. Ipak, ispiti zrelosti za srednju školu predstavljali su odraz kvaliteta nastave i rada nastavnika u određenoj školi, kao i mesto susreta ove škole sa Velikom školom i sa Ministarstvom prosvete. Izaslanici ministra prosvete su na ispitima imali prilike da se upoznaju sa budućim studentima i da se susretnu sa svojim bivšim studentima, sada nastavnicima, ali i da se informišu o problemima sa kojima se određena škola suočava. Minstarstvo su upoznavali sa svojim zapažanjima, a često i vršili pritisak da se određeni problem što pre reši. Njihovi izveštaji se, tako, nisu svodili samo na komentare o realizaciji Pravila o ispitu zrelosti, već sadrže i kritičke osvrte na ovaj dokument, na kvalitet nastave i organizaciju i rad škole.

Značenje ovog ispita za učenika definisao je profesor Mihailo Vulić, izaslanik na ispitu u Prvoj beogradskoj gimnaziji 1880. godine: „Ispit zrelosti je ozbiljno težak i po đaka sudbonosan; on se duboko dotiče častoljublja učeničkog. I u samoj stvari ispit smelosti, kome je zadatak da osvedoči spremu đaka za

samostalne studije u daljem fakultetskom obrazovanju, i treba da je ozbiljan ispit. I zato ga i ne treba bez preke potrebe otežavati" (Prosvetni glasnik, 1880: 627).

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Maturity Exam as the Condition for Further Education in Serbia at the end of XIX Century and the Beginning of XX Century[5]

Abstract: In Serbia people took their maturity exams for the first time in 1875/'76 school year. They were statutory in 1873 and regulated by special Rules with the amendments made in 1880, 1892, 1902 and 1907. According to this document, the maturity exam was expected to estimate whether the knowledge a student possesses is of sufficient quality for attending the lessons at High School, i.e, University, that is, whether the knowledge acquired in secondary education is extensive enough, systematic and applicable. In every school the exam was organised by the committee made of teachers, school director and the representative of the Ministry of Education. In this paper the programme of the maturity exam has been analysed along with the criteria, attitudes and dilemmas related to the estimation (assessment) of maturity, success rates, as well as the organisational aspects of this exam.

Key words: maturity exam, assessment, history of education, school.

Dokumenti

Key competences for adult learning professionals – Contribution to the development of a reference framework of key competences for adult learning

Dokument – *Ključne kompetencije za profesionalce u polju obrazovanja odraslih*, objavljen je 15. januara 2010. godine kao rezultat istraživačkog rada autora B. J. Buiskool, S. D. Broek, J. A. van Lakerveld, G. K. Zarifis i M. Osborne. Istraživanje je finansirala Evropska Komisija, a realizovala organizacija *Research voor Beleid* u saradnji sa Univerzitetom u Glazgovu, Univerzitetom u Solunu i Univerzitetom u Lejdenu.

Cilj studije bio je da se definiše set ključnih kompetencija (definisanih na nekoliko nivoa) za zaposlene u oblasti obrazovanja odraslih, koji se primenjuje u zemljama Evrope. U prilogu je izvod iz dokumenta – lista ključnih kompetencija.

* * *

Layer of competences - First layer of the model, namely the set of key competences needed to carry out a repertoire of activities in a certain context.

This layer consists of two parts:

A) Generic competences: These generic competences are competences that are relevant for carrying out all activities in the adult learning sector. Every professional working in the sector ought to possess these competences regardless of whether they carry out teaching, management, counselling or administrative activities. The cluster of generic competences consists of seven competences:

- A1) Personal competence in systematic reflection on one's own practice, learning and personal development: **being a fully autonomous lifelong learner**.
- A2) Interpersonal competence in communicating and collaborating with adult learners, colleagues and stakeholders: **being a communicator, team player and networker.**
- A3) Competence in being aware of and taking responsibility for the institutional setting in which adult learning takes place at all levels (in-

stitute, sector, the profession as such and society): **being responsible for the further development of adult learning.**

- A4) Competence in making use of one's own subject-related expertise and the available learning resources: **being an expert.**
- A5) Competence in making use of different learning methods, styles and techniques including new media and being aware of new possibilities and e-skills and assessing them critically: **being able to deploy different learning methods, styles and techniques in working with adults.**
- A6) Competence in empowering adult learners to learn and support themselves in their development into, or as, fully autonomous lifelong learners: **being a motivator.**
- A7) Competence in dealing with group dynamics and heterogeneity in the background, learning needs, motivation and prior experience of adult learners: **being able to deal with heterogeneity and groups.**
- The first three competences (A1-A3) deals with aspects in relation to being a professional, while the last four competences (A4-A7) are more focused on pedagogical / didactical competences.

B) Specific competences: These specific competences are competences that are needed to carry out a specific array of activities. These competences are needed for professionals responsible for a specific field of activity (e.g. facilitating learning, managing the institute, etc.). The specific competences are therefore not required for all the professionals working in the adult learning sector. A distinction is made between specific competences directly linked to the learning process (upper half, B1-B6), such as teaching or counselling and spe cific competences indirectly linked to or supportive of the learning process (lower half, B7- B12), such as management and administrative support. The competences, which are directly linked to specific activities carried out by adult learning professionals in the learning process, consists of six separate competences:

- B1) Competence in assessment of prior experience, learning needs, demands, motivations and wishes of adult learners: **being capable of assessment of adult learners' learning needs.**
- B2) Competence in selecting appropriate learning styles, didactical methods and content
- for the adult learning process: **being capable of designing the learning process.**

- B3) Competence in facilitating the learning process for adult learners: **being a facilitator of knowledge (practical and/or theoretical) and a stimulator of adult learners' own development.**
- B4) Competence to continuously monitor and evaluate the adult learning process in order to improve it: **being an evaluator of the learning process.** B5) Competence in advising on career, life, further development and, if necessary, the use of professional help: **being an advisor/counsellor.**
- B6) Competence in designing and constructing study programmes: **being a programme developer.**

There are six additional specific competences supportive to, or indirectly related to the learning process:

- B7) Competence in managing financial resources and assessing the social and economic benefits of the provision: **being financially responsible.**
- B8) Competence in managing human resources in an adult learning institute: **being a (people) manager.**
- B9) Competence in managing and leading the adult learning institute in general and managing the quality of the provision of the adult learning institute: **being a general manager.**
- B10) Competence in marketing and public relations: **being able to reach the target groups, and promote the institute.**
- B11) Competence in dealing with administrative issues and informing adult learners and adult learning professionals: **being supportive in administrative issues.**
- B12) Competence in facilitating ICT-based learning environments and supporting both adult learning professionals and adult learners in using these learning environments: **being a ICT-facilitator.**

Executive summary of *Europe 2020* Strategy

Evropa je u procesu transformacije. Aktuelna kriza izbrisala je godine ekonomskog i društvenog napretka i iznela na videlo strukturne slabosti evropske ekonomije. Istovremeno, međunarodne tendencije – globalizacija, ugrožavanje prirodnih resursa, starenje populacije postavljaju dodatne izazove za Evropu, koja mora intenzivnije da planira svoju budućnost.

Evropa može da uspe ako deluje zajedničkim snagama. Potrebna je strategija za zajednički izlaz iz krize i za transformaciju evropske ekonomije u „zelenu, održivu i inkluzivnu" ekonomiju, koja istovremeno omogućava visoku stopu zaposlenosti, produktivnosti i socijalne kohezije.

Evropa 2020 je dokument Evropske unije koji nudi viziju evropske socijalne i tržišne ekonomije za 21 vek.

Executive summary of Europe 2020 je sažetak dokumenta *Communication from the commission: Europe 2020. A strategy for smart, sustainable and inclusive growth.*

* * *

Europe faces a moment of transformation. The crisis has wiped out years of economic and social progress and exposed structural weaknesses in Europe's economy. In the meantime, the world is moving fast and long-term challenges – globalisation, pressure on resources, ageing – intensify. The EU must now take charge of its future.

Europe can succeed if it acts collectively, as a Union. We need a strategy to help us come out stronger from the crisis and turn the EU into a smart, sustainable and inclusive economy delivering high levels of employment, productivity and social cohesion. Europe 2020 sets out a vision of Europe's social market economy for the 21st century.

Europe 2020 puts forward three mutually reinforcing priorities:
- Smart growth: developing an economy based on knowledge and innovation.
- Sustainable growth: promoting a more resource efficient, greener and more competitive economy.

- Inclusive growth: fostering a high-employment economy delivering social and territorial cohesion.

The EU needs to define where it wants to be by 2020. To this end, the Commission proposes the following EU headline targets:

- 75 % of the population aged 20-64 should be employed.
- 3% of the EU's GDP should be invested in R&D.
- The "20/20/20" climate/energy targets should be met (including an increase to 30% of emissions reduction if the conditions are right).
- The share of early school leavers should be under 10% and at least 40% of the younger generation should have a tertiary degree.
- 20 million less people should be at risk of poverty.

These targets are interrelated and critical to our overall success. To ensure that each Member State tailors the Europe 2020 strategy to its particular situation, the Commission proposes that EU goals are translated into national targets and trajectories.

The targets are representative of the three priorities of smart, sustainable and inclusive growth but they are not exhaustive: a wide range of actions at national, EU and international levels will be necessary to underpin them. The Commission is putting forward seven flagship initiatives to catalyse progress under each priority theme:

- "Innovation Union" to improve framework conditions and access to finance for research and innovation so as to ensure that innovative ideas can be turned into products and services that create growth and jobs.
- "Youth on the move" to enhance the performance of education systems and to facilitate the entry of young people to the labour market.
- "A digital agenda for Europe" to speed up the roll-out of high-speed internet and reap the benefits of a digital single market for households and firms.
- "Resource efficient Europe" to help decouple economic growth from the use of resources, support the shift towards a low carbon economy, increase the use of renewable energy sources, modernise our transport sector and promote energy efficiency.
- "An industrial policy for the globalisation era" to improve the business environment, notably for SMEs, and to support the development of a strong and sustainable industrial base able to compete globally.

- "An agenda for new skills and jobs" to modernise labour markets and empower people by developing their of skills throughout the lifecycle with a view to increase labour participation and better match labour supply and demand, including through labour mobility.
- "European platform against poverty" to ensure social and territorial cohesion such that the benefits of growth and jobs are widely shared and people experiencing poverty and social exclusion are enabled to live in dignity and take an active part in society.

These seven flagship initiatives will commit both the EU and the Member States. EU-level instruments, notably the single market, financial levers and external policy tools, will be fully mobilised to tackle bottlenecks and deliver the Europe 2020 goals. As an immediate priority, the Commission charts what needs to be done to define a credible exit strategy, to pursue the reform of the financial system, to ensure budgetary consolidation for long-term growth, and to strengthen coordination within the Economic and Monetary Union.

Stronger economic governance will be required to deliver results. Europe 2020 will rely on two pillars: the thematic approach outlined above, combining priorities and headline targets; and country reporting, helping Member States to develop their strategies to return to sustainable growth and public finances. Integrated guidelines will be adopted at EU level to cover the scope of EU priorities and targets. Country-specific recommendations will be addressed to Member States. Policy warnings could be issued in case of inadequate response. The reporting of Europe 2020 and the Stability and Growth Pact evaluation will be done simultaneously, while keeping the instruments separate and maintaining the integrity of the Pact.

The European Council will have full ownership and be the focal point of the new strategy. The Commission will monitor progress towards the targets, facilitate policy exchange and make the necessary proposals to steer action and advance the EU flagship initiatives. The European Parliament will be a driving force to mobilise citizens and act as co-legislator on key initiatives. This partnership approach should extend to EU committees, to national parliaments and national, local and regional authorities, to social partners and to stakeholders and civil society so that everyone is involved in delivering on the vision.

The Commission proposes that the European Council endorses – in March – the overall approach of the strategy and the EU headline targets, and approves – in June – the detailed parameters of the strategy, including the integrated guidelines and national targets. The Commission also looks forward to the views and support of the European Parliament for making Europe 2020 a success.

Hronika, kritika i polemika

Seminar:
Adult Education in Germany and Europe

The seminar "Adult Education in Germany and Europe" was organized within the project "Strengthening capacities in the field of adult education" with the aim to offer opportunity to adult educators and adult education experts from Serbia to become familiar with the various institutions for adult education in Germany and Europe, to look at different ways of delivering educational programs, to develop understanding of political education in EU, to implement acquired knowledge in the related areas of work and to disseminate acquired knowledge latter on. The program was developed and realized through the cooperation of three different organizations: the State Office for Political Education of Baden-Württemberg (Landeszentrale für politische Bildung Baden-Württemberg), Institute for International Cooperation of the German Adult Education Association (Deutscher Volkshochschul-Verband e.V., DVV), International Forum Burg Liebenzell and Adult Education Society Belgrade.

The seminar took place from 9th to 16th May 2010, mainly in Burg Liebenzell, the place owned by the organization International Forum in Bad Liebenzell, Germany. It was attended by 36 participants from different fields of expertise in adult education who work in various institutions and organizations, such as: Ministry of Education, Institute for Pedagogy and Andragogy, Training Centres, The Centre for Vocational Education and Adult Education, higher educational institutions, the National Employment Service, schools, educational providers, etc. The seminar was the continuation of the existing cooperation with the European and German organizations through the different educational programs. The good communication between Serbian Ministry of Education and European and German institutions and organizations is of extreme importance, as well as the creation of possibilities for the cooperation in future projects.

The program begun on 10th May in the premises of the International Forum Burg Liebenzell. The hosts Gertrud Gandenberger (International Forum) and Karlheinz Dürr (Landeszentrale für politische Bildung Baden-Württemberg) presented their organizations and the areas of work. At the very beginning of the day, the group cohesion was developed by using sociometry. It was also interesting for the participants to become acquainted with methods for creating the

group at the seminars for political education and civic education. Further one, Mr. Kälberer, representative of the "Service Point for Eastern Europe"/Baden-Württemberg-Foundation (Baden-Württemberg-Stiftung), gave the presentation of the programs for Eastern Europe, highlighting Danube strategy and the possibilities for projects in Serbia. Dr. Aleksandra Pejatović gave presentation on the organization and activities of the Institute for Andragogy and Pedagogy, and Aleksandar Bulajić presented the activities of the Adult education Society in Serbia.

During the first day afternoon, participants and their hosts visited VHS (Folk High School) in Calw, the municipality in the middle of Baden-Württemberg in the south of Germany. The town's history has begun in 11th century and it is nowadays known as a place where Herman Hesse spent his youth. Today, there is a well known Herman Hesse museum.

In VHS in Calw, Mr. Hutter, the deputy director, gave the presentation on the organization and educational program of VHS. It was very interesting to hear that the school is financed almost 20% from tailor made trainings that educators and trainers deliver to the companies. Participants were very keen to find out more about the programs regarding vocational education and about the competences of teachers in adult education and their qualifications.

At the end of the day, participants were welcomed at the City house of Bad Liebenzell by Mr. Komenda, the head of the office. He presented the history and development of Bad Liebenzell, "the city of health", as he said. Bad Libenzell is well known in Germany by its thermal springs and spa culture. It is the place in the Black forest surrounded by mountains.

On the 11th May participants were exploring the topic of European integrations through the presentations and group simulation. Christian Rapp and Gertrud Gandenberger introduced participants to the EU establishment and further development. The aim of the role play and simulation was to learn and to understand the process of adoption of the laws at the EU level. By going through the all steps of adoption of the laws, participants had opportunity to become aware of the relationships and the balance of power existing between different institutions of the European Union. Afterward, the facilitators presented some interesting interactive methods they have created to work on topics about European integrations, which were found very useful by adult educators in the group.

On the 12th May the group went to Strasbourg, France, to visit the Council of Europe and the European Parliament. First, they visited the plenary room at the Council of Europe and heard general information about the founding and the aims of work of this European institution. Later on, they were welcomed by Tanja Radušić Hadžić, who presented the work of Council of Europe, particularly regarding the area of education. She also explained to the participants the aims

and process of work of European Court of Human Rights and its relation to the Council of Europe in seeking the development of common and democratic principles based on the European Convention on Human Rights throughout Europe.

Following the visit to the Council of Europe, the group visited the European Parliament, one of the most important institutions of the European Union. Participants had the opportunity to see the main hall and latter on to hear about the European Parliament, its members, the way decisions are being made and about the process of accession to EU. Participants have found the visits of these two institutions extremely significant and very informative. It was a great privilege to visit the institution that adopted The European Convention on Human Rights, "the jewel in the crown" of the Council of Europe. Participants expressed high motivation to organize different projects and programs regarding the education for human rights after they return to Serbia.

The next day, 13th May, participants spent again in Burg Liebenzell. Professor Dieter Wolf from the University of Bremen gave a very inspiring lecture on significance of education for European integration. The group was very active and responsive to the questions that professor raised regarding education, democracy and the European Union. He also talked about different perspectives of educational policy in the EU which was very stimulating for the participants.

Afterwards, Christian Roth gave an overview of EU educational programs and possibilities for Serbia. It was quite important for the adult educators to understand the opportunities and think about possible projects that they can organize through the different EU programs.

Gertrud Gandenberger introduced the participants to the Association of German Educational Organizations (Der Arbeitskreis deutscher Bildungsstätten) and to the DARE (Democracy and Human Rights Education) network.

On the 14th May the group visited VHS in Stuttgart (www.vhs-bw.de), one of the biggest of that kind. Andrea Bernet-Burkle and Andrea Wacker gave a very informative presentation on the organization and program of the VHS. It was impressive for the participants to hear about the number of people who attend various educational programs, and it was extremely useful to find out about the different projects of the organization such as *Bildungsnetz* with KMU (Development from the education provider to a service provider) and Xpert Business (Modular course and certification system for commercial and professional subjects).

In Stuttgart participants visited also Europe Centre Baden-Württemberg (Europa Zentrum Baden-Württemberg), non-partisan, independent, non-profit institution of the European-oriented political communication since 1976, working as the Institute and Academy for European issues. **Florian Setzen**, the director, explained the methods of working in the field of education regarding various

European issues (youth and adult education through seminars, study tours, panel discussions, presentations and e-learning courses, but also the forms such as scientific symposia, conferences and publication projects of the Institute, where the scientific knowledge is as useful as the communication of scientific findings to the wider population in Baden-Württemberg).

On the last day of the seminar 15th May, Ralph Schneider presented the Centre for General Scientific Continuing Education at the University of Ulm (Universität Ulm). The target group of the centre are people over 50, who are particularly interested in the courses of "third age education". He informed the participants about different projects of the centre focusing on the on line learning designed for the elderly people. He gave some inspiring examples of successfully realized projects and suggested further cooperation.

During the afternoon the participants went to the astonishing university town Tübingen where they had opportunity to hear about the history of this place, especially regarding many well-known personalities and scholars who have resided in Tübingen over the past few centuries (poets Friedrich Hölderlin and Eduard Mörike, Alois Alzheimer from whom Alzheimer's disease takes its name, German philosopher Georg Wilhelm Friedrich Hegel, one of the creators of German Idealism, famous composer Friedrich Schiller, Primož Trubar, who published the first two books in the Slovene language *Catechismus* and *Abecedarium* in Tübingen in 1550).

After return to Burg Liebenzell, participants had the opportunity to express, write down and present to the group and organizers their ideas about future projects as the way of the continuation of collaboration. They presented some very interesting topics for the future projects: improvement of methods for political education, understanding of different countries position within the EU, quality assurance of civic education, education for tolerance and human rights, students and teachers mobility, creation the network for exchanging experience, etc.

After the successful visit of multiplicators from Serbia to the EU and German institutions the intention for the continuation of the cooperation was expressed. It is very important for Serbian experts in adult education to become familiar with the European Union institutions and the methods in education for the European integration so they can use the other countries' experiences and create and implement their own ideas. The participants highly evaluated the study trip and estimated that it would have a great impact on their activities and would improve their practical work in adult education. According to the evaluation, the trip was very important for the better understanding of European institutions and whole European Union, its organization, work and ways the citizens of EU can participate in the decision making process.

Maja Maksimović

Project:
Mutual Learning
– Learning Through Sharing

The European Training Foundation – project organizer

The European Training Foundation is an agency of the European Union based in Turin, Italy. It was established to contribute to the development of the education and training systems of the EU partner countries. The ETF mission is to help transition and developing countries to harness the potential of their human capital through the reform of education, training and labor market systems in the context of the EU's external relations policy.

ETF base their work on the conviction that human capital development in a lifelong learning perspective can make a fundamental contribution to increasing prosperity, creating sustainable growth and encouraging social inclusion in transition and developing countries.

Project purpose and objectives

ETF organized (2006) a peer learning project in South Eastern Europe which was very successful, particularly in terms of policy learning, capacity building and networking in the region. It was important to create a systematic follow up which was only possible if it is linked to national or donor initiatives.

The Mutual Learning project is a new three-year initiative (2009-2011) organized by the European Training Foundation. The purpose of the project is to prepare the candidates and potential candidates to adopt EU processes by creating a network and providing a space for countries to exchange experience and learn from each others practice. The countries involved are Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Kosovo, Montenegro, Serbia and Turkey. The objectives of the ETF are to provide opportunities for learning among policy makers and experts on policy issues of common

concern with view to inform decision makers in context of ongoing reform processes in the areas of:

- adult learning
- quality assurance
- post - secondary professional education and VET

Through ETF country analysis and plans, which reflect the present state of discussion in the countries of South Eastern Europe, these three key topics emerged for future national and regional policy debates and actions. All of these areas are at the different stage of development in aforementioned countries and therefore it is crucial for them to support each other through exchanging experiences, issues and possible solutions. Capacity building and policy learning will help to improve the awareness of all stakeholders about the latest developments in the region and in the EU, which can then be fed into education and training reforms. Stakeholders from different ministries, schools, unions, agencies and research institutes will be better equipped to carry out education reform activities, join international partnership and actively participate in knowledge networks.

Expected results of the Mutual Learning project

The three year project is expected to bring the following results:

1. Communities of practice have identified key challenges in three areas: quality development and quality assurance, post-secondary education and adult learning and promote actions for policy changes in SEE countries;
2. Increase capacities of key stakeholders for evidence based policy making through regional networking and for reflecting on other countries' and EU experience and practice for national policy making;
3. Policy documents, briefs and statements in the three areas of the countries of SEE;
4. Three regional analysis of the policy discussions on quality development, quality assurance, post-secondary education and adult learning in SEE countries and recommendations for national or donor investments;
5. Key stakeholders kept up to date on EU developments and documents on education and training through regular information updates and other means.

Communities of practice

The role of ETF in this project is to make available instruments and resources and give assistance and guidance to participants during their learning. The ETF set up communities of practice on each of the three themes. Communities of practice are self-managed communities of professionals who define their own topics and agenda. Members develop a sense of belonging to the community by sharing knowledge and experience in the form of methods, stories, cases, tools and documents with view to solve problems of common concern.

Each community of practice prepared and follow its own three-year (2009-2011) action plan and the ETF facilitates policy learning by organizing network meetings and mutual learning activities, such as peer learning visits, peer reviews, comparative analysis, study visits and benchmarking.

Kick off conference Turin, 5 - 6 May 2009

During the start conference of project the objectives, policy priorities and methodology for the communities of practice were discussed. The main objective of the conference was for each community of practice to develop its mutual learning action plan for the full period of the project. The actions focused on mutual learning activities with a clear link to potential national action. During the conference participants defined the priorities in the aforementioned key areas. In further review of the project the focus will be on the area of adult learning. Within the developed action plan for the three target groups (companies, their managers and employees; unemployed and inactive people; individuals who want to increase their skill levels) in the area of adult learning further priorities emerged:

- organizing training and advisory services for micro and small companies;
- motivating employers to train people;
- training needs analysis with advisers;
- supply to respond to demand;
- how to motivate active unemployed and inactive adults;
- effective labor market training schemes;
- functional literacy/ basic and vocational skills;
- develop models for functional literacy and education;
- develop modules and materials for functional literacy and education;
- train the trainers;
- accreditation and certification.

Adult Basic skills workshop

One of the activities of mutual learning action plan in the area of adult learning was Adult Basic skills workshop that took place from 3rd to 5th May 2010 in Turin. The participants were experts and policy makers from South Eastern Europe who shared their valuable experience in the field. Experts from France and Norway gave their examples of good practice in developing basic skills in their countries. They supported participants to define further actions in functional education and basic skills development.

The experts from Norwegian Agency for Lifelong Learning VOX presented their initiative to create European Basic Skills Network and invited participants to the Launching Conference in Oslo. The aim of the network is to foster policy developments in the field of basic skills for adults, providing a platform for cooperation and collaboration between European policy makers and policy providers in the field. Many European eminent experts in adult education attended the conference as well as the representatives from Serbia.

This way the Adult basic skills workshop has two benefits. First, participants agreed that they have learned a lot about how the basic skills issue is addressed in their neighboring countries. On the other hand, the European Basic Skills Network is an excellent opportunity to share experience and collaborate with the policy makers and policy providers from the whole Europe.

Future actions – research

During the conference all participants agreed that the next step in action plan in area of adult education will be a research study, in participating countries, into the reasons why adults do not participate in learning and what exactly their skills or training needs are. It will be a starting point for further support of adult basic skills development in the region.

Mirjana Milanović
Maja Maksimović

Prikaz knjige:
Kristinka Ovesni, Andragoški kadrovi – profesija i profesionalizacija

U izdanju Instituta za pedagogiju i andragogiju Filozofskog fakulteta u Beogradu objavljena je monografija Kristinke Ovesni *Andragoški kadrovi – profesija i profesionalizacija*. Monografija sadrži 310 strana osnovnog teksta i 40 strana priloga u obliku relevantne literature (sa preko 400 bibliografskih jedinica), indeksa pojmova i indeksa imena. U ovom obimnom delu izlažu se rezultati teorijskih proučavanja i empirijskih istraživanja fenomena profesionalizma i profesionalizacije u područja obrazovanja odraslih. Tema je svakako ekskluzivna, interesantna i reklo bi se izazovna, ne samo za andragošku, već i za širu naučno stručnu javnost iz nekoliko razloga:

Studija *Andragoški kadrovi – profesija i profesionalizacija* je podeljena na tri veće i međuzavisne celine; a) teorijsko-analitička rasprava o fenomenu profesije i profesionalizacije sa posebnim osvrtom na profesionalizaciju u obrazovanju odraslih, b) metodološki pristup problemu istraživanja i v) analiza i interpretacija rezultata.

U prvom i najobimnijem delu razmatraju se različiti pristupi u definisanju pojma profesije i profesionalizacije kao što su: etimološki, taksonomski, socio-ekonomski, ekološki, sistemski, dinamički, funkcionalno andragoški.

Termin profesija se od XIX veka vezuje za grupu distinktivnih zanimanja, prvenstveno iz oblasti bogoslovije, prava i medicine. Ova grupa razlikovala se od ostalih zanimanja po dve ključne karakteristike. Obavljanje ovih zanimanja podrazumevalo je univerzitetsko obrazovanje i ekskluzivan društveni status. Na osnovu analize obimne literature autor izvodi zaključak da definisanje karakteristika profesije omogućuje grupi ljudi koji obavljaju slične poslove da svoje zanimanje standarizuju i da se organizuju tako da mogu da ostvare određene kriterijume na osnovu kojih će se njihovo zanimanje posmatrati kao profesija. Ultimativni cilj u određivanju karakteristika neke profesije jeste davanje mogućnosti osobama koje nisu njeni pripadnici da je prepoznaju kao profesiju. Za ostvarenje tog cilja neophodno je da se postigne prepoznatljivost na dva nivoa: a) na nivou društva i b) među članovima drugih, već priznatih profesija. U tom kontekstu

posebna pažnja poklanja se uspostavljanju razlike između profesije i zanimanja. Pored analize i kritičke interpretacije obimne literature o fenomenu profesije i profesionalizacije, sistematski je, polazeći od koncepta „idealnih ili razvijenih profesija", analizirano 25 određenja pojma profesije. Ta analiza pokazuje da su najfrekventniji od svih (19) karakteristika profesije dugotrajno visoko obrazovanje, sistem za održavanje profesionalne discipline i kontrole ulaska u profesiju i postojanje kodeksa profesionalne etike.

Pojam i fenomen profesije Ovesni analizira dominantno iz andragoškog ugla, nastojeći da ukaže na međuzavisnost profesije i obrazovanja, odnosno znanja, čime apostrofira intelektualnu, odnosno kognitivnu komponentu profesije kao njeno primarno određenje. Razmatranje procesa profesionalizacije u obrazovanja odraslih započinje analizom područja obrazovanja odraslih, odnosno identifikovanjem njegovih socijalnih, filozofskih (etičkih), političkih ekonomskih dimenzija. Analiza pokazuje da se određenje područja obrazovanja odraslih kreće u rasponu od ekskluzivnih do inkluzivnih, od sistematskih i namernih uticaja do nenamernih, od isključivo individualnih do širih socijalnih aktivnosti, od aktivnosti obrazovanja do aktivnosti učenja. Bez obzira na prisutne dileme postoji snažan trend ka profesionalizaciji ovog područja. Do sredine XX veka područje obrazovanja odrasli dominantno je obeležavalo delovanje mnoštva praktičara čiju su široku osnovu činili volonteri, izvestan broj stalno zaposlenih, ali neadekvatno profesionalno pripremljenih praktičara i sasvim mali deo profesionalnih andragoga. Poslednje decenije XX veka obeležilo je stvaranje propustljivijih granica područja obrazovanja odrasli prema drugim profesijama uz potpuniji teorijski pluralizam. U pokušaju da odgovori na pitanje da li je zanimanje andragog već steklo status profesije, Ovesni ukazuje na istraživanja koja su uglavnom koncipirana na taksonomskoj osnovi, a koja sugerišu da profesiji andragog nedostaju neke od bazičnih karakteristika koje poseduju razvijene profesije. Ova istraživanja pokazuj da profesionalna priprema andragoških kadrova nije precizno definisana, niti o profesionalnoj pripremi andragoga postoje dostupne baze podataka. Sa druge strane, Ovesni ističe da profesionalna praksa andragoških kadrova ispunjava brojne kriterijume na osnovu kojih se to zanimanje može posmatrati kao profesija.

U drugom tematskom bloku koji nosi naziv *Metodološki pristup problemu* autor pozicionira predmet istraživanja i formuliše osnovni istraživački problem, odnosno pitanje – da li prethodna profesionalna priprema, tj., njena sublimacija u profesionalno znanje dominira procesom profesionalizacije područja obrazovanja odraslih. Istraživačke varijable grupisane su kao zavisne (elementi profesije), nezavisne (obrazovni kompleks) i kontrolne (bio-socijalne, radne i organizacione varijable). Shodno tome, organizovano je obimno empirijsko istraživanje na uzorku od 730 ispitanika od čega su 150 pripadnici razvijenih profesija, 91 studenti

andragogije i 489 andragoški kadrovi. U koncipiranju, realizaciji i tumačenju dobijenih nalaza autor se rukovodio pretpostavkom da pored faktora iz bio-socijalnog, radnog i organizacionog kompleksa, prethodna profesionalna priprema prestavlja ključni činilac u procesu profesionalizacije. U prikupljanju podataka korišćena je baterija instrumenata – upitnika i skala čija je valjanost i validnost utvrđivana kroz sprovođenje preliminarnih istraživanja na manjim uzorcima. Dobijeni podaci su tretirani pomoću većeg broja matematičko- statističkih postupaka kao što su: multivarijatna analiza varijanse, kanonička korelaciona analiza i faktorska analiza.

U trećem tematskom bloku data je analiza i interpretacija rezultata istraživanja sa obiljem komentara i predloga za dalje delovanje. Obimni istraživački nalazi svrstani su u deset posebnih grupacija, odnosno poglavlja.

U prvom redu istraživanje je pokazalo da prethodna profesionalna priprema oblikuje percepciju specijalističkog znanja kao preduslova za pripadnost profesionalnoj asocijaciji. Posebno vredni su nalazi koji se tiču procene profesionalne solidarnosti, odnosno moći profesionalne asocijacije izražene kroz umreženost članova. Prema mišljenju mnogih istraživača percepcija moći sopstvene profesionalne asocijacije na području obrazovanja odraslih predstavlja jedan od osnovnih pokazatelja profesionalizacije jednog područja rada. U očima andragoških kadrova andragoška profesija ima status „profesije u nastajanju" jer se, između ostalog, moć profesionalne asocijacije ne procenjuje kao veliki. Istovremeno svi zaposleni na području obrazovanja odraslih opažaju kako moć njihove profesionalne asocijacije u društvu raste sa porastom moći njihove profesionalne asocijacije na području obrazovanja odraslih.

Bez obzira na prethodnu profesionalnu pripremljenost svi ispitivani subjekti smatraju da obavljanje andragoških poslova zahteva punu profesionalnu autonomiju. Većina respondenata ocenjuje da uživa privilegije i nezavisnost u delovanju zbog ugleda sopstvene profesije u društvu. Ove procene, međutim, variraju s obzirom na određena socijalna i demografska obeležja, a posebno s obzirom na nivo obrazovanja, starost, dužinu radnog staža, bračni i roditeljski status.

Socijalna kontrola angažovanih u području obrazovanja odraslih ispitivana je putem a) percepcije sopstvene odgovornosti, b) percepcije specijalističke jurisdikcije, v) samoprocene podsticajnosti evaluacije i g) opažanja frekvencije evaluacije. Utvrđeno je da kod neadekvatno profesionalno pripremljenih andragoških kadrova na percepciju smanjene odgovornosti deluje promena toka karijere u mlađoj životnoj dobi ka oblasti za koju se nisu profesionalno pripremali. Percepcija sopstvene odgovornosti pred klijentima zavisi od unutrašnjih činilaca organizacije. To autora navodi na zaključak da kod neadekvatno pripremljenih kadrova program obrazovanja i usavršavanja valja učiniti mandatornim.

Kada je u pitanju percepcija društvenog statusa sopstvene profesije postoji velika sličnost između andragoga i onih koji nisu adekvatno pripremani za rad u području obrazovanja odraslih. I jedni i drugi percipiraju profesiju andragoga kao važnu za društvenu stabilnosti i smatraju da profesija kontroliše standarde i uslove profesionalnog obrazovanja članova. Neadekvatno profesionalno pripremljeni kadrovi, procenjujući profesionalne standarde, ispoljili su neke karakteristike pripadnika razvijenih profesija: posvećenost, odsustvo lukrativnosti, lojalnost i odanost sopstvenoj profesionalnoj grupi, uslužnu orijentaciju i jasno izraženu potrebu za kontinuiranim profesionalnim obrazovanjem. Pitanje profesionalne etike posebno je tretirano i nisu nađene značajnije razlike među onima koji jesu i onima koji nisu posebno profesionalno pripremani. Zbog toga autor zaključuje da je pitanje profesionalne etike više u domenu uticaja varijabli rada nego posebne profesionalne pripreme.

Kada je u pitanju profesionalna subkultura istraživanje je pokazalo da andragozi, za razliku od onih koji nisu adekvatno pripremani, jasnije percipiraju međusobnu kooperativnost, ali da su neodlučniji u području međusobne razmene iskustava, neformalnih sastanaka, uvažavanja iskustvenog autoriteta i međusobno koordiniranih aktivnosti. Dobijeni nalazi potvrđuju shvatanje Helsbija o povezanosti profesionalne subkulture sa individualnim iskustvom i njenim oblikovanjem kroz grupnu ili pojedinačnu interakciju. Razlike u percepciji ispoljenosti pojedinih elemenata profesionalne subkulture ne mogu se objasniti varijablama iz bio-socijalnog, radnog i organizacionog kompleksa.

Razlozi za bavljenje određenom profesijom predstavljaju jednu od centralnih životnih odluka i kao takvi su refleksija personalnih prioriteta i samoopažanja. Adekvatno profesionalno pripremljeni andragozi svoje profesionalno delovanje češće opažaju kao ishod profesionalizovanosti andragogije. Menadžerske funkcije i visok stepen odgovornosti za andragoge predstavljaju krucijalne razloge za bavljenje sopstvenom profesijom. Kod neadekvatno profesionalno pripremljenih ispitanika dominira motiv sigurnosti ili instrumentalistička orijentacija. Oni svoju aktivnost posmatraju kao „posao", a ne kao profesiju.

Uloge i zadaci koje andragozi obavljaju u svom profesionalnom delovanju ispitivani su preko zasebnog instrumentarija. Na osnovu mišljenja i nalaza brojniha autora izdvojeno je i procenjivano 25 relativno nezavisnih profesionalnih uloga. Kanonička korelaciona analiza je ukazala na slaganje između profesionalno pripremljenih i profesionalno ne pripremljenih kadrova u pogledu animatorskih, motivišućih uloga: učesnika u procesu društvene transformacije, agenta socijalne promene, životnog savetnika, pokretača učenja. Nešto manje slaganje je identifikovano u pogledu nastavničko mentorskih uloga: instruktor mentor, kritički analitičar, ekspert i sl.

Bazična profesionalna priprema posmatrana je preko percepcije sopstvenih profesionalnih kompetencija, odnosa prema sopstvenom profesionalnom znanju i zadovoljstva uslova u kojima je ono sticano. Kada je u pitanju sticanje profesionalne kompetentnosti podaci pokazuju da profesionalno nepripremljeni andragoški kadrovi najviši rang dodeljuju neformalnom profesionalnom obrazovanju, dok andragozi najviše vrednuju profesionalno formalno obrazovanje. Analiza je takođe ukazala na značajan uticaj kontekstualnih faktora na sticanje profesionalne kompetentnosti. Neadekvatno profesionalno pripremljeni kadrovi do znanja dolaze kroz praktično obavljanje delatnosti i razmenu mišljenja sa kolegama i sebe doživljavaju kao samouke, dok andragozi u prvom redu ukazuju na vrednost samoobrazovanja u procesu sticanja praktičnog znanja. S tim u vezi su i podaci o potrebi kontinuiranog profesionalnog obrazovanja. Andragozi potrebu i neophodnost kontinuiranog profesionalnog obrazovanja vezuju za brze promene u okruženju, dok profesionalno nepripremljeni andragoški kadrovi osnovni razlog za kontinuirano obrazovanje vezuju za obavljanje konkretnog posla.

Sumirajući dobijene rezultate i sintetizujući zaključke Kristinka Ovesni ističe da proces profesionalizacije područja obrazovanja odraslih traje gotovo stotinu godina i da u tom procesu profesionalna priprema predstavlja ključni faktor. Shodno tome, profesionalno pripremljeni andragozi ispoljavaju sve ključne odlike razvijenih profesija i jesu profesija. Profesionalna znanja jesu stožer koji određuje početak, cilj i tok procesa profesionalizacije.

Studija Kristinke Ovesni, sagledana u celini, predstavlja vrednu teorijsko empirijsku raspravu o bazičnim problemima profesije i profesionalizacije u obrazovanju odraslih. Vrednost ove knjige je tim veća što ona predstavlja jednu od retkih studija kod nas o problemu profesije i profesionalizacije uopšte i prvu sveobuhvatno istraživanje problema profesije i profesionalizacije područja obrazovanja i učenja odraslih. Metodološka koherentnost i primena složenih matematičko-statističkih procedura obezbeđuju ovom delu status originalnog naučnog istraživanja. Izneti stavovi i teze su dobro teorijski elaborirani i argumentovano branjeni, pri čemu posebno imponuje sposobnost autora za analizu i interpretaciju rezultata, kao i dobro poznavanje referentnih istraživanja i literature. Tekst je dobro struktuiran i napisan jasnim stručnim jezikom.

Monografija *Profesija i profesionalizacija u obrazovanju odraslih* Kristinke Ovesni je značajan doprinos teorijskom utemeljenju andragogije i unapređenju postojeće prakse obrazovanja i učenja odraslih. Ona istovremeno predstavlja i dobru osnova za uvođenje studenata andragogije u teoriju i praksu obrazovanja i učenja odraslih i širenje andragoške kulture u među zaposlenim andragoškim kadrovima u Srbiji.

Miomir Despotović

Prikaz knjige:
EU priručnik
za politiku obrazovanja nastavnika
– Razvijanje koherentnih i sistemskih
programa uvođenja nastavnika u profesiju

Aprila 2010. godine Evropska komisija objavila je priručnik za politiku obrazovanja nastavnika – *Razvijanje koherentnih i sistemskih programa uvođenja nastavnika u profesiju.* Priručnik je rezultat saradnje grupe stručnjaka okupljenih oko ideje da se nastavnicima obezbedi bolja podrška u fazi pripravništva u sledećem sastavu: Marco Snoek (Univerzitet u Amsterdamu), Eve Eisenschmidt (Univezitet u Talinu), Bernadette Forsthuber (EAC Executive Agency, Eurydice), Paul Holdsworth, Evropska komisija, Athena Michaelidou (Kipraski centar za istraživajne i evaluaciju u obrazovanju), Jorunn Dahl Norgaard (Obrazovna unija, Norveška), Norbert Pachler (Institut za obrazovanje Univerziteta u Londonu).

Statistički podaci o godinama starosti nastavnika u zemljama EU obeshrabruju. Gotovo trećina nastavnika (oko dva miliona) ima preko 50 godina. Takođe, visok procenat nastavnika napušta profesiju i veliki broj njih odlazi u penziju čim stekne potrebne uslove. Postoji procena da efikasne mere podrške nastavnicima u inicijalnoj fazi razvijanja profesionalnog identiteta mogu da preduprede napuštanje profesije.

Priručnik *Razvijanje koherentnih i sistemskih programa uvođenja nastavnika u profesiju* je organizovan u osam celina. U uvodnom delu predstavljena je misija grupe eksperata – izrada praktičnog vodiča koji bi obezebedio veći stepen koherentnosti na nivou EU u oblikovanju programa uvođenja nastavnika u profesiju. Autori su pošli od koncepta profesionalnog razvoja nastavnika, u kome su jasno izdvojene tri faze: faza inicijalnog profesionalnog obrazovanja, u kojoj budući nastavnici stiču bazična znanja i kompetencije, faza pripravništva ili uvođejna u profesiju i faza kontinuiranog profesionalnog usavršavanja nastavnika, koji su uspešno prebrodili prve profesionalne izazove. Kvalitet rada nastavnika, uspešnost i zadovoljstvo profesijom velikim delom zavise od podrške koju nastavnici dobijaju u svakoj od navedenih faza. U poslednjoj deceniji u zemljama Evropske unije

akcenat je bio na programima profesionalnog usavršavanja nastavnika. Priručnik *Razvijanje koherentnih i sistemskih programa uvođenja nastavnika u profesiju* predstavlja jedan od prvih koraka ka oblikovanju jedinstvene politike obrazovanja u EU u fazi uvođejna nastavnika u profesiju.

U drugom delu *Priručnika* predstavljeno je aktuelno stanje u zemljama EU u oblasti pripravništva. Analize pokazuju da u većini evropskih zemalja ne postoje koherentne i sistematske mere podrške nastavnicima pripravnicima i da u zemljama u kojima su razvijeni neki elementi uvođenja nastavnika u profesiju oni nisu deo jedinstvenog sistema profesionalnog obrazovanja nastavnika. U dokumentu *Obrazovanje nastavnika u Evropi* (2008) koji su potpisali ministri obrazovanja zemalja EU naglašeno je da faza pripravništva, u trajanju od najmanje jedne godine, treba da postane pravo i obaveza svih nastavnika kojima je u ovoj fazi potrebna dodatna pomoć. Uvođenje nastavnika u prefesiju zahteva: podršku mentora i kolega, smanjen fond nastavnih časova (bez smanjivajna prihoda), dostupnost svih raspoloživih resursa, pohađanje obaveznih pripravničkih programa i mogućnost sistamatskog povezivanja teorije i prakse. Modaliteti programa uvođenja nastavinka u profesiju u zemljama EU se razlikuju: 1) u jednom broju zemalja ovim programima obuhvaćeni su nastavnici koji su već stekli potrebeno profesionalno obrazovanje i kvalifikacije (Slovenija, Norveška, Austrija), 2) u nekim zemljama programom uvođenja nastavnika u profesiju obuhvaćeni su tzv. kandidati za nastavnike, koji još nemaju licencu (Grčka, Španija, Italija, Kipar, Francuska, Lihtenštajn, Turska), 3) u trećoj grupi zemalja su one u kojima je pripravništvo zapravo deo inicijalnog profesionalnog obrazovanja nastavnika (Holandija). Trajanje programa uvođenja u profesiju kreće se od 10 meseci do dve godine. U nekim zemljama EU pripravništvo postoji samo za učitelje osnovnih škola, a u drugima se organizuje i za nastavnike srednjih škola. Ipak, najveći je broj onih zemalja u kojima ne postoje programi uvođenja nastavnika u profesiju.

U trećem delu *Priručnika*, pod naslovom „Ciljevi programa uvođenja nastavnika u profesiju (pripraništva)", razmatran je potencijal programa za pripravnike usmeren na podizanje nivoa kompetencija nastavnika, unapređenja kvaliteta nastave, podsticanje potencijalnih kandidata da izaberu nastavničku profesiju i povećanje efikasnosti inicijalnog obrazovanja nastavnika. Nastavnička profesija je jedna od onih u kojoj postoji specifičan jaz između inicijalnog obrazovanja i profesionalnog praktičnog rada. Reč je o profesiji za koju je karakteristično da početnici odmah preuzimaju punu odgovornost za svoj rad. Mnogi nastavnici početnici doživljavaju pravi šok kada se suoče sa odeljenjem – u izolaciji, bez podrške iskusnijih kolega, prva iskustva opisuju kao dramatična. Posledica je porast broja onih koji napuštaju profesiju u prvim godinama rada (u nekim zemljama EU broj nastavnika koji napušta profesiju kreće se i do 10%).

Programi uvođenja nastavnika u profesiju imaju za cilj da pruže podršku nastavnicima početnicima u ključnoj fazi – fazi u kojoj se razvijaju u iskusne praktičare i da im pomognu da se prilagode realnim uslovima škole i nastave. Ova podrška može biti formalna – u Škotskoj prva godina nastavnog rada, tzv. probni period, predstavlja uslov za dobijanje licence, i neformalna – kada programi uvođenja u profesiju nisu obavezni. I u formalnim i u neformalnim programima podrška uključuje profesionalnu, socijalnu i ličnu dimenziju. Profesionalna dimenzija se odnosi na jačanje ključnih nastavničkih kompetencija, socijalna na ohrabrivanje nastavnika da prihvate norme, stavove, organizacionu strukturu škole u kojoj rade i postanu deo šire profesionalne zajednice nastavnika. Lična dimenzija odnosi se na razvoj profesionalnog identiteta – uključuje razvijanje ličnog vaspitnog koncepta, stavova i vrednosti.

Prva radna iskustva imaju ključnu ulogu u profesionalnom razvoju nastavnika. Tri dimenzije – profesionalna, socijalna i lična, predstavljaju bazične elemente programa pripravništva. Dalja operacionalizacija ovih elemenata daje sledeću šemu:

1) Ciljevi
- *Lična dimenzija*: razvoj profesionalnog identiteta, jačanje kompetencija, jačanje samopouzdanja, redukcija stresa i anksioznosti, motivisanje;
- *Socijlana dimenzija*: socijalizacija u školu i profesiju, saradnja, kooperativno učenje, uključivanje u školsku kulturu;
- *Profesionalna dimenzija*: dalji razvoj profesionalnih kompetencija, povezivanje inicijalnog profesionalnog obrazovanja i pripravništva, razvoj profesionalizma, smanjivanje mogućnosti da se odustane.

2) Zahtevi
- *Lična dimenzija*: sigurna, neosuđujuća sredina, smanjen fond nastavnih časova, saradnja, zajednički rad sa kolegama;
- *Socijlana dimenzija*: timski rad, grupni rad na projektima, zajednički rad sa kolegama;
- *Profesionalna dimenzija*: razmena iskustva sa nastavnicima, dalja obuka i kursevi, konsultacije.

3) Releventni modeli podrške
- *Lična dimenzija*: mentor, kolege, samorefleksija;
- *Socijalna dimenzija*: mentor, kolege;
- *Profesionalna dimenzija*: mentor, kolege, stručnjaci, samorefleksija.

U četvrtom delu *Priručnika* ponuđene su četiri uporišne tačke programa uvođenja nastavnika u profesiju: mentorski sistem, stručna podrška, saradnja sa kolegama i samorefleksija.

- *Mentorski sistem* se zasniva na podršci koju iskusniji kolega pruža pripravniku. Cilj mentora jeste da podstakne učenje profesije – poučavanjem, vođenjem, diskusijom, savetovanjem...

- *Stručna podrška* je usmerena na pružanje profesionalne podrške pripravnicima – fokus stručne podrške je na stvaranju prilika da pripravnik sarađuje sa stručnjacima izvan škole (putem učešća na seminarima i kursevima) i na obezbeđivanju veće dostupnosti stručne literture, priručnika i drugih materijala.

- *Saradnja sa kolegama* ima važnu ulogu u kreiranju sigurne i podržavajuće sredine za profesionalni razvoj. Razmena iskustava sa drugim pripravnicima i sa iskusnim kolegama osnažuje u procesu rešavanja inicijalnih profesionalnih dilema i pitanja.

- *Samorefleksija* – programi uvođenja u profesiju treba da su struktuirani na takav način da ostavljaju dovoljno vremena nastavniku početniku da reflektuje o svom iskustvu, stavovima, zapažanjima. Samorefleksija uključuje snimanje nastavnog časa, izradu portfolija, posmatranje nastavnih časova od strane kolega i dr.

Za uspešnu realizaciju programa uvođenja nastavnika u profesiju postoje izvesni preduslovi i ovo je tema petog dela *Priručnika.* Reč je o finansijskoj podršci, o potrebi da se jasno definišu uloge i odgovornosti, da se obezbedi saradnja svih zaintersovanih, da se razvija kultura učenja i da postoji efikasno upravljanje:

- Finansijska podrška programima uvođenja u profesiju odnosi se na potrebu da se smanji opterećenje pripravnika u smislu smanjivanja fonda nastavnih časova koje drže, pri čemu plate pripravnika ne treba smanjivati, a sa druge strane, potrebno je da se obezbedi finansijski stimulans za menotore.

- Potrebno je da se preciziraju uloge i odgovornosti pripravnika, mentora, školske uprave, profesionalnih udruženja i prosvetnih vlasti na svim nivoima. U nekim zemljama škole imaju visok nivo autonomije u regrutovanju nastavnog kadra i tada je naglašena uloga školske uprave. Druge zemlje imaju jedinstven sistem uvođenja u profesiju, kojim se rukovodi na nacionalnom nivou kada je važno da se obezbedi kontrola realizacije pograma za pripravnike.

- Saradnja svih institucija i pojedinaca koji su neposredno ili posredno odgovorni za profesionalno obrazovajne i razvoj nastavnika, institucija inicijalnog profesionalnog obrazovanja nastavnika, škola i mentora.
- Kultura učenja – pripravnicima je potrebna podrška u ovladavanju profesijom. Podrška u učenju ogleda se u obezbeđivanju potrebnog vremena i mogućnosti za saradnju pripravnika i mentora, kao i omogućavanju pripravniku da se uključi u programe i kurseve izvan škole…
- Efikasno upravljanje pripravništvom moguće je samo ukoliko se obezbede kompetentni mentori. Zato je neophodno da se razvije sistem selekcije, obuke, praćenja i evaluacije rada mentora.

U šestom delu *Priručnika* predstavljeni su različiti modeli programa uvođenja nastavnika u profesiju. Reč je o šest nacionalnih programa koji se primenjuju na Kipru, u Estoniji, Irskoj, Holandiji, Norveškoj i Škotskoj. Analiza modela obuhvata sledeće elemente: opis modela, ciljevi programa, sistem podrške pripravnicima, odnos pripravništva i unapređivanja kvaliteta rada škola, osiguravanje kvaliteta i finansiranje.

U sedmom delu *Priručnika* ukazuje se na pitanja o kojima treba voditi računa u procesu kreiranja programa uvođenja nastavnika u profesiju. Reč je o sledećim pitanjima: šta je cilj sistema uvođenja nastavnika u profesiju, da li model "pokriva" sve dimenzije pripravništva – profesionalnu, socijalnu i ličnu, da li su sve zainteresovane i odgovorne institucije i pojedinci uključeni u kreiranje modela, da li su uloge i odgovornosti jasno defenisani, da li su svi učesnici dobili potrebnu pripremu da bi uspešno ostvarili svoje obaveze, na koji način je pripravništvo integrisano u sistem profesionalnog obrazovanja nastavnika, da li su obezbeđena potrebna finansijska sredstva, na koji način se vrši praćenje primene modela.

Priručnik je zaokružen sumarnim pregledom ključnih nalaza istraživanja u polju pripravništva. Razvijanje koherentnog sistema uvođenja nastavnika u profesiju započelo je u nekoliko poslednjih godina i tek od nedavno je postalo interesantno kao istraživačka tema. Malobrojna istraživanja u ovom polju usmerena su na evaluaciju efekata programa i na analizu lokalnih, regionalnih i nacionalnih specifičnosti. Prikaz priručnika *Razvijanje koherentnih i sistemskih programa uvođenja nastavnika u profesije* završićemo analitičkim pregledom ciljeva programa uvođenja nastavnika u profesiju koji su dali Ešbi i saradnici (Ashby et. al 2008): obezbediti lagani prelazak iz faze inicijalnog profesionalnog obrazovanja u fazu iskusnog profesionalnog delovanja, unaprediti profesionalne komeptencije, povećati broj onih koji ostaju u profesiji nakon prve godine, promovisatie lične i profesionalne dobrobiti nastavnika početnika, podržavati kolegijalnost i timski rad nastavnika i socijalizaciju u profesiju.

<div align="right">Katarina Popović</div>

European Association for Education of Adults: EAEA Newsletter[1]

EAEA Newsletter, June 2010
PROPOSALS FOR A MID TERM STRATEGY

The Board of the EAEA has prepared a strategic paper to present to the next General Assembly of the EAEA, which will take place in Armenia in June 2010. The paper includes proposals for general objectives and specific aims for the work of the organisation for the next four years. Members of the Board participated in a SWOT analysis considering the organisational strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats at a time of economic and structural change in Europe and beyond.

We have located our central belief that adult education and learning can make an important contribution to empowering people during periods of change at the heart of the strategy, and then considered what the objectives and aims of the EAEA should be. We have also taken on board the final recommendations of CONFINTEA V1, the proposals from the European Caucus that met at the Civil Society Meeting in Belem, and considered the EU context, where policy, budget and programme changes are being prepared for the next period.

The strategic objectives proposed include:
- a legislative and financial framework for better access to adult education for all.
- better governance for adult education, to include civil society.
- effective advocacy by the EAEA at a European level.
- building a strong and active EAEA membership.

The specific aims identify the areas of work, policies, research, projects, communications, audiences, partnerships and themes where we propose to take

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[1] Uz dozvolu Evropske asocijacije za obrazovanje odraslih – EAEA, časopis donosi izbor tekstova iz „EAEA Newsletter".

action. Now we want to consult with the members and ask for their views on the proposed strategic framework, its aims and objectives. Please let us know your views and ideas either at the GA or by post and email. The draft mid term strategy paper can be obtained by sending an e-mail to gina.ebner@eaea.org. All EAEA members have also recieved the strategy paper via email.

EAEA Newsletter, June 2010
MEMBER OF THE EUROPEAN COMMISSION,
ANDROULLA VASSILIOU, EDUCATION, CULTURE,
MULTILINGUALISM AND YOUTH

For the term 2010-2014 the Commissioner charged with Education, Culture, Multilingualism and Youth will be Androulla Vassiliou, from Cyprus, who has always been deeply engaged in cultural issues both at a national and a transnational level.

The main commitment of the Commissioner is to contribute to the development of strategies in order to achieve the ambitious goals established by the "EU2020 strategy". The strategic priorities of the new Commissioner concern the enhancement of education and training, learning mobility, opportunities for young people, cultural expression and creativity.

The Commissioner will focus on four main issues: education, culture, multilingualism and sport. As far as education is concerned the purpose of Ms Vassiliou concentrates on increasing European competitiveness, which involves a necessary commitment on teacher training, assumed as the principal instrument of education. Other priorities regard the reduction of school leaving and the improvement of policies on employability, learning mobility, language learning, innovation and research, via the renforcement of already existing European porgrammes, like for instance the Lifelong Learning Programme (LLP).

A particular relevance is also given to the cultural commitment, which will be strenghtened thanks to diverse actions directly addressed to the increase of member States involvement on creativity, innovation and cultural expression.

Multilingualism and sport also play relevant roles for the new Commissioner, who supports the promotion of foreign language learning, the protection and support for the languages of minorities, and the implementation of sport activities.

On February 15 2010 the Commissioner gave a speech on education and training priorities, according to the 2020 strategy. She affirmed the importance of knowledge as an active instrument to build a prosperous world and to fight the

economic crisis for the creation of a sustainable social market economy. Education, creativity, research and innovation provides a definite and necessary contribution in this. The strategy is based on the principle of combining excellence and equity: the necessity to deepen the economic knowledge of European society is combined with the opportunity to increase lifelong learning and transnational mobility of youngsters and adults, of students and teachers.

During the Informal Ministerial Meeting on Culture of the last 31 March 2010, the Commissioner Vassiliou focused on many important themes involving the cultural and educational opportunities existing within the European Union and the necessity of their exploitation.

Through this speech, made just before the publication of the "Green Paper on unlocking the potential of cultural and creative industries", she wanted to highlight the importance of the European cultural potential, in particular the role played by cultural industries and the necessity to improve their access to funding. Furthermore, she showed the need for a more active cooperation and awareness of European regions and cities in the promotion of cultural activities, via the promotion of the territorial dimension.

EAEA Newsletter, June 2010
2010: THE EUROPEAN YEAR FOR COMBATING POVERTY AND SOCIAL EXCLUSION

As many of you are already no doubt aware, the European Union has joined forces with its member states plus Norway and Iceland this year to make 2010 the European Year For Combating Poverty and Social Exclusion, which was officially launched in a major conference in Madrid on January the 21st 2010. It's a frightening thought that almost 85 million Europeans are currently living at risk of poverty, and facing insecurities such as lack of food, fuel or housing which many of us take for granted. Although the topic was chosen for attention long before the financial insecurities of recent times, the increasing financial pressures which are affecting the global markets only highlight how topical and important this issue is for many in Europe today.

Challenging stereotypes

With this is mind it is with anticipation that we look towards the events and outcomes of the year as it unfolds, which aims to increase awareness of these issues and renew the political commitments of the EU and its member states

to continue to combat poverty and social exclusion. However, as the European Commission points out on the 2010 European Year official site, this isn't only about financial poverty in its simplest form, as they say: "This Year also aims to challenge stereotypes and collective perceptions of poverty. By harnessing the EU's principles of solidarity and partnership, 2010 represents a clarion call to tackle the causes of poverty head-on in a bid to ensure everyone can play a full and active role in society"

This year, therefore, is also about highlighting the fact that poverty is multifaceted and almost every one of us may be at risk of poverty or social exclusion at some point in our lives. Social exclusion is here seen as the other side of the poverty coin, once you are not participating fully in active society (by being unemployed or homeless for instance) then it is much more difficult to get back on track financially and the cycle tends to repeat itself. One of the main outcomes emerging from this year will therefore be a framework, developed by the EU, to give member states the opportunity to develop their own strategies and identify their own priorities for stopping this cycle before it takes hold. This will work hand in hand with a common set of indicators which member states are already using to better understand what it means to be poor in today's society and give a more unified idea of how to work in the future.

Ambassadors

As usual for European Years, there have also been appointed ambassadors in each participating country who will be working to raise the profile of the year and to encourage others to join in and focus their events on this important European issue. These ambassadors also lend a more personal and human face to the directives which inevitably back such a political subject, as ambassador in the Czech Republic Milena Cerná points out, "After long time we have a chance to say that people experiencing poverty and social exclusion have right to say what they feel, what they are missing and what can help them ... and especially we have a chance to listen to them thanks to the European Year 2010".

Although less than half way through the year, there are already many events which are now listening to an often diverse range of people who are finding themselves subject to poverty or exclusion for one reason or another. This is no more evident than with the Roma people, and highlighting their continuing social difficulties throughout Europe has become one of the key thematic priorities for the 2010 European Year for Combating Poverty and Social Exclusion.

The Roma people

With a population of between 10 and 12 million people currently spread throughout Europe, the Roma represent one of Europe's largest ethnic communities. However, reports from recent years suggest that the Roma people are still facing deeply entrenched social exclusion and discrimination, and are often at a high risk of poverty, poor health and high levels of unemployment. An inaugural Roma summit in 2008 already began the process of trying to find a framework to improve the situation for the Roma community, and began a platform for Roma inclusion. This platform is manifesting in a number of ways, including "explicit but not exclusive targeting" which aims to improve the environment for all who have to cope with such conditions, without singling the Roma out as a distinct group (and thus again increasing the social division).

The Roma story is one heard by many different communities and individuals in Europe currently, and highlights this 'cycle of deprivation', where social exclusion leads to poverty, which in turn increases the social exclusion. However, there are many other events and groups which are actively participating in the 2010 Year which demonstrate the diversity of problems faced by people today.

INCLUSage

One of which is INCLUSage, a project designed to boost social inclusion of elderly people in seven EU countries; Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Poland, Finland, Germany, Italy and the Slovak Republic. These countries are all now collecting information about the situation facing many of their elderly citizens, who often feel that they are no longer able to participate in local policy or decision making and therefore can become more isolated from their own communities. The expected outcome will be to establish a permanent consultation process on these issues with policy-makers at all levels, as well as a methodology, led by the Polish team, to help older people develop bodies in order to regain their voice in social policy.

A flow of seminars

Participants across Europe are also holding seminars and conferences throughout the year to discuss and highlight issues surrounding poverty. Brussels (Belgium) will host 'Mental Health Europe Conference "Challenging Poverty – Creating Hope. Breaking the Cycle of Poverty and Mental Health' in October where experts will present and exchange their experiences and good practices of how to overcome the vicious cycle of poverty and mental health. In Newcastle (England)

in September the main focus will be the issue of child poverty, with 'EUROCI-TIES European Year 2010'. Here the themes of the contribution of cities; the roles of local partners and the role of national and international leadership legislation will take centre stage in this two day conference which will bring together a variety of stakeholders, academics, practitioners and experts. One conference which has already successfully taken place was entitled 'Tackling poverty and Social Exclusion in Europe through Education for Democratic Citizenship and Human Rights Education in Adult Learning', and held in Glasgow (Scotland) in March. Organised by DARE (Democracy and Human Rights Education in Adult Learning) and BEMIS (Black and Ethnic Minorities Infrastructure in Scotland), this conference provided a forum for more than 170 stakeholders in field of Human Rights Education and Education for Democratic Citizenship, including practitioners in formal and non-formal education, NGO activists, educational experts, political scientists and policy makers.

The connection between education and poverty

The idea which underpinned the conference was summed up by David Martin, MEP (Committees: International Trade, Human Rights) in his opening speech when he said: "I am convinced that there is an absolute connection between lack of education, democracy and human rights and an increase in poverty and social exclusion…if you increase education, democratic participation and respect for human rights, you will decrease poverty".

The outcome was a document of policy recommendations on tackling poverty and social exclusion, which as now published through the European Wergeland Centre. Aside from large conferences there has also been direct action and raising awareness this year on a more practical level. The Delegation of the European Commission in Eritrea has been active in highlighting the exclusion and high risk of poverty of women in its nation, through carrying out a symbolic action with the National Union of Eritrean Women (NUEW) under the title: "Operation – Donkey". The aim of the initiative was to empower poor women in rural areas and improve their living standards by providing donkeys to fetch water and engage in income generating activities. Although seen in different degrees in different countries, the fact remains that women are usually at greater risk of poverty and social exclusion in all categories, be it the elderly, disabled people, immigrants or other at risk groups. This statistic adds an extra level of significance to the activities in Eritrea, as it can serve as a reminder that this is a wide concern, whether in a large scale or in small ways, and an underlying part of the problem of poverty today.

For the 2010 Year, we can all now look forward to an action packed programme of debates, seminars, workshops and conferences, and then equally look forward to the concrete outcomes which will help to shape the way we tackle poverty in years to come.

Poverty and social inclusion, as we have already seen, come in a number of guises, which the 2010 Year is aiming to highlight. However, above all else perhaps what the 2010 Year can best achieve is that we can remember the people behind the politics, and begin (as Milena Cerná has already pointed out) to listen as well talk.

EAEA Newsletter, June 2010
2010: EAEA AND THE COALITION TO END POVERTY

Among a host of members from across Europe, the EAEA is part of the European Year NGO Coalition, which is being coordinated by the EAPN (European Anti Poverty Network) itself a network of anti-poverty NGOs and grassroots groups mainly active of poverty and social exclusion. This coalition of varied and diverse European NGO networks has come together for 2010 to ensure an active participation of social NGOs in the year and to advocate for a strong political legacy.

The possibility of change

The Coalition fundamentally works from the belief that 2010 – as the European Year for Combating Poverty and Social Exclusion – represents a real opportunity to make policy changes that will have a lasting impact on fighting inequalities and create a Europe free of poverty in the long term. However to do this we collectively have realised that there needs to be a call for a wide mobilisation at local, national, and European level and so the members of the NGO coalition are calling for a series of actions. Firstly, a public debate on the causes of poverty and social exclusion. Secondly, an enhanced dialogue with people in poverty and anti-poverty NGOs. Thirdly, a strong political legacy from 2010; and lastly funding to match the EU Commitments to fight poverty and social exclusion. These actions aim to make this year the the beginning of a real change beginning with increasing awareness and starting a dialogue with those on the ground, but also making tangible changes. To this end there are a number of tangible actions which the Coalition are calling for, including a new overarching social and sustainable EU strategy, based on fundamental rights, which puts people and the planet first and

makes progress on eradicating poverty and inequality a pre-requisite in the devel-
opment of all EU policies.

Aside from this the Coalition proposes an EU poverty programme: a new
programme which could build on the social inclusion section of the existing EU
programme (PROGRESS) and provide additional support for activities within
Member States. This programme would then enable national level stakeholders to
engage with the EU strategies and to support exchange of knowledge and learn-
ing through national and local level 'demonstration projects' in the fight against
poverty and social exclusion. Although only a small selection of the full proposals,
full details of which can be found at the Coalition's website, these actions dem-
onstrate the real ways that policy and practices could be changed to ensure the
legacy of the intentions of 2010.

The role of education

The question of adult education and the role it can play in combating poverty in
this way comes through with the Coalition's belief that poverty is not just about
money. Poverty here is not simply the lack of financial resources and income,
whether through employment or social benefits, but also encompasses the no-
tion of vulnerability, precariousness, lack of opportunities, injustice and denial of
rights. These rights include access to health, housing, employment, services and
infrastructure, as well as access to information, culture and political participation.
Education plays a key role in the provision of these rights, as provision of educa-
tion or skills can be a powerful way to allow someone to get themselves out of a
downward spiral which so often ends in social exclusion and poverty. The mem-
bers of the coalition all work from the belief that part of the necessary response
to the crisis of poverty in Europe is the renewal of a common vision for the type
of society we want to create; and to do that we must also be thinking about how
this society can be created.

No national issue

Looked at from this perspective, it is clear that poverty cannot be seen as purely a
national issue, as the 2010 EY is already proving. However, the European dimen-
sion of the fight against poverty and social exclusion also cannot be dissociated
from global challenges linked to demographic change, migration, climate change,
and decent work. The structural causes generating poverty are inevitably linked,
and increased solidarity between the different struggles to end poverty across the
globe is therefore needed.

Information on Adult Education in Europe: InfoLetter[1]

Michael Voss, InfoLetter, No 2, 2010
CELEBRATE THE ACHIEVEMENTS AND PROMOTE THE BENEFITS

„*To promote the importance and role of learning and education in all stages of life and for all the roles that one takes." This is the mission statement of Lifelong Learning Week in Slovenia. But it might as well have originated from all other such promotional weeks taking place in a number of European countries.*

In the United Kingdom it is called Adult Learners Week (ALW). In Norway the title is Learning Days. AONTAS in Ireland are organizing Adult Learners Festival, and the Russians call it Move. Independent of name they all aim to promote adult education and lifelong learning.

The Irish organizers have detailed their aims into five points:
- Celebrate the achievements of learners and adult learning organizations
- Promote the benefits and value of adult learning
- Raise the benefits and value of the adult education sector
- Encourage collaboration at local level
- Keep adult education on the political agenda

International Week

Some of these ALW's have taken place for almost 20 years. In 1997 they got a global boost when the Fifth International Conference on Adult Education (CONFINTEA V) decided to promote the development of a United Nations

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[1] Information on Adult Education in Europe – InfoLetter je elektronski informativni servis esvropske mreže "European InfoNet in Adult Education" koja je nastala u okviru Grundvig Programa za doživotno obrazovanje Evropske Komisije. InfoLetter izlazi dva puta mesečno i pruža informacije o obrazovanju odraslih u zemljama Evropske Unije.

Adult Learners' Week. The international week was launched in September 2000 trying to bridge the learning festivals already taking placeand deepen the cross-national exchange and cooperation.

A handbook was produced and a website under the auspices of UNESCO was established. In that way the international week also helped spread the idea to other countries both in Europe and globally. Celebrate the achievements and promote the benefits. After some years, experience showed that the national associations and institutions preferred to organize the promotional weeks at a time of year that suited their national calendar instead of the same week all over the world.

Generally many national organizers have been inspired by other countries. At a seminar in Estonia, November 2009, Nina Litvinova, national coordinator of the Russian ALW, told that they got the idea in 1992 from the UK. They have organized the week in collaboration with colleagues in Ukraine, Kazakhstan and China, and experts from a number of European countries have assisted them.

The status today is that ALW's are taken place in at least 12 European countries primarily in Northern, Eastern and Central Europe. A festival took place in Spain a couple of years ago but apart from that the idea seems not to have caught on in Southern Europe.

From street festivals to prison programs

A huge variety of activities takes place in each country. Usually a national association is coordinating the initiatives of local schools and associations. One example is Hungary. In this country some of the activities are:

- A grand opening ceremony
- Street festivals
- Folk art events
- Activities for elderly people
- Prison programs
- Museum education for adults
- Pop-science in libraries

The dry numbers of 2008 were: 158 towns and villages; 370 activities, 50.000 participants, 266.000 € spent on activities.

Michael Sommer, InfoLetter, No 2, 2010
„YOUTH ON THE MOVE": WHAT WILL HAPPEN TO ADULT EDUCATION?

"Youth on the Move" is the name of the new flagship initiative, which was officially presented by EU President Barroso on 3rd March. What might sound lively conceals some controversy, because this is how the new comprehensive initiative should sound, which previously promoted educational work in Europe. The Lifelong-Learning programme, including Grundtvig, will not disappear, said Dennis Abbott, Spokesperson for the Directorate-General for Education, Culture, Multilingualism and Youth of the EU Commission.

"Youth on the Move" is part of the "Europe 2020" strategy presented by Barroso on 3rd March, which aims to supersede the former Lisbon Strategy. Seven "guide initiatives" are envisaged in this, one of them being "Youth on the Move – promoting the quality and attractiveness of the European higher education institutions through supporting the mobility of students and young skilled personnel".

The objective of the initiative is concrete and aims "to enhance the performance and international attractiveness of Europe's higher education institutions and raise the overall quality of all levels of education and training in the EU, combining both excellence and equity, by promoting student mobility and trainees' mobility, and improve the employment situation of young people". Thus, there should be an expansion and linking of mobility programmes such as Erasmus, Tempus or Marie Curie, an extension of the previous modernisation programme of the higher education institutions, the promotion of the recognition of non-formal and informal learning, as well as the introduction of a programme, which aims to provide young unemployed persons with better employment opportunities through work experience abroad (e.g. traineeships).

Already with the programme title, the references to adult education are no longer recognisable, and also with the proposals for implementation, this sector, just like the concept "Lifelong Learning", cannot be found. Does this mean the impending end of the European promotion of adult education?

Umbrella strategy

"We do not want to kill any of the existing initiatives," reassures Dennis Abbott, Spokesperson for the Directorate-General for Education, Culture, Multilingualism and Youth of the EU Commission. In addition, the very successful Lifelong Learning Programme, including Grundtvig, should not to be replaced by "Youth

on the Move". The new concept is to be understood as much more than an umbrella strategy, which is said to take on even more additional measures. The Directorate-General has announced an accompanying concrete draft for June.

For Doris Pack, Chairwoman of the Committee on Culture and Education in the European Parliament, the European promotion of adult education must not only remain in its previous form, but also be financially and substantially better equipped. She stipulated this at the end of January at an EU conference on the Grundtvig programme.

The umbrella organisation of European adult education, EAEA, also views "Youth on the Move" with some scepticism and, at the same time, stresses the significance of the existing programmes. "The action plan for lifelong learning and the Grundtvig programme have shown that the EU attaches importance to adult education. Both initiatives had a positive influence on the policies and strategies of many member states," said EAEA President Sue Waddington. "The EAEA will urge the European Parliament and the Commission to carry this programme through to the next decade."

Michael Sommer, InfoLetter, No 2, 2010
PIAAC: AN INTERNATIONAL COMPARISON OF COMPETENCIES

The aim of the PIAAC, a global study by the OECD, is to assess the level of competencies in various countries and determine people's level of education. The test phase has just begun for the questionnaire, which is similar in design to the well-known PISA study for schoolchildren. The first results are to be available in 2013, providing important data for adult education.

Since its launch in 2008, 27 countries altogether worldwide (a large number of European countries and others including Russia, Chile, Canada, the USA and Japan) have put together teams of researchers to tackle this task. The abbreviation PIAAC stands for "Programme for the International Assessment of Adult Competencies". The OECD (Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development) created the study with the following aims:

- To give policy-makers in each participating country a profile of their country's adult population in terms of their knowledge, abilities and competencies.
- To assess how these competencies relate to the different results, as well as to the social and economic situation.

- To gauge how successful systems of education and training are in achieving these results.

According to the project leader of the German study, Dr Beatrice Rammstedt of GESIS (Leibniz Institute for the Social Sciences), the main difficulty is to gain comparable data in the face of major cultural differences. For this reason, instead of a single questionnaire being used for all countries, each country is developing its own questions based on jointly developed foundations. A manual of about 300 pages has also been developed, setting out how the survey is to be carried out, right down to details such as what computer should be used.

Konferencije i publikacije

Odabrane andragoške konferencije u 2010. godini

1. 11th International Conference on Human Resource Development Research and Practice across Europe, University of Pécs, Faculty of Adult Education and HRD Pécs, June 2–4, 2010.
2. 7th International Conference on Workplace Bullying and Harassment, 2 - 4 June 2010, Cardiff, United Kingdom.
3. Benchmarking in European Higher Education, 11 June 2010, Brussels, Belgium.
4. EDULEARN10 International Conference on Education and New Learning Technologies, 5 to 7 July 2010, Barcelona, Spain.
5. 2nd Paris International Conference on Education, Economy and Society, 21 - 24 July 2010, Paris, France.
6. 35th Annual Conference: Responsibility, challenge and support in teachers life-long development, Association for Teacher Education in Europe (ATEE) August 26 - August 30, 2010, Budapest, Hungary.
7. 6th European Research Conference: Adult Learning in Europe - understanding diverse meanings and contexts, European Society for Research on the Education of Adults (ESREA) and Linköping University, 23-26 September 2010, Linköping, Sweden
8. Demographic Change and the Education of Older Adults, First Conference of the ESREA Network on Education and Learning of Older Adults (ELOA), 7th-9th October 2010, Munich, Germany
9. Learning by Developing - New Ways to Learn Conference on Future Expertise, 12-14 October 2010, Helsinki, Finland.
10. 59th International Conference: Leading and Learning: Meeting Today's Challenges, American Association for Adult and Continuing Education (AAACE), Clearwater Beach, FL. October 24-29, 2010.

Pregled andragoških časopisa

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Ispravke / Corrigenda

U broju 1 za 2010. godinu u članku Svetlane Čizmić i Milice Vukelić „Maltretiranje na radnom mestu – pogled na novu perspektivu" izostavljena je fusnota na strani 61:

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