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ANDRAGOGY VERSUS PEDAGOGY OR FROM PEDAGOGY TO ANDRAGOGY: A RE-ASSESSMENT OF KNOWLES'S DILEMMA WITH THE DEVELOPMENT OF LEARNING THEORY

Knowles' formulation of andragogy raised a number of debates – perhaps the most significant was the question of whether children and adults learn differently. This paper argues that it is not a matter of age that affects learning, but a matter of previous experience. Having a novel experience usually means that we are more aware of the sense experience and it is from this that we learn. Once we have given meaning to the sense experience, our learning tends to begin in the cognitive domain. This approach to learning theory offers a solution to the dilemma that Knowles' formulation posed and which he never resolved in a satisfactory manner.

In 1970 Malcolm Knowles wrote *The Modern Practice of Adult Education* and he subtitled it *andragogy versus pedagogy* but as a result of the discussion that followed he changed the sub-title in the second edition of the book in 1980 to *from pedagogy to andragogy*: the question is which of these was right, if either. The argument of this paper is that as we have learned more about human learning there is a sense in which neither was really right and that it would have been more sophisticated to have used the more simple sub-title *andragogy and pedagogy*. While this paper might be reviving an old debate, it is not the history of the debate that really interests us here but the advances in learning theory that have occurred during the past quarter of a century and the new light they throw on an old debate. In order to do this, we will briefly review that debate and then show how we think that it can be finally resolved.

Part 1. The Debate after the 1970 Edition

As early as 1972 Houle (1972, pp.221-223) gently disagreed with Knowles' claim in the original sub-title by suggesting that education is a single process, but the debate really did not take off until later in the decade. McKenzie (1977) sought to provide Knowles' rather pragmatic formulation with a sounder philosophical base by arguing that children and adults are existentially different. Elias (1979) disagreed and responded to this by claiming that this is not necessarily significant since men and women are existentially different but no one has yet suggested that men and women should be taught differently, to which McKenzie (1979) replied that while they might be existentially different their readiness to learn was not related to their gender. At the same time Knudson (1979) suggested that humanagogy would be a better term because it merely suggested that we are teaching human beings whatever their age or gender and while this idea did not really receive much attention it was perhaps much more valid. But by 1980 Knowles re-entered the debate with his revised edition of the original book - with a new sub-title *from pedagogy to andragogy*.

While this really killed off the debate about the difference between andragogy and pedagogy, two other issues became important: firstly, many writers claimed that Knowles had not really understood that nature of andragogy itself (Hartree, 1984, Tennant, 1986, *inter alia*) and others pointed out that Knowles has not understood how the term was used in Yugoslavia and this latter claim was essentially correct; secondly, andragogy became used much more to signify an adult teaching technique and there is a sense in which this was true to Knowles' own thinking – but as a teaching technique it was nothing new since many adult educators had always accepted that learner-centred education was the nature of adult education. But Knowles' ideas about andragogy became very widely accepted since this was a time of rapid growth in the education of adults and the term became a symbol for this expanding phenomenon which differentiated it from traditional education.

One of the most significant things about the debate in the 1970s was the emphasis on existentialism: some that is again coming to the fore and perhaps a clue to Knowles' dilemma lies in this fact. For Knowles (1980,p.43) andragogy was 'the art and science of helping adults learn': for him, it was a teaching technique rather than a theory of learning based upon adult characteristics which he called assumptions. But it was a teaching technique that he related to the learners and their characteristics, pointing to one of the major developments

in education at the end of the twentieth century – the emphasis on learning itself. While Knowles was unsure about the characteristics of the learners that he described – four were described in his initial writings but he later extended this to six (Knowles, 1989), but it matters not how many he identified, the fact is that he did not concentrate on the way his learners learned and so he never managed to solve his dilemma.

Part 2. Developments in the Theory of Learning

In many ways Knowles' own theory of learning was not well developed and yet his work contributed greatly to the development of learning theory. Amongst Knowles' characteristics was the experience which adults accumulate over their life time and which they can use in their future learning and about which adult teachers had to be aware in their teaching of adults. At the time when he wrote two major approaches to learning were prevalent – behaviourism and cognitive development: both are very weak theories since behaviourism can be characterised as the 'mindless body' while cognitivism can be seen as 'the bodiless mind': neither were combined in these two approaches. But the emphasis on the learners' experience was coming to the fore – the work of Dewey and Lewin were again being recognized and in the 1970s Kolb and Fry (1975) published an experiential learning cycle, which was to become popularised by Kolb's (1984) book. Learning from experience became quite central to the development of learning theory and, indeed, it also fitted very nicely into Knowles' work, so that we venture to suggest that without it, Kolb's work would not have become so popular. Kolb focused on the learner's experience and then on reflection on that experience which was also in line with Knowles' own work. Kolb, however, then claimed – wrongly we think – that reflection led to generalisation and abstraction and from there to experimentation. This cycle has become as symbolic of experiential learning as Knowles' concept of andragogy became of adult education, although both were constructed without sound empirical research.

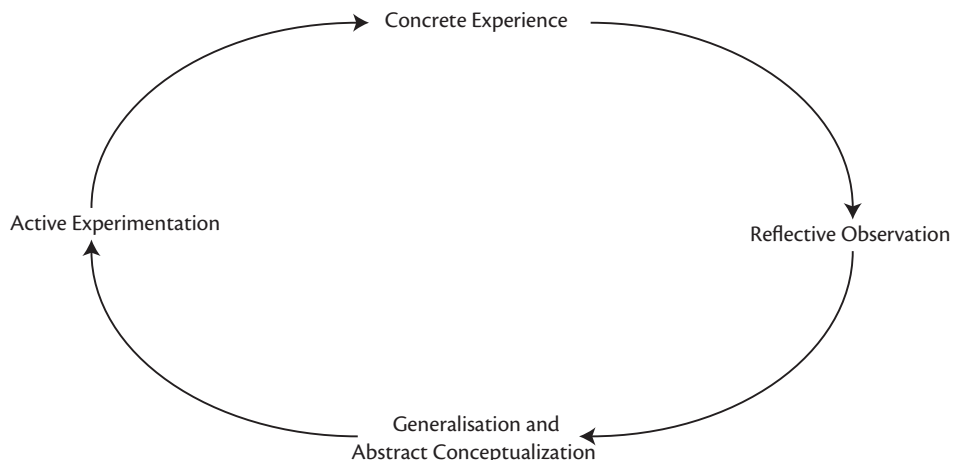


Figure 1. Kolb's Learning Cycle

Indeed, when Jarvis (1987) developed his learning model in 1987 – which was a development on Kolb – he found very few of the people whom he researched actually generalised from a single learning experience. However, he did claim that his research probably covered children's learning as well as adult learning although he had not included any children in his sample. In this sense, he was reflecting the 1970s debate about andragogy and to a very great extent agreeing with the sentiments expressed by Houle (1972). Over the years that followed that research, has continued in human learning and Mezirow (1991; and associates, 2000) has also built of this with his theory of transformative learning. While Mezirow has pointed a way forward, he has not answered the question posed by Knowles. Perhaps one of the clues to understanding the original problem actually lies in the ideas of existentialism that McKenzie and Elias pointed towards in that original debate but they looked at age and gender rather than the whole person. Rogers [1994(1969)], however, had highlighted this issue very early although it had never been brought into the original debate – it is the whole person who learns, not just the mind or the body – and in this he agreed with Knudson. Once we recognize this, we enter a different debate about learning because we have to ask the question about the nature of the person who has the experiences from which learning occurs. Now this had not been done, although Knowles' characteristics of the adult learner had begun to do this, although not in a systematic manner. The person is a combination of the body and the mind and we cannot separate them this recognition allows us to advance learning theory.

Part 3. Towards a Theory of Existential Learning

Learning always begins from human experience, so that we can see how both Knowles and Kolb were pointing us in this direction – but experience is neither mindless nor bodiless and so it is important that we begin to explore the idea of experience before we can proceed – something that Knowles did not do because he rather assumed it to be the sum of previous experiences amassed throughout the life time and so he became concerned and the nature of the adult.

Experience: Michael Oakeshott (1934) suggested that the concept of experience is one of the most difficult in the philosophical vocabulary – see also James (Capps and Capps, 2005) - but it has also become predominant in the vocabulary of learning. Oakeshott was clearly right and one of the problems with a great deal of the writing on experiential learning is that it does not seek to explore the nature of experience itself. But we do have experiences when we as persons interact with the world in which we live and the sum total of these episodic experiences might be regarded as the life-time experience. Experience occurs in space and time – space can be any place but time is a more problematic concept. We take time for granted. The philosopher Bergson (1999 [1965]) describes this as *durée*, the sociologists Schutz and Luckmann (1974,p.7) write about it in the following way:

I trust that the world as it has been known by me up until now will continue further and that consequently the stock of knowledge obtained from my fellow-men and formed from my own experiences will continue to preserve its fundamental validity... From this assumption follows the further one: that I can repeat my past successful acts. So long as the structure of the world can be taken as constant, as long as my previous experience is valid, my ability to act upon the world in this and that manner remains in principle preserved.

While the psychologist Csikszentmihaly (1990) calls it ‘flow’ - ‘the way people do things when consciousness is harmoniously ordered’. For him being is always connected to the ontological present.

The point about learning is that this flow is interrupted: we are no longer in a harmonious relationship with our world – we now no longer fit into our world – a disjuncture has occurred and we experience dissonance. We no longer can take our life world for granted and *durée* becomes a consciousness

of time. We are aware of our world, we experience it, and we ask questions like - Why? How? What does it mean? We have to think about it: we have to learn about it. Now these situations to which we respond are usually, but not always, social and they can be either self-initiated or other-initiated. But we as persons are both body - physical, genetic and biological and mind -knowledge, skills, attitudes, emotions, values, beliefs, senses and identity. When we experience the 'now', we have to recognize that it is all of these dimensions of the person that are involved in the experience and respond to the situation. Most learning theorists tend to restrict their analysis of the experience to knowledge and skills, although a few have more recently ventured into the emotions and attitudes, e.g., Goleman (1996), but there are few who have tried to examine the whole person in this situation. Significantly, we can see that once we discuss the whole person, disjuncture can occur and cause dissonance in any aspect - knowledge, skills, sense, emotions, beliefs, and so on (see Jarvis, 2006 for a discussion on disjunction).

- It can occur as a slight gap between our biography and our perception of the situation to which we can respond by slight adjustments in our daily living which we hardly notice since it occurs within the flow of time;
- It can also occur with larger gaps that demand considerable learning;
- In the meeting of the stranger, the disjuncture might not only occur in the discourse between them, it might actually occur between them as persons and their cultures and it takes time for the stranger to be received and a relationship, or harmony, to be established;
- In addition, some disjunctural situations - often emotive in category - just cause us to wonder at the beauty, pleasure and so forth that we are experiencing. In these situations, it is sometimes impossible to incorporate our learning from them into our biography and our taken-for-granted. These are what we might call 'magic moments' for which we look forward in hope to repeat in some way or other but upon which we might often reflect;
- Finally, we recognize that we cannot learn from the experience so that we become non-learners blocking out the opportunity of learning anything new.

Disjuncture, then, is a varied and complex experience but it is from within the disjunctural that we have experiences which, amongst other things, start our learning processes. There is a sense in which learning occurs when-

ever harmony between us and our world has been broken, so that the relationship between our present understanding and our experience of the 'now' needs to be established, or re-established. The rather interesting speculation is about when there is no disjuncture and if there was ever a time when human kind existed in perfect harmony with the world.

While there are a wide variety of ways in which we can discuss experience, we will focus on two forms here – primary and secondary – which relate to the whole person as body and mind.

Primary Experience: In this we experience the world through our senses. However, it would be false to say that in the ordinary course of events we experience phenomena through one sense only. For instance, when we hear something we might also respond emotionally; when we smell something we might well have a cognitive response as well, and so on. However, experiences through our senses are predominantly primary ones; they are, as it were, us 'touching' the world directly. In itself each sensation is meaningless. But primary experiences are more than just the sensations since through reflection and interaction with others, we give them meaning, so that we know that a certain odour comes from a flower in the garden or the factory in the town, or tastes of a certain food, etc. But there are other primary experiences to which science cannot give meaning – what is the meaning to the cosmos? Our daily lives consist of primary experiences to which we respond in a wide variety of ways but through which we seek meaning.

Living, and therefore doing, is a primary experience! We live through our acts. Consequently, in the course of daily doing (and living) we acquire many skills and the exercise of skill is always a primary experience. It is not surprising therefore that in preparing people to enter a new occupation practical placements have become an increasing necessity and we are re-discovering the need for apprenticeship and mentoring since the apprentice cannot learn the skills in the classroom. Learning the skills must be done through the act of doing and, therefore, experiencing. But, doing something is not just an act, it has a cognitive dimension as well and the inter-relationship between knowledge and skill emerges.

Secondary Experience: However, there is another form of experience – secondary or mediated experience - this comes through interaction and sharing. Foucault (1979, p.26) makes the significant point about sex – that we transform the experience into discourse and this we have also done with many other aspects of our lives including learning. This is precisely the way that culture is shared. It is through interaction that we experience other people and

this is a primary experience. But it is not just the person whom we experience, in the interaction we share our narratives and even listen to each other's discourses. The content of the narrative or discourse is also experienced, but this is a secondary experience. Indeed, the meaning that we give to primary experiences is secondary once we try to tell it to others. Most of what we learn about the world comes from secondary experience and much of what we are taught in college or university, often called theory, is also secondary experience, although we can also have facts mediated to us through teaching. But often it is the interpreted experiences of others that are transmitted by us or to us and about which we always need to be critical. Many educators have endeavoured to provide primary experiences, through role play, simulation, and so on in order that learners experience cognitively, physically and emotionally so that they relate the theories that they learn (secondary experiences) to the world of reality. It is this provision of primary experiences that has come to be known as experiential teaching and learning. Experiential learning, in this limited sense, is also existential but all existential learning would not be considered by all experiential learning practitioners as experiential, although we would maintain that it is. It is from these experiences that we learn.

Human Learning as Transformation: It is important to note that we are born in relationship – as Buber (1994 [1923], p.22) says, 'In the beginning is relationship' - and that we live the whole of our lives within a social context; the only time when most of us sever all relationships is at the point of death. Consequently, no understanding of learning can omit the life-world or the wider social world within which we live since learning is a process of transforming the experiences that we have and these always occur at the intersection of the individual and the wider society. Neither can it omit our experience of the natural world.

Learning from primary experience: As we have noted, experience itself begins with body sensations, e.g. sound, sight, smell, and so on. This is a human experience – it is universal. Indeed, we transform these sensations and learn to make them meaningful to ourselves and this is the first stage in human learning. We are more aware of it in childhood learning because many of the sensations are new and we have not learned their meaning, but in adulthood we have learned sounds, tastes, etc. and so we utilise the meaning as the basis for either our future learning, or for our taken-for-grantedness, in our daily living. For example, we know the meaning of a word (a sound) and so we are less aware of the sound itself and more aware of the meaning, and so on. This first process is depicted in the following diagram:

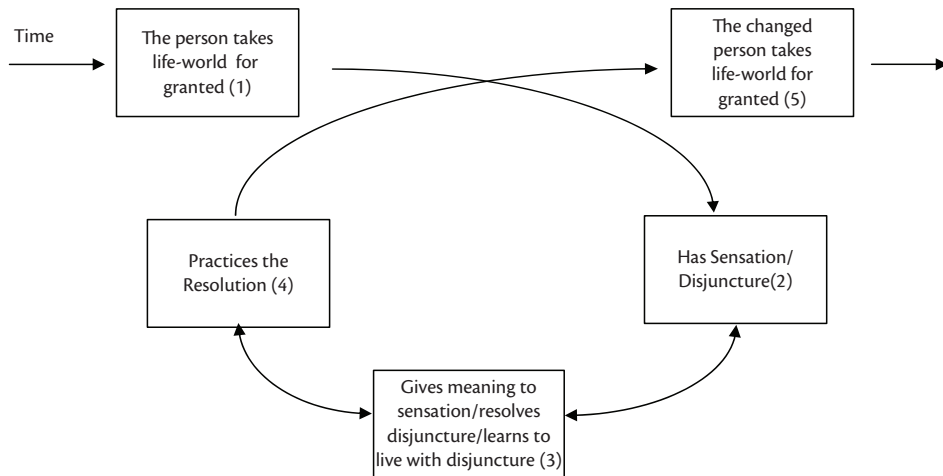


Figure 2. The Transformation of Sensations: initial and non-reflective learning

Significantly, we live a great deal of our lives in situations which we have learned to take for granted (box 1), that is we assume that the world as we know it does not change a great deal from one experience to another similar one as we noted above (Schutz and Luckmann 1974). Over a period of time, we actually develop categories and classifications that allow this taken-for-grantedness to occur. Falzon (1998, p.38) puts this neatly:

Encountering the world... necessarily involves a process of ordering the world in terms of our categories, organising it and classifying it, actively bringing it under control in some way. We always bring some framework to bear of the world in our dealings with it. Without this organising activity, we would be unable to make any sense of the world at all.

We recognize that very young children may not always be in a position to make such assumptions and they are in a more continuous state of learning so that for much of their early life they are developing from the stage of box 2. Learning from primary experiences is life long, although as we gain more experiences, we take them for granted and focus on their meaning. But how we treat our experience is also vital; the more time we give to it, the more attentive we are about it (Crawford, 2005) the deeper might be our insights, so that if we meditate on the experiences, we might see even more. We all have these experiences, we all have new sensations and then we cannot take the world for granted; we enter a state of disjuncture and immediately we raise questions

– What do I do now? What does that mean? What is that smell? What is that sound?, and so on. Many of these queries may not be articulated in the form of question but there is a sense of unknowing (box 2). However, unknowing is also a social phenomenon since one person's knowledge is another's ignorance, and so on. There is a double arrow between the second and the third box indicating that we do not necessarily gain a meaning immediately but eventually we are able to give meaning to the sensation and our disjuncture is resolved. An answer (not necessarily a correct one, even if there is one) to our questions may be given by a significant other in childhood, by a teacher, incidentally in the course of everyday living through discovery learning, or through self-directed learning, and so on (box 3). Significantly, the answers are social constructs and so immediately we are affected by the social context and our learning is influenced by it. Once we have acquired an answer to our implied question, however, we have to practice it in order to commit it to memory (box 4). The more opportunities we have to practice the answer to our initial question the better we will commit it to memory. Since we do this in our social world we get feedback, which confirms that we have got a socially acceptable resolution or else we have to start the process again, or be different from those people around us – as the double arrow between the third and fourth boxes indicates. A socially acceptable answer may be called correct, but here we have to be aware of the problem of language – conformity is not always 'correctness'. This process of learning to conform is 'trial and error' learning. In addition, we have to recognize that those people with power can define what is regarded as socially acceptable but as we become more confident of ourselves we are in a position to reject this socially accepted answer. But as we become more familiar with our socially acceptable resolution and memorize it we are in a position to take our world for granted again (box 5), provided that the social world has not changed in some way or other. Most importantly, however, as we change and others change as they learn, the social world is always changing and so our taken-for grantedness in box 5 is of a slightly different situation. The same water does not flow under the same bridge twice and so even our taken-for-grantedness is relative.

The significance of this process is that once we have given meaning to the sensation and committed a meaning to our memories then the significance of the sensation itself recedes in future experiences as the socially acceptable answer (meaning) dominates the process, and when disjuncture then occurs it is more likely because we cannot understand the meaning rather than about the sensation itself. It is in learning that we incorporate culture into ourselves;

this we do in most, if not all, of our learning experiences. In this sense, we carry social meaning within ourselves – whatever social reality is it is incorporated in us through our learning from the time of our birth onwards. Indeed, this also reflects the thinking of Bourdieu (1992, p.127) when he describes habitus as a ‘social made body’ and he goes on in the same page to suggest that:

Social reality exists, so to speak, twice, in things and in minds, in fields and in habitus, outside and inside of agents.

There is a sense then in which we might, unknowingly, be imprisoned behind the bars of our own minds¹ but perhaps there is a reality that is other than the social which needs further exploration. But it is within us that we experience the world and it is from within us that we start our every learning journey – it is a journey into all academic disciplines and all forms of knowledge.

However, if we return to box 2, disjuncture is treated there as if it a single type of phenomenon whereas there is continuum of disjunctural experiences, as we pointed out above, e.g. from there being but a small gap between what we experience and what we already know in our biography so that we merely adjust our response a little and this often occurs almost unthinkingly in the process of everyday life – in the flow of time - to there being a massive gap between the two which we recognize that we cannot bridge and we cannot get answers to it. We called this latter one ‘meaningless experience’ but there are other ways of looking at this, such as learning to live in ignorance and incorporating our ignorance into our biography, and so on. We dismiss our ignorance by recognising that we live in an extremely complex world and after all when we do not know something we can also claim that ‘it might not be my field’ etc. We learn to live in ignorance without disjuncture. This helps us understand why many people might no longer want to think about unknowns of daily living, including religious phenomena. But what some people incorporate into their minds as meaningless and then learn to take their ignorance for granted might be meaningful or learning experiences for others. There might be socially acceptable meanings within our culture, or we may have to devise new understandings and interpretations and this is also a part of the process of learning. In addition, there might be ‘magic moment’ experiences, religious experiences, where the sensation is more important than any socially ascribed meaning.

¹ This phrase, I think, originated with Peter Berger

The point about primary experiences is that we want to give them meaning but we might live in a state on constant disjuncture because we cannot always provide one, nor might our culture provide one that we can accept. This is significant in itself because a sensation has no meaning in itself and only we can give a meaning to our own experience, even though the meaning we give might be one which is socially acceptable. But clearly, we are all affected by these experiences to which we can or cannot give a meaning, and this brings me to the second aspect of our theory of learning – in every learning experience the whole person is changed.

Learning from secondary experience: Significantly, however, we learn to take our sensations for granted when we have given them meaning and it is then in the cognitive dimension that we experience disjuncture – this time, the answer we have to previous experiences might be questioned, the answer that we have read might not seem correct, and so on. In the same way, the values and beliefs that we have worked out may be questioned by others, including teachers, or even by something that we see on the television, and so on. Consequently, we also learn a great deal from mediated, secondary experiences.

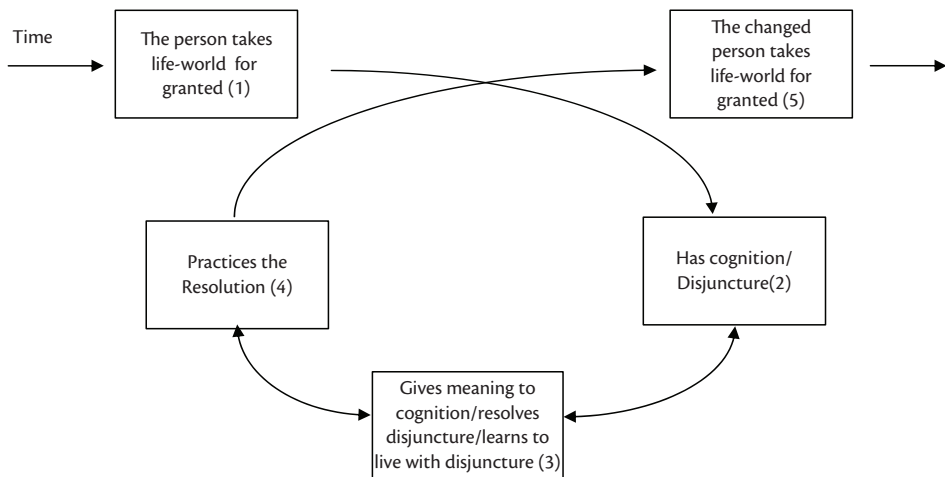


Figure 3. Learning from Secondary Experience

In this cycle, we go through the same processes as we did in our description above about learning from primary experience. Now we are transforming meanings, values, beliefs, and so on. It is at this point that this argument approaches Mezirow's theorising about adult learning. But human learning is more than just transforming the meaning, it is also about transforming bodily

sensations into meaning and the meanings that we have into new ones. It is the process of transforming the whole of our experience though thought, action and emotion and, thereby transforming ourselves as we continue to build perceptions of external reality into our biography. However, we have to combine these two processes and recognize that the whole person has both these primary and secondary experiences, usually simultaneously, and learns.

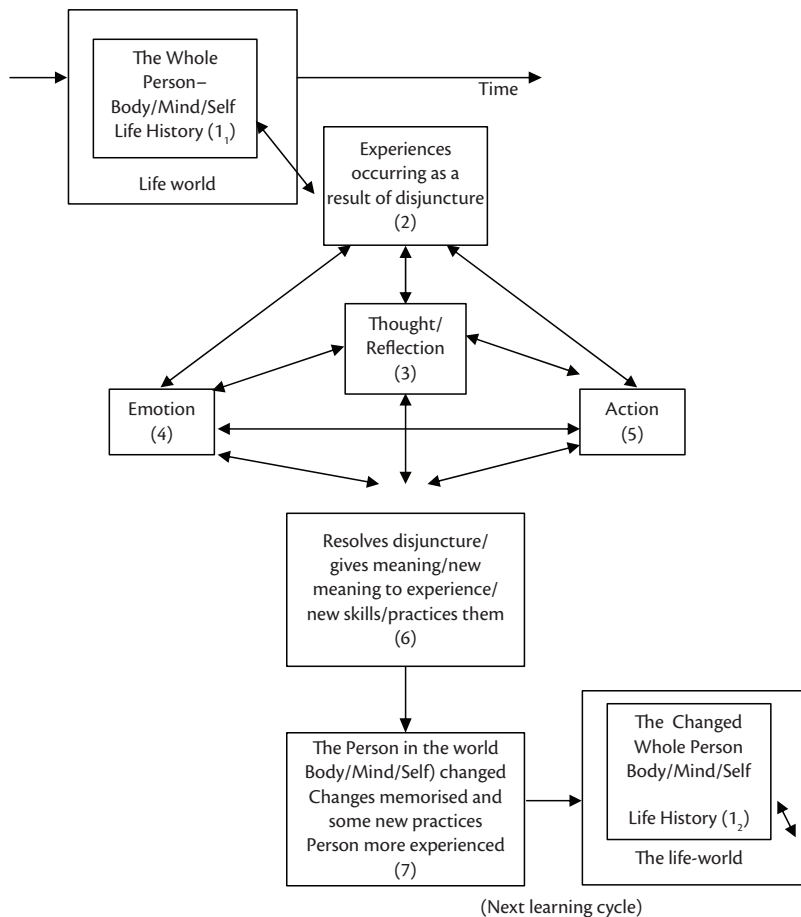


Figure 4. The Transformation of the Person through Learning

Figures 1 and 2 are incorporated into this diagram which seeks to depict the processes of learning. In it we have tried to capture its continuous nature by pointing to the second cycle (box 1₂). However, this diagram must always be understood in relation to the previous figures, but it is only by separating the

primary and secondary experiences that we can actually understand the learning processes. Having had an experience (box 2), which might occur as a result of disjuncture, we can reject it, think about it, respond to it emotionally or do something about it – or any combination of the three (boxes 3-5). Throughout this diagram the arrows are in both directions illustrating the interactive nature of the experience, there is always a feedback mechanism in each aspect of learning as well as a progressive dynamic. What is important about this observation is that we actually always learn from our experience not from the social situation. As a result of the learning (box 6) we become changed persons (box 7) but, as we see, learning is itself a complex process. Once the person is changed, it is self-evident that the next social situation into which the individual enters is also changed. And so, we can return to experience – we do not need to have a meaning to learn from the experiences although I might want to give meaning to it as we reflect upon them (box 3). However, my emotions might be transformed (box 4), my beliefs affected and so might my attitudes and values be (box 3), and so on. We might even want to do something about them (box 5). Finally, we see that as a result of learning (box 6) we become changed persons and so only in being can we become and in learning we experience and transform sensations, the person and then the social situation.

These three diagrams together also depict the complex process of experiencing both sensations and meanings simultaneously, it is also a recognition that both primary and secondary experiences occur simultaneously. Learning, then, is a complex set of processes and so learning is defined as *the combination of processes throughout a lifetime whereby the whole person – body (genetic, physical and biological) and mind (knowledge, skills, attitudes, values, emotions, beliefs and senses) – experiences social situations, the perceived content of which is then transformed cognitively, emotively or practically (or through any combination) and integrated into the individual person's biography resulting in a continually changing and more experienced person.*

Part 4. Andragogy and Pedagogy

From the previous discussion we can see that in the first instance children learn more frequently from primary experiences since they do not know the meaning of the experiences that they have. Having learned the meaning, often through trial and error but also from having been taught by others, and practiced their answer on many occasions and found it to be acceptable to the social group in which they are members, they can internalize it and take

it for granted. They then do not have to concentrate on the sensations but on the meaning of the sensation for future learning and in this sense, their future cognitive learning depends upon their experiences – in precisely the way that Knowles recognized. However, it was not age that determined their level of experience but the learning from their previous experiences, so that young children are able to deal with cognitive learning when they have internalized the meaning as a result of many previous experiences.

By contrast, adults who experience a new taste, sound, smell etc – who has a new sensation - does not know its social meaning either and so they have to learn the meaning attached to their primary experience before they can take their primary experience for granted and move on to learning from meanings, or secondary experiences. Obviously, the more experienced we are, the easier it is to learn through secondary experience, although there are times when even experienced adults still have to learn from primary experiences. In addition, we are now well aware that in experiential learning we try to help adults, usually in work place simulations or work place student experiences, learn from the primary experiences that we have provided.

Now meanings are only attached to sensations by cultures and societies – so that to learn a meaning to a sensation, whether it is a word or a feeling, is only to learn what is socially acceptable and conformist. It is the ability to recreate disjuncture and question the socially accepted meaning through reflection and criticality that empowers individuals to develop their unique selves.

Consequently, we can see that in teaching people by providing them with primary experiences demands a different technique to teaching them through secondary experiences. Knowles was right thus far. He was also right about focusing teaching upon previous learning, but he was wrong in equating age and experience, so that he moved in the right direction in the later book but he could not break away from the adult-child dichotomy. For instance, he (1970, p.43) wrote that ‘the two models are probably most useful when not seen as dichotomous but rather as two ends of a spectrum’. He goes on to talk of a six year old and a forty year old and their levels of dependency rather than their levels of previous experience, so that for him both pedagogy and andragogy finish up as teaching methods based upon an incomplete theory of human learning.

Conclusion

We are now in a position where we can return to the original question: was Knowles right to differentiate between andragogy and pedagogy in either of the ways that he did? As different teaching techniques, he was right to differentiate between learner-directed and teacher-directed methods – but in the wider educational vocabulary neither term is specifically restricted to teaching methods. In terms of learning theory, he was hinting at a very valid differentiation in the types of experience from which we learn, but he was unable to substantiate his feelings because they were wrongly conceptualised. He neither explored how the learners actually learned, nor the nature of the experiences that they had, which he so rightly regarded as important. Perhaps his book would have been far more correct had he not tried to compare the education of adults with that of children, but recognized that as human beings we all learn in the same way but we do have different experiences at different levels and we learn from these and that teachers need to respond to the different experiences of their learners, as he recognized, if they are to be good educators.

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ANDRAGOGIJA U POREĐENJU S PEDAGOGIJOM ILI OD PEDAGOGIJE KA ANDRAGOGIJI: PREISPITIVANJE NOULSOVE DILEME SA RAZVOJEM TEORIJE UČENJA

Noulsova formulacija andragogije izazvala je nekoliko rasprava – možda je najznačajnije bilo pitanje da li deca i odrasli uče na različit način. Ovaj rad dokazuje da ono što utiče na učenje nisu godine starosti, već je to prethodno iskustvo. Steći novo iskustvo obično znači biti svesniji osetilnog iskustva, a upravo iz toga se uči. Kad jednom protumačimo osetilno iskustvo, naše učenje teži da otpočne u domenu saznanja. Ovaj pristup teoriji učenja nudi rešenje dileme koju je stvorila Noulsova formulacija i koju on nikada nije razrešio na zadovoljavajući način.

EDUCATION OF OLDER ADULTS IN SLOVENIA

The aim of this paper is to closely examine the actual state of affairs and the possibilities of education for older adults in Slovenia. The article deals with a secondary analysis of the kvantitative data that were collected in three Slovene researches dealing with the participation of adults in the education process in 1987, 1998 and 2004. The purpose of the analysis is to examine the changes in the participation of older adults, their motivation for education and barriers that have dissuaded the older adults from education. Special attention is devoted to the thesis that only education based on the principles of critical educational gerontology could reduce the marginality and empower the older adults.

Education of older adults (in the so-called third age) is becoming increasingly important amongst the different activities for older adults, above all because it empowers the older adults, while at the same time reducing their social exclusiveness.

Key words: motives and barriers for education, educational gerontology, education in the third age

Introduction

In a constantly ageing society it is important to change the attitude towards age, ageing and the older adults. Apart from the anthropologic, andragogic and sociologic researches, the medical researches also prove the positive influence of education on the older adults, which manifests itself on their health, their social activities and their capability of obtaining and preserving power and influence (Glendenning, 2000; Cusack and Thompson, 1998; Cusack, 1999; Jarvis 2001). Through education the understanding of old age as the 'remaining' inactive, socially marginal life should change towards a more positive search for conditions of the so-called 'successful ageing'.

In this contribution we wish to establish the conditions and possibilities of educating the older adults in Slovenia. We will present the conclusions of three researches dealing with the participation of adults in the education

process in Slovenia, at which we will especially expose the characteristics of the education of older adults. On the basis of the secondary analysis of the data from three researches, which took place within an seventeen year period (in 1987, 1998 and 2004), we will try to verify the thesis that in 1998 and even more in 2004 adults were more often involved in organised education programmes, that they had less barriers in their way and that they were more intrinsically motivated as in 1987. These presumptions derive from the fact that the offer of educational possibilities for the older adults has become more diverse and can be found in higher quantities since the declaration of Slovene independence in 1991. We are of the opinion that the educational offer is oriented towards the higher motivated and higher educated older adults. Apart from this, only education that sticks to the principles of critical educational gerontology can reduce the marginality and increase the influence and power of the older adults within the society.

Educational gerontology and gerogogy

Years ago Battersby ascertained that ‘there has always been a reluctance among adult educators to examine the principles and practices of teaching and learning as they might apply to the elderly’ (Battersby, 1987, p. 4). Formosa agrees with this statement, for he has concluded that this feeling has not changed during the recent years (Formosa, 2002). Even though the number of publications in the field of educational gerontology is on the rise (Glendenning, 2000; Jarvis, 2001), Formosa draws attention to the fact that there is a lack of literature on the strategies for teaching the older adults.

Educational gerontology, which links the fields of adult education and social gerontology, explains that education in the older age depends on the individual’s education throughout his life (Erikson, 1995; Sugerman and Woolfe, 1997; Glendenning, 2000). It emphasises the importance of education at reducing the marginalisation of the older adults, which arises under the influence of economic, social, political and cultural factors. Gerogogy¹ deals with the practical strategies of teaching in the process of the education of the older adults. In the European academic debates this term has been in use for over half a century, but it was often used in a rather ‘benevolent’ way. This is especially noticeable in John’s book entitled ‘*Geragogy: a theory for teaching the elderly*’ (John, 1988), where gerogogy is limited to the weaker and more vul-

¹ In the literature there is no general agreement about this term. We decided to use the term ‘gerogogy’ in this article.

nerable older people. Such an understanding of the older adults is on one hand considered as patronising, and on the other as ignorant to the older adults within the community (Glendenning, 1992, p. 16).

The reaction to the non-critical and apolitical stance of the generally accepted ways of thought and operation in the field of educational gerontology is represented by critical educational gerontology, which emerges from the radical endeavour to overcome the suppression which places the older adults into ignorance, poverty and frailty. The beginnings of critical educational gerontology are linked to Allman's political appeal concerning the education of the older adults in which he states that the rise of the quality of life of the older adults will not emerge due to any learning experience, but only through the liberating education experience (Allman, 1984). One of the paradigms of the critical educational gerontology is critical gerogogy, which is defined as an educational practice, the purpose of which is to emancipate and empower the older adults (Glendenning and Battersby, 1990). In opposition to the functionalist or psychological paradigm, critical educational gerontology advocates the 'critical' gerogogy practice, within the frame of which the older adults control their thoughts and learning process as well as have the possibility for future development, rethinking, questioning and reflecting upon the things they already know or the things they are learning.

As an educational practice of critical educational gerontology critical gerogogy understands teaching and learning as a collective and negotiable endeavour amongst the older adults. Such learning, which takes place on the basis of the principles of collectivity and dialogue, represents liberation and changes (Battersby, 1987). The emphasis is placed on education, which is not a neutral activity, but includes moral and ethic dimensions. The older adults should obtain greater power and control over all aspects of the educational activity including the contents, organisation and planing of the course (Glendenning, 2000).

Fifteen years ago Glendenning and Battersby (1990) drew attention to the fact that most educational courses for the older adults are based on wrongful assumptions, such as:

- the dominance of the psychological 'deficitory' model as regards the capabilities of the older adults for learning;
- the assumption that any sort of education contributes to emancipation and empowerment;

- non-critical acceptance of goals and purposes of the educational programmes for the older adults;
- not taking into account the various levels of marginalisation amongst the older adults;
- the assumption that the education of the older adults takes place in the interest of the older adults.

The perspective of critical educational gerontology includes the broadening of the social consciousness as regards the older adults as a collective body, which means that they are not there merely to accept help, but they are rather the subjects of the social transformation process. Currently, the prevailing intervention strategies do not include the notion of the potentially older adults; they are treated more like a problem, as people who need help. As a response to such general thoughts and wrongful assumptions Battersby and Glendenning (1992) proposed four basic principles of critical educational gerontology as regards the education of the older adults:

- establishing the social-political frame of dealing with the older adults in a certain society within the context of the economy and state;
- forming educational gerontology within the frame of traditions, literature, experience and discussions, which are present in the critical theory of the society;
- forming a new discourse, which will include concepts such as emancipation, empowerment, changes as well as social and hegemonic monitoring;
- founding critical educational gerontology on the understanding of the practice as a dialectic relation between theory and practice.

Currently, educating the older adults is a marginal activity in the political sense. This can be noticed in the field of financing as well as in systemic organisation of this activity. However, in societies that are constantly ageing a multi-layered professional and political support for the education of the older adults should be ensured. Due to this Formosa proposes the introduction of critical gerogogy principles, which should introduce appropriate policies and reject the inappropriate standpoints that the older adults can be empowered and gain influence with any type of education (Formosa, 2002). Formosa warns that all segments of the older adults should be reached through education, however the emphasis should be placed on the education accelerators, who have to be the older adults themselves. Apart from this it would also be neces-

sary to introduce the self-help culture. Finally, the practice of critical gerogogy should take the role of a 'progressive' movement, which would also include the contra hegemonic activities.

The educational programmes for older adults in Slovenia

In Slovenia the beginnings of education, intended solely for older adults reach back to 1984, when the first experimental educational programme for older adults was introduced (Findeisen, 1999; Krajnc, 1992). In 1986, upon the initiative of Ana Krajnc, the volunteers from the Slovenian Association for Adult Education set up the basis for today's University for the Third Age, which now operates as an independent association. The development of the University for the Third Age was accompanied by the public campaign for changing the attitudes towards education of older adults and their social situation. The University for the Third Age is an educational movement for the older adults, which is based on joint learning, shared responsibility, and voluntary work of all involved. Today Slovenia has 31 local Universities for the Third Age into which over 17.000 older adults are enrolled. Since 1984 - when the first group of older adults started their learning process - the number of study groups in Ljubljana (the capital of Slovenia) alone has risen to 222 (in the year 2003/4). The number of study groups and participants is on the increase every year, which shows an interest of the older adults to educate themselves. Within the University for the Third Age courses the participants can learn various subjects, such as for instance: history of art, the classical period of art and archaeology, music, Slovene and world history, literature, psychology, astronomy, calligraphy, computer science, foreign languages, etc.

Following 1990 a number of new education possibilities, into which the older adults could enrol, emerged in Slovenia. One of these possibilities is represented by study circles, which are suitable for the older adults due to their manner of work and their content flexibility. A number of study circles are of special interest to the older adults, for the contents are linked to the folk tradition, habits and rituals that are no longer known to the younger generation. Thus we can encourage inter-generation co-operation and help with the transfer of knowledge and experience from the older to the younger generation. In Slovenia a network of study circles has emerged, that are lead by public universities, Universities for the Third Age, public libraries and a number of other organisations. Because this is one of the most democratic forms of learning, which due to its nature of operation disables most of the barriers for

education, it is a form suitable for introducing to various organisations, where the older adults either live or work. The data as regards the age structure of the study circle members in Slovenia between 1993 and 2000 shows that the share of the older adults (60+ age group) participating in such groups was always around 10% or even a bit higher (Bogataj, 2003).

Most public universities (public organisations for adult learning) do not have special programmes intended solely for the older adults. Some perform programmes of the Third Age University and study circles, but in most cases they offer programmes of a general informal character, into which the older adults can also enrol.

Older adults in Slovenia can also educate themselves within the frame of certain organisations and programmes that are not exclusively oriented towards educational activities. At these the Pensioners' Associations are especially important - they prepare various sporting, recreational, cultural, educational, social and other programmes on a local level. Besides, the political party of the retired and the various fractions of the retired at other political parties are also extremely active. Education within various associations, clubs and other voluntary organisations can also be an important addition to the educational offer. Within the frame of their basic activities the various associations have a number of educational contents and try to encourage their older members to participate in the learning process throughout their lives. This holds especially true in associations that bring together people with chronic diseases (Diabetes Association, Coronary Heart Diseases Association, etc.), for the secondary lifelong rehabilitation plays a crucial part in the preservation of health and a high quality of life, while at the same time presenting an important source of social activities for their members. In a number of these associations older adults represent a significant share of all members.

Lately also inter-generation programmes are emerging in Slovenia. Through such programmes the co-operation and interaction between the generations is increased and at the same time the social networks of the older adults are strengthened. Through the inter-generation groups the older adults can satisfy their non-material social needs, the middle generation is getting prepared for their own old age, while the younger generation can discover the wisdom of the older adults. In the inter-generation programmes the older adults can become an important support for the others, for they encourage others to learn, as well as develop their personal and social life (Midwinter et al., 1997). Regardless of the fact that in Slovenia we are lacking behind a number of countries as regards the offer of inter-generation education pro-

grammes we have a few organisations that are developing such programmes. In this an important role is played by the Inter-generation Association for a Qualitative Old Age, Association for Social Gerontology and Geragogy of Slovenia, The Gerontological Association and especially the Anton Trstenjak Institute. With various programmes and volunteer education programmes they are developing a contemporary social network of inter-generation programmes for a qualitative old age.

Involvement of older adults in education process in Slovenia

For the analysis of the changes in the participation of the older adults in the education process we have used data from three researches dealing with the participation of adults in the education process in Slovenia, which took place at three points in time², in 1987, 1998 and 2004. There are some differences between the researches as regards their methodological approaches, thus the possibility of comparing the gathered data is reduced to a certain degree.

The 1987 research included 1.934 adults aged between 18 and 70 years (only adults were included in this research, i.e. those who were within this age limit and were no longer pupils or students in the regular education system)³. The number of respondents in 1998 research (the second research) was 2.558 adults ranging between 16 and 65 years in age⁴ and in 2004 research (the third research) 2.457 adults between 16 and 65 years in age.

The differences between the first and both later researches also appear at the data gathering process. In the 1987 research data as regards formal and non-formal education, selfdirected-learning and independent adult learning was gathered, while in the year 1998 and 2004 researches only data as regards the formal and non-formal education of the older adults was gathered (a nar-

² The first research entitled Adult education as a strategic factor of encouraging our social and technological development was performed by the Educational Research Institute in 1987, within the frame of the broader Slovene Public Opinion project (Jelenc, 1989). The second and the third researches from 1998 and 2004 entitled The participation of Slovene inhabitants in adult education, which represented a part of the International Adult Literacy Survey were performed by the Slovenian Institute for Adult Education (Mohorčič Špolar et al., 2001; Mirčeva, 2005).

³ Following a special procedure 420 settlements in Slovenia were chosen and within each settlement 5 persons within the selected age group were chosen. Thus 2.033 persons were selected and they represented 0,16% of the Slovene population according to the regional principle, from which pupils and students were excluded, so that 1.934 persons remained, i.e. 95,1% of the entire sample (Jelenc, 1989, p. 14)

⁴ The initial sample from the national register encompassed 4.290 persons or 0,31% of the entire adult population. Out of these total 2.972 persons were questioned or 69,5% of the selected sample who were no longer pupils or students or were no longer involved in the formal education system (Mohorčič Špolar et al., 2001, p. 20).

rower sample). Respondents were ranked according to their participation in the education process into three groups: active, potentially active and inactive⁵.

Comparison between years 1987, 1998 and 2004

In the 1987 research it was ascertained that 26.8% of all adults within the sample were active, 10.8% were potentially active and 62.4% of all respondents were inactive. Amongst all adults who were active in the education process (26.8% of the entire sample) only 5.3% were aged more than 60 years.

If we compare these findings to the participation of older adults, we discover that 15.6% of the 60+ age group were active in the education process, 2.6% were potentially active and a staggering 81% of all older adults were inactive in 1987. Amongst all other age groups (under 60 years) it was typical that the share of the active in the education process is just slightly lower than the share of inactive ones; that shows that by getting older people are less and less inclined to participate in the learning process.

The research data from 1987 shows that most of the 60+ group decided to learn with the aid of a radio or television (amongst all who have opted for such a form of education there were 7.8% in the 60+ group) and for education in associations and clubs (6.7% of all respondents who were being educated in associations and clubs were older than 60). This confirms the belief that the older adults most commonly opt for education that is either linked to their hobbies or improves their quality of life. Formal education and education for further employment is more appealing to the young, while the older adults are more involved in the non-formal education and more general programmes (Jelenc, 1989, p. 57). This can also be explained with the fact that before the transition there were very few education programmes (especially for non-formal education), which were intended and would satisfy the needs of the older adults. The main focus at the time was placed on the social care of the older adults.

In the entire sample in the year 1998 31.1% of adults were active in the education process, 27.5% were potentially active and 41.4% of all respondents

⁵ Those adults, who were in the education process during the time of questioning or the previous twelve months (in various education programmes, regardless of whether it took place in educational institutions or other organisations), were considered to be active participants. Those who responded that they are currently not involved in any educational activity and were not involved in such an activity during the past twelve months, but showed an interest to participate in an educational programme in the future, were considered to be potentially active. Inactive were those who did not participate in any educational programme and stated that they will not participate in any such programmes in the future (Jelenc, 1989; Mohorčič Špolar et al., 2001; Mirčeva, 2005).

were inactive. Amongst the active only 1% were from the 60+ age group. If we look at the data from a different viewpoint we can observe that amongst the 60+ group there were only 3,6% of the respondents who were active, 21,7% who were potentially active and 74,7% who were inactive in the education process.

The data from the 2004 research show that amongst all adults 37% were active, 20,3% were potentially active and 42,7% were inactive. For the purpose of this article it is more important that 12,1% of the 60+ age group were active in the education process, 21,4% were potentially active and 66,5% were inactive in the education process.

Table 1. 60+ age group, regarding their activity, potential activity or inactivity in the adult education programmes in 1987, 1998 and 2004

	Active	Potentially Active	Inactive	Total
1987	15.6%	2.6%	81.8%	100%
1998	3.6%	21.7%	74.7%	100%
2004	12.1%	21.4%	66.5%	100%

Sources:

Jelenc, Z. (1989): *Odrasli prebivalci Slovenije v izobraževanju* (Adult Inhabitants in Education Programmes in Slovenia). Ljubljana: Pedagoški inštitut.

Mohorčič Špolar, V. et al. (2001): *Udeležba prebivalcev Slovenije v izobraževanju*. (Participation of Slovene Inhabitants in the Education Process) Ljubljana: Andragoški center Slovenije.

Mirčeva, J. (2005): *Vključenost odraslih v izobraževanje* (Adult Participation in the Education Process), *Andragoška spoznanja*, 4, 10-21.

If we compare the results from the 1987, 1998 and 2004 researches we can ascertain that the share of the older adults (60+ age group), who were attending some form of education during the time of questioning or the previous 12 months has significantly fallen between the first two studies and risen again from the year 1998 to 2004. In 1987 15% of the older adults participated in some sort of an education process, in 1998 this was reduced to a mere 3,6% of the older adults and in 2004 it increased to 12,1%, what is still lower than in the year 1987. In the seventeen years between all three researches the share of the inactive adults in this age group has fallen slightly, while the share of the potentially active has increased in 1998 and stayed mostly the same till the year 2004. This could mean that the barriers that stand in the way of the older adults and their education have become more important during this period, or maybe there are other reasons for this. Regardless of the increased offer of education for the older adults, participation in the 60+ age group has declined in various programmes.

The 1998 data on the educational structure of the older adults enrolled into the education programmes in Slovenia show that over 50% of the respondents in the 60+ age group have completed only primary school or less. One third (29,8%) of them have only 5 or 6 grades of primary school, which represents the group with the largest share from all age groups. One fourth (24,3%) of the over 60 age group has a two or three year secondary school course finished. In the 60+ age group 15,6% of the respondents completed a four-year secondary school education, while 7,3% have one form of higher education or another. In the year 2004 the share of the older adults with primary school or less has diminished if compared to the previous years and was 35,2% of the older adults. Approximately one fourth (27,2%) of the over 60 age group have finished vocational school (1, 2, or 3 years). In the 60+ age group 22,1% of the respondents completed a four year secondary school and 15,5% of the older adults have finished higher education or more. The data for both researches (1998 and 2004) thus show that the share of the older adults, who have completed merely primary school or less is significantly larger from the share of adults with the same education in other age groups.

The research data from 1987 shows that most of the 60+ group opted to learn in associations and clubs. This confirms the belief that older adults most commonly decide to choose an education that is either linked to their hobbies or improves their quality of life. Prior to the transition there were very few education programmes (especially for non-formal education) that were intended for older adults and would satisfy their needs. At the time, the main focus was placed on the social care for older adults.

In the 1998 and 2004 researches most of the active older adults responded that the main reason behind their education was their personal interest and not their professional career or work. In both researches nobody in the selected age group stated that they were in the education process in order to obtain any sort of formal education certificate, which of course, comes as no surprise. At their education or training they enrolled into activities that were offered by schools or faculties, associations, unions, chambers and private education organisations. In the questionnaires the respondents could not differentiate between programmes and organisations that catered specifically for older adult education, for the questionnaires did not include this option.

The data thus shows that more general non-formal education programmes need to be developed; most commonly they do not take place in education organisations, but rather in other organisations within the community.

Why older adults participate in education process and why not?

Research shows that the older adults who participate in various education programmes enrol into such programmes mainly due to their intrinsic motivation. Enrolling into such activities offers them the fulfilment of their intellectual curiosity, self-realisation and control over their lives as well as the possibility for reestablishing a new bonds of friendship and mutual help (Fisher and Woolf, 1998; Gaskell, 1999; Findeisen, 1999). The motivation for learning at this age is often weak and is greatly dependent on the appropriate stimulation within their environment.

In the 1987 and 1998 researches over half of the respondents in the 60+ age group stated that their basic motivation for education was linked to their final motivation to 'increase their success'. This includes responses such as 'gain knowledge, enable self-development', 'improving my situation', 'success at work, profession, expertise', 'handling relations at work', etc. In both researches other motivational reasons were also important, reasons that could not be listed in any of the categories – for instance 'reach a goal', 'have an organised environment', 'take pleasure in nature', 'need for certain knowledge', etc. An important reason for the older adults enrolling into an education processes was their 'joy for learning', at which the 60+ age group was ahead of all other age groups in both researches. 10% in 1987 and 17% in 1998 of all older adults stated that this was an important motive. This does not come as a surprise, for with age – especially with the higher educated individuals – the motivation connected to work and employment start to decrease and older adults take time for self-realisation and improving their quality of life.

Research from the year 2004 was methodologically different from previous two researches; respondents were assessing motives for education by importance (no importance, medium importance, high importance), while in previous two researches (1987 and 1998) they had to choose the most important from among given motives.

In the year 2004 the 60+ age group gave the high importance to this motives for learning: joy of learning (61% of the respondents); learning because of companionship (64%), learning for being more successful (32%); other reasons were not important motivational factors for the older adults in the year 2004, which is not surprising since all other reasons are connected to work, employment.

In all three Slovene researches respondents were asked to choose between several barriers that would (or did) prevent them from attending educational programmes. The most important reasons are stated below.

The results of the 1987 research show that age significantly influence the participation in the education process. For all of the eleven barriers that the participants stated in the past it has shown that already from the age of 40 onwards people had a significantly greater number of barriers to overcome in their quest for learning than the younger adults (Jelenc, 1989, p. 164). When the respondents thought about the barriers as regards their future education it emerged that the younger mainly stated situational barriers (being too busy, family commitments, costs and location of education), while the older adults mainly stated dispositional barriers (age, previous education). At the institutional barriers (programmes, organisation of education) the differences between the younger and older with regard to the education are not statistically significant.

In 1987 the two most common barriers for the 60+ age group on the route to their education⁶ appeared to be that they were too busy (36,4% of the older adults) and had family commitments (36,4%). This was followed by the high costs (31,2%), location – the study place was too far (25,1%) and the problems that they had due to inappropriate previous education (19%). The same group (60+ age group) saw their age as their greatest barrier at their education in the future (this was stated by 61,9% of the respondents) and they were also worried that their previous education would make it hard for them (19,5%). As an important barrier at their future education they also stated a demanding education programme (16,9%), high costs (13%) and their fear of exams (12,1%).

In the 1998 and 2004 researches only the active and potentially active respondents were asked as regards the reasons that would put them off education (in 1987 this question was posed also to the inactive adults). The 60+ age group in 1998 stated that the most important barrier was that they were too busy (35%). A much smaller share of the older adults stated that insufficient education programmes (16%) and family commitments (14%) posed an barrier. High costs (11% of the respondents) also deterred the older adults from further education, while their previous education no longer seemed to represent an barrier.

⁶ At this question the respondents could chose amongst a number of barriers, thus the total share of adults who have defined the individual barriers is over 100%. At this research the percentages are correct to one decimal point and this has been used at the presentation; at the 1998 research we have used merely the percentage data, rounded up to whole numbers.

In the 2004 research⁷ the 60+ age group assigned the high importance to the following barriers for learning: being too busy (45% of the respondents); family commitments (28%), health problems (26,7%) and high costs of education (20,5%).

If we compare data from all three researches we can observe that the older adults were 'too busy' was the greatest barrier for furthering their education in 1987, 1998 as well as in 2004. Family commitments, high costs and previous education did not seem to be such great barriers in 1998 as they were in 1987, however the poor offer for this target group seemed to represent a greater barrier in 1998 than in 1987. In 2004 the different methodology which was used aggravate direct comparison.

Conclusions

In the conclusion of this contribution we try to ascertain the implications for the policies and research in the field of education for the older adults, by using the conclusions reached by the previous Slovene researches as regards the participation of the older adults in the education process. The data from three researches on the participation of adults in the education process (researches from 1987, 1998 and 2004) that we have used for ascertaining the changes in the participation of the older adults show that their participation has declined and increased again during the seventeen years. The decline of the participation in 1998 is surprising, for taking into account the diversified and expanded offer of the educational possibilities for the older adults that has emerged since 1991; it would be expected that the older adults would be encouraged to educate themselves. The new possibilities for education are mainly offered by the expanding programmes at the Third Age University and the diversified network of study circles. These two options are also supplemented by the inter-generation programmes and the self-help groups that are performed by certain organisations (e.g. Anton Trstenjak Institute, Association of Social Gerontology and Geragogy of Slovenia, Gerontology Society, Inter-generation Associations for a Qualitative Old Age).

The older adults can also enrol in the formal and non-formal education programmes in various education institutions, which are intended for all adults. The data from all three researches on the participation in the education

⁷ The methodology of ranking the barriers was different in 2004 as in the previous two researches (1987 and 1998). As with motives also with barriers respondents were assessing barriers for education by importance (no importance, medium importance, high importance), while in previous two researches (1987 and 1998) they had to choose the most important from among given barriers.

process in Slovenia show that the older adults mainly enrol into non-formal education programmes that are organised by various, sometimes even non-educational organisations.

The data from abroad also show that the share of the older adults (60+ age group), who participate in the formal education processes is low – Midwinter (1997) mentions 2% of the older adults. There are socio-economic and cultural explanations for such a situation, which show that there are a number of factors that influence the participation of the older adults in the education process. Amongst them we can find particularly economic, demographic, sociologic and psychological factors (Van der Kamp, 1996); a strong influence is also presented by the education and the socio-economic situation of their parents and by the education during their childhood and youth (Dronkers, 1997, p. 373). The results of the vast international study show that most of the older adults who find themselves in the education process have a higher level of education, a relatively good income and a relatively high level of functional literacy (Bélanger and Tuijnman, 1997). The data also show that the older adults who are in the education process are relatively intensively included in the other spheres of social, cultural and political life.

In this relation the results of the Slovene research⁸ on prose, document and quantitative literacy draw attention to the necessity of a higher participation of adults in the education process (Mohorčič Špolar, 2001). The data from the research has shown that from the view of literacy some segments of the population are more endangered than the other. The measures for raising the level of adult literacy in Slovenia would be more effective if they were target oriented and would take into account the characteristics and needs of the marginalised groups. Amongst the endangered groups belong also the older adults (Hanžek and Gregorič, 2001, p. 117), who are becoming an increasingly socially isolated group due to their low level of literacy. The data also show that there are great differences in Slovenia between the younger and the older generation as regards their written achievements in all literacy fields; amongst the older adults there are at least three times as many adults on the lowest literacy levels when compared to the younger adults. Amongst the age groups the worst literacy level is recorded in the age group between 55 and 65; their average achievements are at the lowest levels on all three literacy fields: prose, document and quantitative literacy (Pečar, 2000). If we compare the results in Slovenia with the results in other countries that were involved in this survey,

⁸ The research *Participation of Slovenes in the adult education process* is a part of the international Adult Literacy Survey.

we can observe that from all of the countries Slovenia has the highest share of adults in the age group 56 to 65 on the first and second level of literacy, which also means that the difference in the quality of prose literacy (average written achievements) between the oldest and the youngest generation is amongst the largest. In Slovenia (when compared to other countries included in the survey) it holds even truer that the older adults with a completed secondary school did not manage to preserve their written skills that would be comparable to the written skills in the younger age groups. This points towards the fact that adults are not prepared for continuous lifelong learning and that there is little encouragement and poor possibilities for education in the environment in which the older adults live.

Older people are a group, that are more likely to start learning due to their 'joy of learning' compared to other age groups; it is surprising that their participation is so low. It seems that the possibilities for education, which would lure in the older adults are still insufficient, because the older adults do not participate in education regardless of the intrinsic motivation. In continuation, our research of the participation of older adults in the education process is focused on qualitative research in order to study the characteristics of the education of the older adults and the deeper reasons for their poor participation in the education process. The data are already gathered and findings are forthcoming.

In the light of critical educational gerontology it would also be necessary to reconsider the possibilities that are offered by the education in the sense of establishing social networks for the older adults and the possibilities for a more active integration of the older adults into their environment. Through education the number of social support sources would increase and at the same time education would encourage all four dimensions of social support, for it offers the older adults social companionship, emotional, instrumental and informational support.

Even though there are great cultural, political and legislation differences in relation to the older adults in the various countries there are certain endeavours in the EU, which are also important for the development of the education for the older adults in Slovenia. These are predominantly endeavours in offering the older adults to remain active even after they retire; the older adults should be encouraged to think about their individual development, personal growth and co-operation within the community. On the other hand changing the values of the general public is of extreme importance, at which every person should be accepted as an individual and not a member of a certain

age group. Within society we should be moving the gravity from the age differentiated towards an age integrated society and at the same time draw attention that the older adults will have to ensure an appropriate social status by themselves. This is a move from an understanding of the older adults as non-productive and economically dependent towards the understanding that the older adults could also become an economically active group. In this relation Moody proposes that in existing stratified society there should be a move towards an age integrated society in which people of all ages would have the possibility for education, work and leisure time (Moody, 1998). Some experts predict changed forms of social behaviour of the older adults, which will be recognised in pressure groups. These groups will endeavour to change policies – they will operate in syndicates or other forms of joint operation within local communities, in extreme cases they might even operate within the frame of social movements, which will try to re-establish a new understanding of ageing (Thurow in Pečjak, 1998).

The role of education of the older adults would thus be focused on changing the attitude of the entire society and especially the older adults towards old age, activating the funds of knowledge and experience of the older adults, obtaining new knowledge and skills so the older adults would find it easier to adjust to the new circumstances and encouraging individual development and personal growth. At this it is extremely important that the older adults are the prime movers and originators of the content and execution of the educational activities.

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OBRAZOVANJE STARIH U SLOVENIJI

Predmet ovog saopštenja je participacija starih u procesima obrazovanja i učenja. Osnovni cilj odnosio se na proučavanje aktuelnog stanja i mogućnosti obrazovanja starijih odraslih u Sloveniji. Želeli smo ispitati promene u participaciji starijih odraslih, njihovu motivaciju za obrazovanje i prepreke koje starijim odraslim osobama sprečavaju učešće u obrazovanju. Naši zaključci i teorijska uopštavanja zasnivaju se na sekundarnoj analizi kvantitativnih podataka, koje smo sakupili u tri istraživanja o participaciji odraslih u procesima obrazovanja tokom 1987, 1998. i 2004. godine. U ukupnim aktivnostima starijih odraslih obrazovanje zauzima sve više mesta i postaje sve značajnije. Ono je snažan mehanizam njihovog osnaživanja i smanjenja njihove socijalne isključenosti. U radu je posebno elaborirana teza da samo ono obrazovanje koje se bazira na kritičnoj obrazovnoj gerontologiji može smanjiti marginalnost starijih odraslih i stimulisati ih u socijalno-psihološkom smislu.

Ključne reči: motivi i prepreke za obrazovanje; obrazovna gerontologija, obrazovanje u trećem životnom periodu.

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EDUCATION FOR ALL IN SERBIA – DEVELOPMENT, PROGRESS AND ACTIVITIES

The paper is a brief study into the results in achieving the international goals of the Education for All Programme in Serbia – development, strategic documents, relevant statistical data, activities, agencies, priority areas and the results obtained by the end of 2005. The projects and measures designed to achieve the EFA goal in the adult education area are at the centre of the author's interest.

Key words: adult education, EFA, Education for All, UNESCO, Ministry of Education

As one of the first steps for development of EFA plans and implementation in Serbia, EFA National Forum was established in February 2002, when an all-encompassing attempt was made to reform education in Serbia – all levels and all areas. Serbian Government made a commitment to EFA goals achievement and made some serious steps towards development of national EFA strategy. Forum members represented various partners (representatives from state authorities, educational institutions, nongovernmental and civic organizations, expert bodies and organizations, publishers and so on) and EFA goals and Forum members were promoted in public. EFA Forum started cooperation with National Council for Education reform, thus trying to link EFA striving with overall reforms in the field of education, but also with transitional processes in other areas of society.

The Forum developed National Strategy for achievement of EFA goals, directing the efforts toward:

- Awakening public concern for EFA goals fulfillment,
- Mobilization of international, national and local partners in programs networking
- Integration of EFA Goals into the National strategy of development
- Linking all actors and organization that could foster achievement of quality education for all

The EFA National Plan was also developed, marking two main streams toward EFA objectives realization:

- “Main” stream intended to enable achievement of EFA goals by overall education system reconstruction and reform, making EFA goals achievable by the all-embracing, deep changes in the educational path, structure and content. This was done within the several main pillars of educational reform:
 - Democratization, where several measures were taken in order to democratize the whole educational system, institutions and educational praxis; on the other hand in 2002 the school subject “Civic Education” was introduced into curricula for elementary and secondary schools;
 - Decentralization was connected to previous issue and was especially focused on measures related to finances, to delegate responsibilities to local authorities and local schools; More space and flexibility was allowed in curricula development in order to meet needs of local communities;
 - Developing new curricula at all educational and school levels, especially in secondary vocational education, in order to overcome the gap between school provision and labor market needs;
 - Quality assurance and development of standards and outcomes, which was mainly in charge of newly established Center for Evaluation,
 - Reconstruction of schools, especially in poor areas and areas damaged by war and bombing campaign, provision of educational facilities and learning materials,
 - Training of teachers, one of the main issues of educational reforms, where hundreds of courses were organized and several thousand of teachers were trained.
- The other, “correlative” stream gave priority to the most vulnerable groups:
 - Children and adults in special needs, who were targeted in The Strategy for Inclusive Education which was developed,
 - Displaced persons and refugees, social group increased especially during the war and bombing campaign, being also in the previous period an important target group for many international and non-governmental organizations,

- Adults in lack of basic and functional education, who were the concern of one of the expert groups of Ministry of Education and Sports,
- Early childhood care and education were central issues of the series of new developed programs for preschool education,
- Youth policy concentrated on several main topics: social issues, availability of information, mobility, peer education, primary prevention and inclusion in decision making processes.

Since social and economic situation in the period after 2000 was rather difficult, it was obvious that demands and needs in many areas were huge and not all the EFA goals could have the same priority, but some of them have to be pointed out at least at the very beginning. For that reason preschool education and adult education was given highest rank – former because of vulnerability and special importance of this target group, later because of its direct relevance for economic reform and for democratisation of political life and whole society.

Adult education and training became so a matter of permanent interest and central issues of several governmental and non-governmental, local and international projects and programs. Ministry of Education and Sports gave a mandat to the expert group to develop a national strategy for adult education. Some of the expert's main proposals were directly linked to the EFA goals, such as:

- To enable real accessibility to literacy and basic education for adult population,
- To enhance the level and percentage of the adults with 2-A ISCED level,
- To bring into line adult education with quality standards for all,
- To create the system of functional basic adult education by combining and associating literacy and primary education with basic professional education and training.

At the UNESCO conference "Lifelong Learning in Europe: Moving towards EFA Goals and the CONFITEA V Agenda" held in Sofia, Bulgaria, in November 2002, the expert group presented Priority fields in adult education in Serbia as follows:

- Functional basic adult education
- Vocational education and training
 - developing models for active employment

- developing centres for continuing vocational education and training
- Education for democratic participation
- Education for elderly people

The draft of implementation plan was also made, as well as proposal of priority projects – short term and long term.

Political changes in 2004 have brought about several changes area of education. Educational policy was shifted to school system, children and youth and several newly established institutions and organizations in charged for different aspects of adult education were either closed or merged on one. Teacher training, which was one of the main preferences of previous Ministry of education was drastically reduced and new umbrella law on education was passed, thus merging laws and legal regulations concerning separate educational levels.

Dynamik of reform was slowed down, its extent was reduced and paradigm shift led to neglectedness of idea of lifelong learning and whole adult education system.

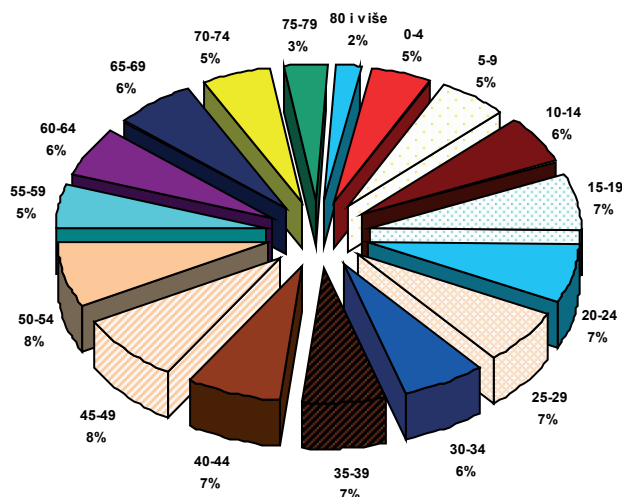
Adult education nowadays still represents an area where many players, local and international, are engaged, although it does not have priority rank in educational policy of Ministry of education. But it is an inevitable part of reforms, projects and programs in many other fields. Intensive regional and international cooperation fosters attempts to bring adult education and training up to date with European and international trends. For that reason, some players at national level are highly interested in reforming this sphere and “internationalization” of the problem, such as Ministry of Work and Employment, Ministry for Human Rights and Minorities etc. Their efforts are supported by numerous international organizations and projects, such as:

- CARDS (Community Assistance for Reconstruction, Development and Stabilization)
- EAR (European Agency for Reconstruction)
- World Bank
- Council of Europe
- IIZ/DVV (Institute for International Cooperation of the German Adult Education Association)
- GTZ (German Technical Cooperation)
- ETF (European Training Foundation)

Projects and programs developed within this cooperation deal with the estimated priorities, that are clearly derived from some demographical data. At the same time, those data show that adult education is still critical point, where further measures are needed, not just for the purpose of achieving related EFA goal.

There are several groups of such data:

- Serbia is one of the oldest countries in Europe. Percentage of involvement of those aged over 60 in the total population increased significantly in recent time and the number of children and youth is decreasing. According to 2002 census Serbia, without Kosovo and Metohia, had 7,498.0001 inhabitants with the following age structure:



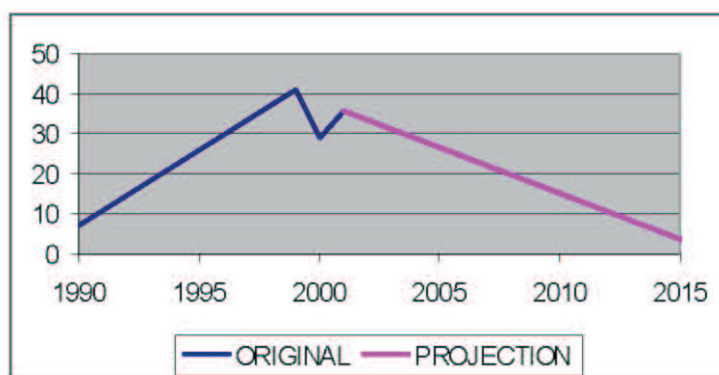
Source: Census 2002, Review per settlements, (Republic Statistic Bureau of Serbia) Republički zavod za statistiku Srbije, Beograd, pp.14-15.

- Educational structure of the population aged 15 and over shows rather bad educational structure. It is obvious and relevant for EFA goal that some 50% of population have education at elementary school level and less of that.

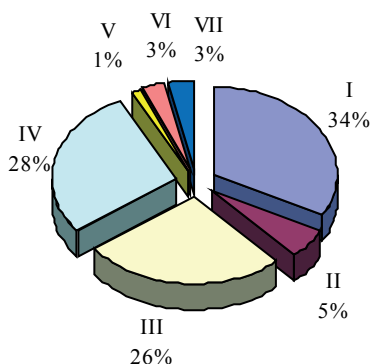
	1991		2002	
	N	%	N	%
Total in census	7007422	100	6321231	100
Without education	666819	9,5	357522	5,6
1-3 grades of elementary	205744	2,9	126127	2,0
4-7 grades of elementary	1439087	20,5	896847	14,2
Elementary education	1752672	25,0	1509462	23,9
Secondary education	2255782	32,2	2596348	41,1
Higher education	267226	3,8	285056	4,5
University education	354610	5,5	411944	6,5
Unknown	65482	0,9	137895	2,2

Source: Statistical Yearbook of Yugoslavia 2000, Federal Statistic Bureau, Belgrade, 2000, p. 61 and Unpublished data of the Federal Statistic Bureau

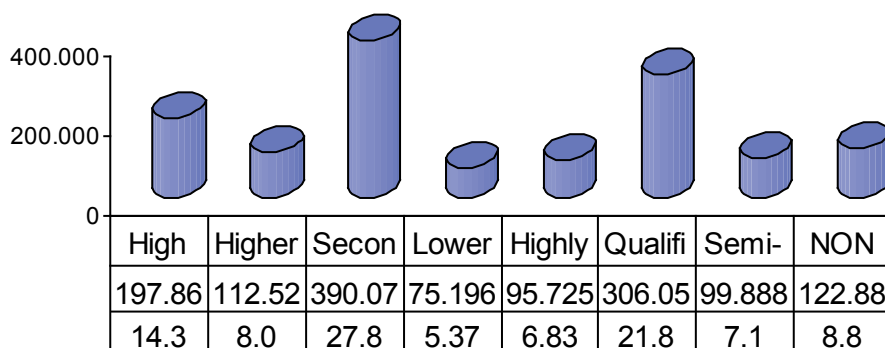
- Millennium Development goals report on Serbia 2002 gives an insight into proportion of population living with less than \$1 a day: "The share of poor population in total in 1990 was only 7,3%. But during 1990s the share of poor population increased dramatically and reached 40,9% in 1999. In 2000 the situation improved slightly. Still, in 2000 approximately one third of population of Serbia (2,8 million) was poor (with average monthly income lower than 30 USD). Among them, more than 18% (1,4 million) lived in extreme poverty with less than 20 USD per month. The situation is even worse as almost 700.000 refugees and IDPs are not included in these data. The poverty index increased from 14,1% to 36,5% in 2000. In the same period the poverty gap ration increased from 1,0% to 3,1% in 2000." (The Millennium Development Goals - How Much is Serbia on Track, 2002)



- The number of unemployed is dramatically rising, but their qualification structure (levels I - the lowest, level VII - the highest) shows also that their chances at labor market are extremely low and they are seriously in the risk of increasing poverty if their educational and qualification level stays the same.



- Even the educational structure of employed persons shows that proportion of qualified and non-qualified persons among employed people is significantly different of those in total population, which suggests that there are less chances for those workers to keep their jobs and positions in the world of work.



Source: Employees per education level 2003, Saopštenje ZP 12, Republički zavod za statistiku, Beograd, 2003, str.21.

Having those data in mind, social and economic reality of Serbia too, authorities and experts developed several important documents, which are all directly or indirectly related and relevant for achievement of EFA goal concerning reduction of illiteracy:

- The encompassing Educational law (Ministry of education and sports, 2004), that includes adult education, specifying more the problem of basic adult education,
- Law on work and Low on employment (Ministry of labor, employment and social policy, 2003),
- National employment strategy (Ministry of labor, employment and social policy, 2004), where 10 guidelines of EU from 2003 are accepted,
- Policy of development of adult education in the Republic of Serbia (Ministry of Education and Sports Republic of Serbia, EAR-Vocational Education and Training Reform Programme of EU, 2004),
- Needs and Possibilities of Adult Education in Serbia (European Training Foundation),
- Policy and strategy of accreditation and certification in the secondary vocational education and the continuous education of the adults in Serbia (Ministry of Education and Sports Republic of Serbia, EAR-Vocational Education and Training Reform Programme of EU, 2004),
- Concept of vocational education and training in Serbia (Ministry of education and sport, 2004),
- Policy and Strategy Development for VET in Serbia (Ministry of Education and Sports Republic of Serbia, EAR-Vocational Education and Training Reform Programme of EU, 2005),
- Strategy for poverty reduction (Government of Serbia, 2002), where the third main strategic groups of activity includes measures to assure access to education of the most vulnerable and poor groups in the society, and investments in education are suggested as one of the main measures in poverty reduction – it should be increased from 3,6 % of GDP in 2003 to 4,5 % GDP in 2010
- The Report “The Millennium Development Goals – How much is Serbia on Track”, 2002 estimates that Serbia is on track or has already achieved approximately half of defined goals.

Except those important documents, some concrete steps have been made in single areas, related to adult education in various forms and contents.

Education for elderly

Since older people represent a very large group in the society, there were always attempts to meet their needs not just in area of social care and health, but also in education and learning. The first so called University for the Third Age was founded in 1989 at the People's University "Braca Stamenkovic." Since 2002 the project was broadened and further 6 Universities for Third Age were established at already existing adult education institutions. From 2002 to 2004 more than 2.000 older persons visited long term courses of very different content. Furthermore, they participated in numerous regional and international exchanges, meetings, conferences and fairs. Several publications and participation in European project on education for elderly (PEFETE) is additional proof that this target group needs to be further subject of educational measures.

Education for democratic citizenship

The complexity of post-war society, its intercultural and interreligious character demands educational strategies and measures aiming to:

- supporting democratisation of the society and active citizenship,
- awareness-raising, tolerance,
- supporting interculturalism and peace,
- prevailing prejudices and stereotypes,
- conflict prevention, fostering cooperation.

Recent period was marked by efficient implementation of existing programs and creation of new programs, measures and activities directly targeting the poorest and socially most vulnerable groups (children, the elderly, disabled persons, refugees and internally displaced persons, the Roma, the rural population and the uneducated), particularly in the least developed regions. Several programs of that kind were developed, strategic documents of the Government of Serbia and concrete projects, many of them in non-governmental sector, with significant support of Council of Europe and other international organizations. The list of main activities includes:

- Strategies and policy papers (such as: Strategy for Integration of Roma, **National Strategy for Refugees and Displaced Persons**, Documents about the Process of Stabilisation and Association with EU and others concerning European partnership),

- Developed curriculum for Citizenship education, which was included into the elementary school program for the first time. More than 5.000 teachers were trained for implementation of this program,
- Network of regional projects and cooperation, especially among countries of Southeastern Europe and some EU countries,
- Accreditation of several NGO educational programs in the field of Education for democratic citizenship, peace and intercultural education, mediation etc.,
- Activities with different target groups: minorities, refugees, women, disabled, Roma,
- Events devoted to mentioned target groups and topics, such as big International conference „Education and Peace“ in 2004.

Vocational education and training

As almost all reports, strategic papers and plans suggest, achieving of EFA goals, Millennium goals, Poverty reduction strategy are directly connected not just with education, but with market need based educational provision, access to relevant vocational education, requalification, further education and training. Since reforms in economic sector were very dynamic, educational measures played an important role within all efforts, projects and programs. Some of the most important are:

- Several above mentioned national strategies and policy papers concerning the world of work, employment, market;
- Countless activities of international agencies and projects such as CARDS program, GTZ, ETF;
- Attempts made in order to support formal systems for adult education:
 - Developed network of 5 regional training centres,
 - Developed methodology for competency based curricula development and modular approach and ca 125 developed training modules,
 - Developed series of new labour market oriented vocational profiles

Achieving EFA goals - Best practice example - Project "Functional basic adult education for Roma"

Two years project Functional Basic Education for Roma, as one of the project of the Roma Decade, started in Serbia and Montenegro at the end of 2006. The project will be funded by Roma Education Fund, with Governments commitment for co-financing.

The main idea of functional basic education implies simultaneous acquisition of elementary education and the initial vocational instruction and training, that is, obtaining the first qualification. Project aims to develop both programs for elementary comprehensive education and for vocational training, both leading to recognized certificates, whereby the main principle is to develop target group and labor market oriented curricula.

Main partners on the project, which is going to be implemented as the pilot program within the legal regulations for elementary schools, are:

- Institute for Pedagogy and Andragogy
- National Council of the Roma
- Ministry of Education and Sport
- Adult Education Society

Strong cooperation is planed with following partners:

- Ministry of Work and Social Policy
- Ministry of Human and Minority Rights
- National Employment Services
- Poverty Reduction Office
- Elementary schools
- Regional training centers
- Local NGOs with experiences in Roma projects
- Local community

Problems the project wishes to address :

- Low level of literacy, general and profesional education of Roma
- Variety of barieras for the their inclusion
- High dropout
- Low enrolment into secondary education
- Huge gap between Roma needs and education systems offer
- Poor quality second –chance education
- Low Roma's motivation for education

Further aims of the project are to create and develop system of functional basic education of adults which will provide them better access to basic education and represent the second chance for Roma people, but even more enable them inclusion into the system of education and above that social inclusion and integration. Project tries also to increase their motivation for acquiring elementary and professional education, to reduce dropout rate in basic education and to increase employability among Roma. The project will thus contribute significantly to the poverty reduction and to achieving EFA goals in Serbia. Based on the projects results, it might be possible to suggest the model of functional basic education for further group of adults, especially for various marginalized groups, with the new legislative framework.

As the main activities developing two new curricula (for general and for vocational education) at the level of VII and VIII grade are planned, further on their piloting in 10 schools in several cities in Serbia, where there is significant Roma population, with ca 250 second-chance young adult students without completed basic education. Throughout project implementation a network of Roma coordinators will facilitate communication between Roma community and education institutions and motivate second-chance youth for education, trainings for teacher in implementation new curricula and in modern teaching methods adapted to the specific target group.

Expected outcomes should benefit achieving EFA goals in following way:

- By developing flexibel, qualitative, recognized and sustainable model of functional basic education for Roma, reducing their dropout percentage and incresing their level of literacy and education, as well as their access to education and learning, improving at the same time their employability and chances on the labor market,
- By developing such model of functional basic education that could be easily adapted for other vulnerable, marginalized, neglected or deprived groups, such as other national minorities, women,
- By developing mehanisms and ways for institutionalization of functional basic education, improving the whole system of classical elementary schools for adults, giving thus chance to all population of adults without completed basic education and without any or relevant vocational qulification.

The implementation of EFA strategy, both as „main stream „ and „correlative stream“ face various obstacles. For instance, changes, e.g. slowing down of overall reforms and especially of the dynamik of reforms in educa-

tional policy makes the possibility of achieving EFA goals in foreseen time very questionable. There are some measures and projects striving to that aim, but there is no systematic approach. The fact that EFA goals were included in several various strategies in different areas seemed as very positive at the beginning, since it could have made contribution of almost all actors to the EFA goals possible. But at the same time it was a danger, because slowdown in some areas did jeopardise the achieving of EFA goals.

The dynamik and character of transitional changes (economic, political, social) will directly influence achieving of EFA goals, and that development is not easy to be foreseen.

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OBRAZOVANJE ZA SVE U SRBIJI – UNAPREĐENJE, RAZVOJ I AKTIVNOSTI

Rad predstavlja kratku studiju rezultata u ostvarivanju međunarodnih ciljeva programa „Obrazovanje za sve” u Srbiji – razvoj, strateška dokumenta, važne statističke podatke, aktivnosti, nosioce, prioritetna područja i postignute rezultate do kraja 2005. godine. U centru interesovanja autora nalaze se projekti i mere posvećene ostvarivanju EFA cilja u području obrazovanju odraslih.

Ključne reči: Obrazovanje odraslih, EFA, Obrazovanje za sve, UNESCO, Ministarstvo prosvete

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REVIEWING EXISTING COLLABORATIVE SCRIPTS: A SELF-REGULATED LEARNING PERSPECTIVE

Self-regulated learning is a concept not well developed, yet. Simultaneously, this is the eventual target of every attempt to integrate technologies into the whole grades of education since a learner being able to manage the diffusion of enormous volume of information in information society knowing seems to be of top priority. The purpose of this study is to classify some of the mostly known learning scenarios according to their capacity to contribute to deliberately developed self-regulation. In order to augment this thought we preceded to a comparative study according to the main features of CSCL (Computer Supported Collaborative Learning) scenarios. The results of our study show that despite the fact that the existing scenarios respond to one or another component of the self-regulated learning cycle, they are still far from attaining the goal of transforming learners into independent beings, able to overcome the existing barriers for the attainment of the knowledge.

Keywords: *self-regulatory skill, educational scenarios, computer-supported collaborative learning, advanced learning technologies*

Introduction

21st century has imposed the necessity of overcoming the traditional view of education and using advanced learning technologies and especially applications of information and communication technologies and media (ICT&M) in education field (Ford, et al., 1996) to teach students the new skills and knowledge they need in order to respond to new challenges and become lifelong learners. The 1998 UNESCO World Education Report describes the radical implications the new information and communication technologies have for conventional teaching and learning. According to the same Report, the opportunity exists to harness this force and use it positively, consciously,

and with design in order to contribute to meeting defined learning needs. In order to cover this demand, what is needed is the knowledge of what an effective learner is and how they are equipped with to become lifelong learners.

Becoming an effective learner means that once you take the responsibility for your own learning you view your teachers more as resources and less as threatening figures. Teachers may transform the school classroom into a learning academy in which students struggle for attaining their own goals and individualize the instructed strategies in order to personalize the goals of the Curriculum. According to Zimmerman et al. (2003) “students who attend such a learning academy will gain more valuable than merely an appreciation of the importance of content matter; they will take with them a broad repertoire of study strategies, the self-regulatory capacity to apply and refine the strategies on their own, and the sense of self-efficacy to accept academic work as a personal challenge” (pg 137). The question which arises here is “how can we provide those learners with the skills to function effectively in a dynamic, information-rich and continuously changing environment?”

New learning environments need to be created in order for the students to be engaged learners, able to take greater responsibility for their own learning and constructing their own knowledge. In this new learning environment the student interacts with the teacher, the other students-peers, information resources and technology, engages in authentic tasks and is assessed through authentic performance. The environment provides the learner with chances of collaboration and opportunities to reflect on his own learning. In other words the supported environment is formulated in such a way that secures the self-regulated learning.

Features of self-regulated learning while teaching

Self-regulation lies at the core of successful and lifelong learning. Self-regulated learners tend to be active, reflective and productive in their own thinking and learning (Zimmerman & Kitsantas, 1996). Despite the fact that the self-regulation learning components seem to be clarified (such as goal setting, strategic planning, self-efficacy, outcome expectations, intrinsic interest/value, goal-orientation, self-instruction, imagery, attention focusing, task strategies, self-evaluation, causal attribution, self-satisfaction/affect and finally adaptive/defensive inferences) it has not been proven yet how the self-regulatory learning competence is grown deliberately for instance in a scholarly context.

Randi and Corno (2000) set the **five** features of teaching that afford opportunities for self-regulated learning while they found that they are the most useful components as having being identified previously by other instructional strategy or self-regulated learning theory and research.:

- The first feature is related to encouraging students to meet challenges (e.g. students choose the kind of assignment to be engaged or students match their skills with the opportunities they have and then choose one).
- The second feature concerns the way that the community is built (it is focused on collaboration and the manners of its implication e.g. explicit/implicit instructions for learning skills-roles, reaching consensus, respect for others ideas and work etc.).
- The third feature is referred to scaffolded strategy instruction (the learner starts as an observer of the teacher's model and ends up as an independent learner who applies the instructed strategy in his own way making an adaptive use).
- The fourth feature is related to diagnostic performance evaluation (such as peer evaluation or self-evaluation according to some known criteria; emphasis is spread on qualitative feedback).
- The last feature is referred to the Curriculum-embedded assessments (in order the teacher to assess what students can do and stretch them to their full potential through ongoing teacher assessment).



Figure 1. The features of teaching according to Randi & Corno (2000) in an attempt to provide self-regulated learning for students

As implied above, the development of the self-regulating skill demands a collaborative environment (virtual or not) in which learners interact with others and multiply their own models representations. Thus, their repertoire is broadened and they see the learning event from a differentiated perspective. Yet, they adapt their observed models' strategies to their affordances and

capacities in order to attain their goals. Besides, the constructivist perspective implies exactly this: learning is a double process happening firstly on the social level and later on the individual level. All the higher functions originate as actual relationships between individuals (Vygotsky, 1978).

Computer-supported collaborative learning scenarios

Proponents of collaborative learning hold that this method of learning can help students achieve higher-order and longer information retention than those who work independently. The collaborative learning offers students the chance to engage in discussion and debate, take responsibility for their own learning and hence obtain a critical thinking ability. According to Johnson and Johnson (1993) the volume of accumulated researches on collaborative learning strategies has made this pedagogical method not only the most popular teaching practice but also acquire a validity and generalisability rarely found in the education literature.

Koschmann (1996) defined computer-supported collaborative learning as an emerging paradigm for research in advanced learning technology that focuses on the use of information and communications technology and media as a mediational tool within collaborative methods of learning. Research until now has offered a series of computer-supported collaborative learning scenarios which are planned to be used in school classrooms utilizing and maximizing the benefits through using ICT&Ms tools. Essentially, they are cooperation scripts –usually formed for traditional classrooms- which have simply been transferred to computer settings (Rummer et al., 2003; Weinberger et al., 2004). However they are not so much effective as they seem to be inadequate in computer environments (Dillon and Gabbard, 1998). But what is a collaborative scenario? A collaborative scenario (or script) is a set of instructions regarding to how the group members should interact, how they should collaborate and how they should solve the problem (O'Donnell & Dansereau, 1992). They are designed to function effectively in advanced learning technology oriented environments. These educational scenarios are divided into two categories: the Computer Supported Collaborative Learning (CSCL) scenarios and the Computer Supported Collaborative Work (CSCW). CSCL and CSCW are both based on the premise that computer supported systems can support and facilitate group process and group dynamics in ways that are not achievable by face-to-face, but they are not designed to replace face-to-face communication. Their differences are fundamental for the sustained philosophy

and the support they provide for different domains: CSCW tends to focus on communication tactics while CSCL gives emphasis on the content of communication; yet the purpose of CSCW is to facilitate group communication while the purpose of CSCL is to support or scaffold students in learning together effectively and maximize the gained benefits. As it can be derived from the theoretical and practical approaches, CSCL is appropriate for the educational settings and the CSCW mainly for business settings. Consequently, the focus of our review is on CSCL scenarios as they are used in educational settings. Moreover, a CSCL scenario without an upper goal provides trivial importance to the educational practices. This means that applying a CSCL scenario in educational settings needs a theoretical basis on which it is based on and a present perspective for the future learner or employee.

This review arose from a main question pertinent to designing, developing and teaching self-regulatory skill through computer supported courses: In what way should the CSCL scenarios be developed in order to facilitate the proximal self-regulated learners? How much closed are the existed CSCL scenarios from developing a learner like this? What can we learn from this review for future CSCL scenarios building? This is asked from the point of view of researchers who have studied the computer supported collaborative scenarios and offered new perspectives in educational view. Yet, it is a question needed to be answered from designing point in order to fit theoretical perspectives with educational needs. Ultimately, it is asked from the teachers who despite the fact that they are informed about the necessity of transforming their students from passive to active and responsible learners, they do not know practically how to proceed.

Method of the Review

The relevant literature for this review is found in many disciplines: in journals, in www, in communications, all grades of education, educational technology, as well as in the subject disciplines. Many articles advocate in favor of advanced learning technology in all grades of education via educational scenarios.

The primary sources of literature were followed by ERIC (a search engine) searches using keywords from the articles identified in the journals articles and in previous literature reviews. Yet, the theoretical foundations and researches on self-regulated learning were included in the studied literature. This review also includes research from the developing CSCL research com-

munity despite the fact that this kind of research has only recently turned to online learning.

This is not a complete review of all CSCL scenarios which are designed or applied in real classrooms and research centers around the world. This seems impossible taking into account that hundreds or thousands of teachers, researchers and theoreticians test a new learning scenario in every didactic hour. What was examined in this review is how much closed or not from establishing the self-regulated learning the best known practices of learning scenarios are. CSCL scenarios reviewed here will be discussed in five main fields according to Randi's and Corno's research (2000) on the main components of teaching for self-regulated Learning. The selection of the following CSCL scenarios has been done according to the CSCL-related research references. All of them are proposed for co-operation in educational settings. Since the co-operative criterion is considered to be the main facilitator between the expert's model display and the adaptive use of learned skill, it is understood why we chose co-operative scripts (Zimmerman, 2003).

Description of four distinguished CSCL scenarios

The "CaMILE" (Collaborative and Multimedia Interactive Learning Environment) scenario, developed by Guzdial and Turns (2000) is a scenario for supporting learners working in a discussion forum. Firstly, learners have to define the type of message they want to send by selecting among five alternatives:

- new idea,
- rebuttal,
- revision,
- comment and
- question

Also, they can paste new prompts into their note as a support of their alternative. If the participation is low then a new discussion is started but the teacher who attends on the discussion may provide learners with an "anchor" which links them with a web-page from where learners may start their discussion. The web-page may be created by the teacher and includes a topic for discussion. This capability is referred to as "anchored collaboration". This scenario is designed rather for the knowledge acquisition than for problem solving. The first feature of encouraging learners to meet challenges is fulfilled

through their free choice of the type of message they want to send for discussion. Concerning the second feature, namely how the community is built, it is not clear from the description of the scenario. Learners insert into the forum but as a whole mass and not in groups. The distribution of roles occurs through the learner's choice of the type of message as it is characterized by the learner (e.g. if he selects the "comment" button automatically he is defined as the commentator by the system). The scaffolded learning may be implied but not stated clear. Challenging learners to discuss a topic, they're engaged in playing multiple roles and thus are indirectly led to the learning. Nevertheless, there is no exhibited model to imitate its function. The fourth feature of diagnostic performance evaluation may be implied in a second level of analysis. Starting a new discussion after an observed and recorded low participation is a sign of some kind of evaluation. This evaluation is mostly referred to as quantitative and not qualitative data. The anchor may be a component of qualitative feedback of the evolving discussion since it provides learners with information necessary to be included in the topic. But the main point is to enrich the dialogue and not contribute to individual knowledge acquisition taking into account the particular features of everyone's learning capability. The fifth feature of Curriculum-embedded assessment is not referred to as a main element of this scenario and not implied.

The Universante is a CSCL scenario which was used to teach health to the Universities' community in four countries (Berger et al., 2001). The students were divided into five thematic groups of 16 participators (four from each country):

- AIDS,
- cancer,
- infectious diseases,
- cardiovascular diseases and
- trauma related to accidents.

Firstly, the group was divided in two sub-groups in which a different clinical case of the same theme was distributed. Each sub-group discussed about a topic related to the public health in a different forum space. The role of the tutor was to observe and stimulate the sub-group to discuss other related aspects of the topic. A face-to-face debriefing meeting with all participants of the same topic from the same country took place in order to synthesize the different findings they found for their country facts. Then they entered this list in a database through an online form. All fact lists were then discussed trying to recognize the common elements and the differences among countries facts.

The teacher drew the attention on the methodological aspects of the collected data and lastly the students of each group proposed a solution to the problem they coped with. This scenario presents an important difference in comparison with other scenarios since it includes face-to-face activities. The first feature of encouraging students to meet challenges through the free choice of the assignment they would commit to not responded to due to the fact that the theme was given to the participators with no negotiating possibility. Concerning the building of the community there is strong evidence that the community is built on an assignment basis which is focused on collaborative activities. Albeit there are no strict instructions about the different roles of the contributors in the sub-group, there is a conspicuous difference between the roles of each sub-group. The result of each sub-group work is strongly related and influenced by other's work. Reaching consensus is a main feature in that work in order to perform shared work results. The third feature of scaffolded-learning is not corresponded except from the methodological hints coming from the observer-teacher who attends the development of the work. The last two features of diagnostic performance evaluation and Curriculum-embedded assignments are not captured in this scenario. It seems that the upper goal of this scenario is to have the students engaged in collaborative activities from all over the world participators and not the evaluation of their project results.

The "learning protocol" scenario by Pfister and Muhlplfordt (2002) is a chat-based scenario (it is designed for a synchronous learning environment) in which three to five learners and one tutor participate in higher-order activities. The purpose of this scenario is to improve learning outcomes by imposing structure on the learning discourse and this is done by a referencing function, a typing function and a predefined sequence of contributions. The learner's task is to discuss topics from geology and philosophy. The learner firstly chooses the type of message he wants to refer to and then he characterizes the type of message –question, comment, explanation-he sends to the shared chat window. Each learner's participation is defined by the system and thus if one learner wants to contribute he can not if it is not his turn. Only the tutor may participate answering to one's question while chat windows are blocked. The first feature of encouraging students to meet challenges is fulfilled through the freedom that the learner has to select the type of message he wants to refer to. However, it is not explicit how a learning community is built. It is rather externally imposed by the system and it is not changed. The learner functions independently and the tutor's model is obvious only when a question arises. However, the learner is exposed to the peers' models and is asked to make a

comment to their given explanations. The system does not provide any further support for the individualization of the committed knowledge. According to the fourth criterion of the diagnostic performance evaluation there is no such evidence. Peer's evaluation seems to happen more internally –through the comments on other's contribution- than externally. There is a further ambiguity concerning the measurement of learning effects by means of a standard knowledge test.

The Arguegraph scenario (Jermann and Dillenbourg, 2003) was implemented as a part of TECFA (Technologies de Formation et Apprentissage) Virtual Campus, a learning and communication platform used by students on a daily basis. It focuses on the knowledge or conceptual change as a result from the argumentation attempts. The scenario starts with a multiple-choice questionnaire to be answered from which students are classified by a category of opponent values, principles, and beliefs etc in a graph. According to this graph students are paired so that the average distance between them to be maximized. After that they sit together in front of the computer and answer the same questionnaire again having to agree on a single answer and accompanying their final choice with an argument to support it. Both of them have access to other's previous answers. All arguments are collected by the system and displayed in a web-page. This is used by the teacher in order to make a synopsis. Lastly, the students are asked to answer a question taking into account the total arguments that were made by the classmates. In this scenario the first feature of encouraging students to meet challenges through their choice of the kind of assignments they will be engaged in, is not described. In contrast, it is imposed by a predetermined questionnaire including specific items. This is observed during the first phases of the scenario but radically changes in the last phase: a particular question must be designated to be answered taking into account the rest of the community members' arguments. However, it does not capture the spirit of the responsibility on students' own learning. The second feature concerning the way the community is built is perfectly described here since the students have to collaborate in pairs in order to reach a consensus and this includes an essential respect for other's ideas. The scaffolded strategy instruction feature is described in a way that a student starts their effort individually, continuously having to take into account others' arguments and lastly makes an adaptive use of the recorded arguments. No matter how the conceptual change comes (either through the peer's or the teacher's model) what matters is the student's exposition to an instructed concept. The fourth feature of diagnostic performance evaluation is indirectly described while a student

has access to their peer's previous answers in order to evaluate their outlook on a topic. The last feature of curriculum-embedded assessment is not clearly described since the role of the teacher is supporting for the formulation of the groups and facilitating the précis.

Conclusions

Looking at the presented CSCL scenarios and the results of our comparative study we come to the following conclusions: What can be regarded as the most noticeable commonality of the studied scenarios is that they facilitate the building of the community and the students' taking responsibility of their own learning. Given the importance of building a community in a computer-supported learning environment one may realize the predominance of this matter. According to Harasim (2000): "The principle of collaborative learning may be the single most important concept for online networked learning, since this principle addresses the strong socio-affective and cognitive power of learning on the Web Collaboration provides the social glue of a community that engages learners and motivates them to participate" (pg. 53). The evaluation and the assessment aspects of learning have not been particularly emphasized. Keeping in mind the difficulties arising from the development of such an environment which supports the formative evaluation (neither a holistic approach was recorded) of a process of learning one does reason the absence of this section. The most impressive of all is that no assessment is estimated in the description of the scenarios. Despite the fact that every separated scenario is based on a Curriculum course, there was no scenario found that might include some kind of assessment. At least, it is not referred to the description of a scenario. It may stem from the definition of the term as it describes how learners should collaborate in order to attain a goal. However, it is considered as a necessary part of the process of collaboration since the attribution of collaboration must be estimated and stimulate future collaborations. Consequently, one of the most important phases of the self-regulated learning (the evaluation and the assessment of the whole process) is not covered at all even if this attributes causal significance to the results. It seems that the starting-point is so much absorbent that it leaves no space for development for other parts of learning. Supporting a reflective process is so much vital as the same concept of effective learning. A few attempts without a feedback or without being aware of your progress give rise to meaningless learning. Concerning the strategy instruction, which is placed in the middle of the process, only the Arguegraph scenar-

io does contribute to an adaptive use of the instructed knowledge through the capability a learner has to implement the implicit knowledge they obtained. Thus diagnosis is one of the key issues in CSCL scenarios. A peer would be interested in being informed about their or others' progress through an assignment. As a result, much more emphasis should be given to this point.

Table 1. The comparative synopsis of the studied CSCL scenarios

	Meeting Challenges	Building Community	Scaffolded-Strategy Instruction	Diagnostic Performance Evaluation	Curriculum-Embedded Assessment
CaMILE	√				
Universante		√			
Learning Protocol	√				
Arguegraph		√	√	√	

Discussion

The upper goal of this study was to review some of the most known scenarios in computer-supported collaborative learning with reference to developing self-regulating skills. The growing development of the advanced learning technologies over the last two decades cajoles into developing a new kind of learner –future citizen- able to overcome the huge amount of the conceded information and consciously focus on a target. Moreover, the rapid change of the financial state in most countries –due to the later phenomenon of globalization- demands new skills for citizens that are characterized by flexibility, adaptation and mobility. This kind of citizen must be grown through analogous educational settings from the first years of their scholarship. Equipping learners with self-regulated strategies will provide them with necessary techniques for becoming independent thinkers and lifelong learners.

The development of such a new learner seems to pass through the integration of communication and information technologies and media into the educational system in a schema of educational scenarios. These scenarios should be based on some principles related to encouraging learners to meet the challenges, building a community with common/shared goals, scaffolded strategy instruction, diagnostic performance evaluation and curriculum-embedded assessment. In order to illustrate how the CSCL should be structured

–from a self-regulating perspective- we studied a few dominant CSCL scenarios and it was ascertained that there is a long way till we reached the goal of developing a self-regulated learner. Main topics such as evaluation and assessment seem to be excluded from the CSCL scenarios while others such as building community and scaffolded strategy instruction are vague. Having on our mind the main principles that a CSCL scenario should fulfill in order to contribute to self-regulated learning outcomes, we –as researchers, teachers or designers- will be able to write/design more effective and powerful learning scenarios to facilitate the group and individual learning. Given the fact that the relevant literature reveals a decided lack of an explicit theoretical foundation and that research about distance education is in its infancy, there is much research to be done to better understand the capacity of distance teaching and learning (of which the main core is CSCL scenarios). There are numerous issues and areas of current research with important outstanding questions.

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RAZMATRANJE POSTOJEĆIH SCENARIJA SARADNJE: PERSPEKTIVA SAMOUSMERENOG UČENJA

Samousmereno učenje još je nedovoljno razvijen koncept. Istovremeno, to je krajnji cilj svakog pokušaja integrisanja novih tehnologija u sve stepene obrazovanja, jer da bi onaj koji uči mogao da izađe na kraj sa rasprostranjenošću ogromne količine informacija u informatičkom društvu, čini se da je najvažnije znanje. Svrha ove studije je klasifikovanje nekih od najpoznatijih scenarija učenja po tome koliko mogu da doprinesu postepeno razvijenom samousmeravanju. Da bismo razradili ovu misao, pristupili smo komparativnoj studiji u skladu sa osnovnim karakteristikama scenarija učenja kroz saradnju pomoću računara (CSCL). Rezultati naše studije pokazuju kako uprkos činjenici da postojeći scenariji reaguju na neku od komponenti ciklusa samousmerenog učenja, još uvek su daleko od postizanja cilja, a to je pretvaranje onih koji uče u nezavisna bića koja mogu da prevaziđu postojeće barijere u sticanju znanja.

Ključne reči: *spособnost samousmeravanja, scenariji nastave, učenje kroz saradnju pomoću računara, napredne obrazovne tehnologije*

EVROPSKE DIMENZIJE OBRAZOVANJA STARIH: HOLANDIJA – SLOVENIJA - ITALIJA

U radu su prikazani rezultati komparativnog istraživanja obrazovanja starih u Holandiji, Sloveniji i Italiji. Istraživanjem se nastojalo doći do sličnosti i razlika, a na osnovu njih i do opštih zakonitosti koje postoje u obrazovanju starih u odnosu na koncepciju i cilj, zatim, nosioce obrazovanja starih, programe i ciljnu grupu kojoj su namenjeni, kao i u odnosu na ulogu koju ima država i načine finansiranja ovog područja obrazovanja.

Rezultati pokazuju da se susrećemo sa narastajućim potrebama starije generacije, ali i potrebama društva u kojima će stari ljudi činiti sve veći deo populacije. Te potrebe uticale su na oblikovanje raznih institucionalnih i programskih rešenja, ali koja su se uglavnom razvijala spontano i sporadično u okviru obrazovne prakse. Ona su uticala na pokušaje oblikovanja koncepcije, ciljeva i principa na kojima bi se razvijalo ovo područje. Ipak, njih još uvek ne prate u dovoljnoj meri adekvatna sistemska rešenja, obrazovne inicijative namenjene starima ne nailaze na dovoljnu javnu i državnu podršku, što se naročito ogleda u nepostojanju zakonske regulative i finansijske potpore. Razvoj ovog područja ograničen je upravo ovim poteškoćama i njihovo rešavanje predstavlja budući okvir obrazovanja starih u Evropi.

Ključne reči: obrazovanje starih, koncepcija, cilj, nosioci, programi, ciljne grupe, uloga države, finansiranje

Uvod

Nasuprot tradicionalnim shvatanjima koja su obrazovanje smatrala pripremom za život, koncepcija permanentnog obrazovanja naglašava njegov značaj u odnosu na čitav životni vek. Nastojanjima da se ova koncepcija u potpunosti ostvari ističe se i potreba obrazovanja u poznim godinama. Iako prvobitno razmatrano u funkciji pripreme za penzionisanje, a zatim u funkciji ispunjavanja viška slobodnog vremena, brojne promene u modernom društvu uticale su na to da se obrazovanje danas posmatra kao sredstvo za konstruk-

tivno i kompetentno rešavanje životnih problema starih ljudi (detaljnije videti: S. Medić, 1991, str. 64). Pored toga, demografske promene u zemljama razvijenog sveta, pa samim tim i u većini zemalja Evrope, koje idu u pravcu povećanja broja starih ljudi u ukupnoj populaciji, čine da obrazovanje starih dobije i sve veći društveni značaj. Bez obrazovanja starih, evropske zemlje rizikuju da se suoče sa povećanim brojem zavisnih, nezadovoljnih i isključenih ostarelih građana. Samim tim, našle su se pred novim zadatkom koji se odnosi na iznalaženje načina da se iskoriste ljudski resursi poznog životnog doba, da bi stariji građani ne samo mogli da vode ispunjen život, već i da nastave da igraju aktivnu ulogu u socijalnom i ekonomskom razvoju svoje zemlje.

U Evropi je u toku proteklih decenija razvijen određen broj različitih inicijativa u obrazovanju starih, od kojih su neki uspešniji, a neki manje uspešni od drugih. U nekim zemljama, uglavnom onim u zapadnoj Evropi, obrazovanje starih je široko rasprostranjeno, dok je u drugim zemljama, naročito u južnom i istočnom delu Evrope, na niskom nivou razvoja i prepoznaje se kao realativno nov koncept. Upravo ta raznolikost uslovlja je da se prilikom određivanja osnovnih jedinica istraživanja opredelimo za tri zemlje iz tri različita evropska područja: severozapada: Holandija, istoka: Slovenija i juga: Italija. Cilj istraživanja je ispitivanje sličnosti i razlika koje se javljaju u obrazovanju starih u tim zemljama, dok se posebni zadaci odnose na utvrđivanje sličnosti i razlika koje su vezane za pojedine indikatore predmeta istraživanja: koncepciju, cilj, nosioce, ciljne grupe, programe obrazovanja starih, ulogu države i finansiranje ovog područja obrazovanja. Osnovni metodološki pristup u ovoj studiji je komparativni, budući da su glavni istraživački naponi usmereni na upoređivanje suštinskih karakteristika obrazovanja starih u odabranim evropskim zemljama. Osnovni izvor podataka činili su nacionalni izveštaji o obrazovanju starih pisani za potrebe projekta EU o obrazovanju starih (*Pan-European Project for Education of the Elderly*) koji su predstavljeni na web stranici <http://www.pefete.wz.cz>. U daljem tekstu nećemo posebno napominjati ovaj izvor, podrazumevajući da ukoliko nije naznačeno drugačije, navedeni podaci dolaze upravo iz ovih nacionalnih izveštaja.

Kratak osvrt na početke obrazovanje starih u Holandiji, Sloveniji i Italiji

Može se reći da je obrazovanje starih u Holandiji otpočelo krajem sedamdesetih pojavom diskusionih grupa (*discussion groups*), kojima su usledili kružoci (*study circles*) i treninzi pamćenja (*memory trainings*), koji su se poja-

vili osamdesetih godina. Devedesetih godina participacija seniora narasla je u svim oblastima obrazovanja. Najpopularniji postali su kursevi kompjutera, interneta i kursevi stranih jezika. Pored ovoga, Holandija ima jaku tradiciju u obrazovanju budućih penzionera tj. kurseva pretpenzionisanja (*preretirement courses*) koji su se pojavili šezdesetih godina, a i dalje su veoma aktuelni. Poselednjih nekoliko godina narasla je i popularnost treninga za volonterski rad, posebno aktiviranje kućnih poseta u koje se takođe uključuju stari građani (kao što je na primer program „*elderly for the elderly*“). Aktuelni su i učenje putem biografija (*biographically learning*), putem priča (*story telling*), projekti međugeneracijskog obrazovanja (*intergenerational projects*) i aktivnosti koje se odnose na učenje putem sećanja (*reminiscence activities*).

Obrazovanje starih u Sloveniji ne predstavlja nov koncept, već naprotiv, neke obrazovne organizacije i institucije pojavile su se mnogo ranije nego u mnogim drugim zemljama Evrope. Inicijator obrazovnih aktivnosti za stare u Sloveniji predstavlja Univerzitet za treće doba (*Univerza za tretje življensko obdobje*), koji je u Centru za strane jezike u Ljubljani 1984. godine izrastao iz kružoka za starije ljude koji su želeli da uče francuski jezik. Posle toga, po ugledu na ovaj, nastali su i kružoci za proučavanje drugih sadržaja, a nakon toga ideja se proširila što je dovelo do osnivanja univerziteta za treće doba i u drugim slovenačkim gradovima (D. Savićević, 2004, str. 110). Osnivanje ovih univerziteta, a zatim i sličnih organizacija koje se bave obrazovanjem starih, dalo je i značajan doprinos didaktičkom promišljanju učenja starih, posebno saznanjima vezanim za ispitivanje obrazovnih potreba, participaciju i motivaciju starijih polaznika, uloge mentora i animatora u učenju i sl. (Ibidem, str. 111).

U Italiji, obrazovanje starih se vezuje za osnivanje Univerziteta za treće doba ili možda tačnije Univerziteta za starije doba (*Old Age Universities*). Do njihovog osnivanja došlo je oko 1980. godine, inspirisanog filozofijom Popularnih univerziteta koji u Italiji postoje od 19. veka.

Na osnovu ovog kratkog pregleda o tome kako je otpočelo i kako se odvijalo obrazovanje starih u Holandiji, Sloveniji i Italiji možemo zaključiti da je obrazovanje starih relativno nova oblast interesovanja. Takođe se moglo videti da se počeci obrazovanja starih vezuju za pojedinačne inicijative određenih programa, koji su verovatno posledica ispoljenih interesovanja određene grupe starijih ljudi, okupljenih oko određenog sadržaja. Ovome su usledili organizovani i institucionalizovani oblici obrazovanja namenjeni starima koji počinju da se razvijaju najpre u okviru neformalnog sektora.

Demografski podaci

Na osnovu podataka o broju starih u ukupnoj populaciji (tabela br. 1) može se reći da je procenat starog stanovništva u prikazanim zemljama dovoljno visok da ukaže na potrebu preispitivanja globalnog društvenog odnosa prema starima. Svakako, u tom procesu ne sme se zanemariti obrazovanje starih koje, s jedne strane, predstavlja cilj po sebi, zadovoljavajući rastuće potrebe nove generacije starih ljudi, a sa druge, predstavlja značajan i nezaobilazan instrument u postizanju širih društvenih ciljeva.

Tabela br. 1: Procenat stanovništva sa 65 i više godina starosti u ukupnoj populaciji

Zemlja	% populacije 65+
Holandija	13.9%
Slovenija	14,7%
Italija	18,8%

Uzimajući u obzir i demografska predviđanja koja u pomenitim zemljama pokazuju sličan trend, naime, idu u pravcu sve većeg povećanja broja starih i produžetka ljudskog veka, obrazovanje starih proširuje svoju ulogu i zauzima značajno mesto u projekcijama budućeg razvoja evropskih zemalja. Promene su toliko brze i velike da će obrazovanje starih najverovatnije morati i da promeni svoj karakter.

Koncepcija obrazovanja starih

Obrazovanje odraslih u Holandiji oslanja se na koncepciju permanentnog obrazovanja. Jedno od glavnih stremljenja u Holandiji jeste da opšte obrazovanje odraslih postane dostupno starijim odraslim građanima. Samo iz specifičnih razloga organizuju se specifične obrazovne aktivnosti za stare. S obzirom na ova saznanja, iako se u izvorima eksplicitno ne navodi, može se pretpostaviti da obrazovanje starih čini deo obrazovanja odraslih u koncepcijskom smislu. Savetodavno telo pri vladi pod nazivom „*The Dutch Council for Education*“ u skorije vreme objavilo je izveštaj pod nazivom „*Making work out of lifelong learning*“ u kome se zalaže za doživotno tj. permanentno (*lifelong*) i široko zasnovano (*life wide*) obrazovanje. „*Lifelong learning*“ ima zadatak da doprinese socijalnoj i građanskoj kompetentnosti na svim uzrastima, dok „*life*

wide“ podrazumeva formalno, neformalno i informalno učenje i obrazovanje u njihovoj međuzavisnosti. Iako obrazovanje odraslih proklamuje parola „obrazovanje za sve na svim nivoima“, obrazovanje starih u Holandiji je kako se navodi u izveštaju, pretežno neformalno.

Kao i u Holandiji, osnovna obrazovna filozofija i osnovni princip na kome se zasniva obrazovna praksa u Sloveniji jeste koncepcija permanentnog obrazovanja i učenja. Autori izveštaja navode da slovenačko društvo polako postaje društvo učenja i saznavanja (*learning and knowledge society*). Iz ovakvih postavki proizlazi da su korisnici obrazovanja deca od predškolskog uzrasta pa sve do ljudi u trećem životnom dobu. Prema statističkim podacima (iz: Statistical Yearbook Republic of Slovenia, p. 622) udeo odraslih u formalnom obrazovanju izgleda ovako: 22,9% je onih od 20-29 godina starosti, 3,5% onih od 30-39 i samo 0,4% onih koji imaju 40 i više godina. Očigledno, stari u većoj meri participiraju u neformalnim oblicima obrazovanja. Autori izveštaja čak navode da se stari izgleda „bolje osećaju kao učesnici obrazovnih aktivnosti organizovanim isključivo za njih, gde svi članovi imaju godina koliko i oni“. U vezi sa ovim, oni izražavaju priličnu zabrinutost jer smatraju da se obrazovanje starih konstantno i uporno ali pogrešno smatra aktivnošću starih bez ikakvih posledica po druge socijalne grupe i generacije. Trenutno obrazovanje starih i stari sami ne smatraju se ili se smatraju u maloj meri subjektima socijalnog, kulturnog i ekonomskog napretka društva. Tako, obrazovanje starih ne čini deo razvojne politike zemlje. Ono je uvršteno u nacionalnu i lokalne obrazovne strategije, kao i nacionalnu strategiju socijalne zaštite, ali ne i u druge.

Obrazovanje odraslih u Italiji oslanja se na Memorandum o doživotnom učenju (*The Memorandum of Lifelong Learning*) koji je donela Evropska komisija za obrazovanje. Memorandum prepoznaje formalno, neformalno i informalno učenje kao moguće načine i puteve obrazovanja i učenja. Formalno obrazovanje u Italiji prepoznaje se kao veoma bitan segment obrazovanja, ali je uglavnom namenjeno radno sposobnom stanovništvu, koje traži legalno priznate sertifikate i kvalifikacije upotrebljive na tržištu rada. Tako, kada govorimo o obrazovanju starih, neformalno obrazovanje dobija veći značaj, pogotovu što u okviru ovog sektora u Italiji postoje ustanove koje su isključivo namenjene obrazovanju odraslih i obrazovanju starih.

Objašnjavanje suštine i prirode obrazovanja starih, kao što smo mogli da uočimo u sve tri zemlje, počinje pozivanjem na koncepciju permanentnog obrazovanja i učenja. Prirodno, ključni argument isticanja značaja obrazovanja starih svakako jeste onaj koji kaže da doživotnog ili permanentnog učenja, pa i obrazovanja nema bez obrazovanja starih. Da bismo govorili o doživotnom

procesu onda u taj proces moraju biti uključene sve generacije, od najmlađih pa do onih najstarijih. U daljim objašnjenjima vidljivo je i pozivanje na određeni dokument ili memorandum posvećen permanentnom učenju. Problem koji u tome vidimo jeste to što ostaje nejasno da li se u njima eksplicitno navodi obrazovanje starih ili se ono samo podrazumeva, jer ako je tako, ne možemo da ne primetimo, da je od prostog podrazumevanja veoma tanka nit do njegovog zanemarivanja. U skladu sa koncepcijom permanentnog obrazovanja, kao osnovni putevi obrazovanja starih navode se formalno, neformalno i informalno obrazovanje i učenje. Ipak, u svakoj od ovih zemalja navode se jasni podaci da su stari pretežno korisnici neformalnog obrazovanja, a ujedno u veoma malom procentu koriste formalno obrazovanje kao način sticanja znanja.

Obrazovanje starih ni u jednoj zemlji na predstavlja zaseban sistem, već čini deo sistema obrazovanja odraslih. Štaviše, u Holandiji je prisutna težnja da se obrazovanje starih integriše u obrazovanje odraslih, u Italiji su institucije namenjene obrazovanju starih ujedno namenjene i obrazovanju odraslih i obrnuto, a u Sloveniji je izražena zabrinutost u vezi prisutnog izdvajanja obrazovanja starih u institucionalnom smislu, smatrajući da to udaljava sistemski rešenja od konceptijskih zamisli i proklamovanih ciljeva obrazovanja starih. U vezi sa ovim, trebalo bi pomenuti mišljenja naših autora, autoriteta u ovoj oblasti, koji smatraju da pravo starih na obrazovanje može da dobije sistematsku i institucionalnu podršku samo ako postoji dvojak sistem obrazovanja. Jedan se odnosi na mogućnost uključivanja treće generacije u institucije i oblike formalnog i neformalnog obrazovanja mladih i odraslih, a drugi podrazumeva izgrađivanje specifičnog sistema za obrazovanje starih (S. Medić, 1991, str. 65). Prema ovim shvatanjima, jednostranost sa kojom smo se susreli u koncepcijama i sistemskim rešenjima obrazovanja starih, uskraćuje starima mogućnost zadovoljavanja obrazovnih potreba i vodi ka njihovoj marginalizaciji.

Cilj obrazovanja starih

U Holandiji se govori o principima obrazovanja starih, dok je naše mišljenje da se u stvari govoreći o njima može govoriti o ciljevima. Koncept obrazovanja starih u Holandiji čvrsto je baziran na principima snaženja, razvoja kompetencija, socijalne participacije i integracije. Kada govorimo o snaženju (*empowerment*), to znači da obrazovanje ima za cilj da omogući starijim odraslim osobama da uživaju u učenju, da budu zadovoljni sopstvenim postignućem i da dostignu određeni nivo samopouzdanja u odnosu na njega. Razvoj kompetencija (*competence development*) podrazumeva da putem obrazovanja

stari mogu razviti (što verovatno podrazumeva sticati i nova i poboljšati postojeća) znanja i veštine. Socijalna participacija (*social participation*) se odnosi na socijalne kontakte koji se ostvaruju u procesu obrazovanja. Na obrazovanje se u tom smislu gleda kao na motivacionu snagu i sredstvo socijalne participacije, jer stupajući u obrazovni proces pojedinac upoznaje nove ljude i stvara nova prijateljstva, što za pojedine starije osobe može značiti i spečavanje socijalne izolacije i smanjenje osećanja usamljenosti. Integracija (*integration*) u ovom kontekstu označava prihvatanje pojedinca ili grupe ljudi u širu društvenu zajednicu u kojoj oni mogu da odigraju značajnu ulogu. Obrazovanje se vidi kao uslov aktivnog građanstva (*active citizenship*) u današnjem društvu. Kada se sve ovo sabere, obrazovanje starih bi trebalo da podrži proces promena koje se javljaju kao posledica starenja, da osnaži stare osobe da koriste i razviju svoje kompetencije, kao i da uzmu učešće i participiraju u društvu što je duže moguće (C. Mercken, 2004, str. 53).

Što se Slovenije tiče, obrazovanje starih se povezuje sa kvalitetom života (D. Savićević, 2004, str. 110). To se može videti kroz principe. U izveštaju se navodi kako je glavni princip obrazovanja lični razvoj (*personal growth*). Obrazovanjem stari ljudi treba da dobiju na samopouzdanju, da postanu svesni svoga znanja, svesni da imaju šta da kažu i da imaju pravo da učestvuju u društvenom životu. Kao rezultat ličnog razvoja uobličava se njihov identitet, oni su u stanju bolje da razumeju sebe i ono što se dešava oko njih, lakše mogu da izraze svoja osećanja i misli. Kao sledeći princip navodi se aktivno starenje. Obrazovanje predstavlja meru koja može da osigura kontinuitet u socijalnom smislu života starih osoba. I na kraju, ističe se i princip snaženja (*empowerment*) i socijalne odgovornosti (*social responsibility*) kao prisutan u obrazovanju starih.

U Italiji se govori o ciljevima formalnog i ciljevima neformalnog obrazovanja. Cilj formalnog obrazovanja je da upotpuni postojeće bazično obrazovanje, dok je cilj neformalnog obrazovanja da popravi ili da poboljša životni standard starih osoba i dovede do tzv. aktivnog starenja.

Nedostatak podataka i činjenica da se ciljevi ne definišu eksplicitno i da se mešaju sa principima obrazovanja, uslovljava nedostatak pravog kriterijuma za komparaciju. Iz tog razloga, mogli smo da izvučemo samo nekoliko uopštenih zaključaka. Pre svega, ciljevima obrazovanja starih u ovim evropskim zemljama istaknuta ideja da obrazovanje treba da bude uslov aktivnog starenja i da razvijajući kompetencije, utičući na samopouzdanje i omogućavajući socijalnu participaciju, dovede do integracije starih u društvene tokove. Dakle, obrazovanje starih prevazilazi neposredni efekat – sticanje znanja, čak štaviše,

kroz formulisane ciljeve, jasno je da obrazovanje starih ima kako individualni, tako i društveni značaj i da se mora sagledavati u kontekstu razvoja društva.

Nosioci obrazovanja starih

Kao što je pomenuto, stanje u obrazovanju odraslih u Holandiji ne može se označiti kao povoljno kada su u pitanju stariji građani i njihove specifične potrebe i interesovanja. Iz tog razloga su se različite organizacije koje se bave starima 1997. godine udružile i osnovale Forum za obrazovanje starih ili skraćeno FOE. Forum ima za cilj da doprinese razvoju ideji permanentnog obrazovanja tako što stimuliše i razvija obrazovne potrebe kroz različitu ponudu obrazovnih aktivnosti. Pored toga FOE se trudi da skrene pažnju vladinih organizacija, lokalnih vlasti, saveta pri vladi i drugih organizacija na značaj obrazovanje starih. Članovi FOE-a su: organizacije za stare (Unie KBO, katolička organizacija, PCOB, protestantska i ANBO koja nije vezana za veroispovest), Holandska asocijacija narodnih univerziteta (Folk Universities) – BNVU, Udruženje dnevnih obrazovnih centara za odrasle (Residential Adult Education Centres) – VTA, Asocijacija holandskih Univerziteta za treće doba – HOVO i Asocijacija starih građana na internetu – Seniorweb.

U Sloveniji postoje u okviru neprofitnog sektora dve izuzetne obrazovne mreže koje su isključivo namenjene starima. Jednu čine Univerziteti za treće doba ujedinjeni u mrežu tj. „obrazovni pokret starih i za stare“, a drugu grupe samopomoći osnovane od strane Instituta Anton Trstenjak. Obe ove mreže su manje ili više ravnomerno rasprostranjene na području cele Slovenije, odgovarajući na različite obrazovne potrebe starije populacije. Osim toga, one se bave intenzivnim istraživačkim radom, konstantnim poboljšavanjem sopstvene obrazovne prakse i razvijanjem osobitog konceptualnog modela rada. Pored ovih obrazovanjem starih bave se i Asocijacija penzionera, Filantropija Slovenije, Asocijacija penzionisanih profesionalaca, Gerontološko društvo Slovenije i Linije za pomoć.

Što se formalnog obrazovanja tiče u Italiji glavni nosioci obrazovanja odraslih jesu tzv. Ctp (Permanent territorial centres), teritorijalni centri za permanentno obrazovanje. Neformalno obrazovanje u Italiji koje u većoj meri koriste starije osobe ponudeno je od strane mnogih neprofitnih organizacija, uglavnom od strane Univerziteta za treće doba i nekih organizacija koje rade i funkcionišu na volonterskoj osnovi. Većina takvih univerziteta i organizacija osnovana je na nacionalnom nivou, pa se tako javljaju sledeće asocijacije: Unitre – Associazione Nazionale delle Terza Eta (Nacionalna asocijacija uni-

verziteta za treće doba), Federuni – Federazione Italiana tra le Università della Terza Eta (Federacija univerziteta za treće doba u Italiji), AUSER „Le università della terza età“ fra le Università Popolari - (Popularni univerziteti), CNUPI – Confederazione Nazionale delle Università Popolari Italiane (Nacionalna konfederacija popularnih univerziteta u Italiji) i FIPEC – Federazione Italiana per l'Educazione Continua (Nacionalna federacija za kontinuirano obrazovanje).

Na osnovu navedenog može se zaključiti da je obrazovanje starih u proteklom decenijama dobilo svoju institucionalnu osnovu i razvilo se u sistem povezanih ustanova namenjenih starijoj generaciji. I ne samo to, veoma je izražen i prisutan trend udruživanja i umrežavanja. U zemljama koje razmatramo uočena je potreba i korist povezivanja u asocijacije, koje omogućavaju realizaciju različitih ciljeva obrazovanja starih na raznim nivoima. Kao što se primećuje postoje razne institucije koje su okviru svoje delatnosti uvrstile obrazovanje starih, ali u svakoj od ovih zemalja postoje i institucije isključivo namenjene obrazovanju starih. To su naravno Univerziteti za treće doba koji se javljaju pod različitim nazivima i koji u svakoj od ovih zemalja razvijaju specifičnu orijentaciju.

Ciljne grupe

Govoreći o ciljnoj grupi kojoj je ova oblast obrazovanja namenjena, pre svega se susrećemo sa teškoćom preciziranja starosne granice koja označava ovo doba. Razlike među zemljama, kao i unutar samih zemalja su izražene u velikoj meri i kreću se u rasponu od 45 do 100 godina starosti.

U Holandiji ne postoji neki formalno utvrđen kriterijum po kome bismo mogli odrediti ko spada u treće doba tj. ko čini kategoriju starih. Generalno, ljudi dobijaju pravo na penziju kada napune 65 godina starosti, međutim, neki radni ugovori predviđaju ranije penzionisanje i to od 57,5 godina. Većina vladinih odredbi koje se tiču starih osoba fokusira se na godine iznad 55, dok se naučne studije uglavnom odnose na one koji imaju 65 i više godina. Obrazovanje starih u Holandiji okuplja nekoliko generacija starijih ljudi, bilo da oni još uvek rade ili ne, vitalne penzionere, one koji su manje ili više aktivni, do onih najstarijih. Zastupljene su i žene i muškarci, ljudi različitog nivoa obrazovanja i različitog socijalnog miljea. Posebane ciljne grupe čine starije žene, mlađi penzioneri i seniori volonteri, a sve više se radi i na sačinjavanju programa za starije građane pripadnike etničkih manjina. Novi izazov takođe predstavljaju i stari koji žive u domovima za stare i gerontološkim centrima. Iako se oni

oslanjaju na brigu o njima, u poslednje vreme javila su se i shvatanja koja ukazuju i na postojanje obrazovnih potreba. Programi se mogu lako adaptirati, ali postoji potreba i za razvijanjem novih.

U slovenačkim Univerzitetima za treće doba učesnici imaju između 45 i 90 godina starosti. U poslednje vreme menjaju se i polne karakteristike u korist sve većeg broja muškaraca na kursevima nego do sada. Naime, po pravilu oko 90% žena uzima učešće u obrazovanju na univerzitetima za treće doba, iako se pri tom ne radi o posebnim ili specifično organizovanim programima za žene. Posebne grupe starijih ljudi su prilično zanemarene kada je u pitanju obrazovanje. To se posebno odnosi na tzv. „četvrto doba“, pod kojim se podrazumevaju nemoćni ili bolesni i koji najčešće žive ili sami u svojim kućama ili u domovima za stare i gerontološkim centrima.

Statistički podaci ukazuju da univerziteti za treće doba u Italiji (Old age universities) takođe upisuju ljude različitih starosnih kategorija. Procenat onih starijih od 65 godina starosti iznosio je u 2003. godini 32.5%.

Na osnovu iznetog, uočena je izvesna šarolikost u određivanju starosne granice koja označava treće doba i to ne samo među razmatranim zemljama, već i u okviru svake od njih. To u stvari ukazuje da obrazovanje starih mora polaziti od obrazovnih potreba svake posebne starosne kategorije. I ne samo to. Potrebno je, naime, uvažavati i različite kategorije starih ljudi bez obzira na njihovu starost i polazeći od obrazovnih potreba svake grupe organizovati specifične obrazovne oblike. U tom pogledu javljaju se značajne razlike među zemljama koje proučavamo. U Holandiji raste interesovanje za različite obrazovne aktivnosti i oblike i programe sa specifičnom namenom, koje bi zadovoljvale potrebe različitih socijalnih grupa među kojima se pominju, pre svega, žene, zatim etničke manjine, mlađe generacije penzionera, oni koji žive sami, oni koji žive u okviru domova i gerontološkim centrima, oni koji se osposobljavaju za volonterski rad. U Sloveniji ukazuje se na značaj ovih razlika, ali ujedno i na nepostojanje specifičnih obrazovnih aktivnosti koje bi uvažavale te razlike, dok se u Italiji tako nešto i ne pominje.

Programi

U Holandiji, organizacije za stare promovišu programe kao što su vođenje domaćinstva, ostvarivanje sitnih prihoda, očuvanje zdravlja, nove tehnologije, slobodno vreme i rekreacija. Za razliku od njih koje ciljaju da doprinesu razvoju znanja i veština potrebnih u svakodnevnom životu, narodni univerzi-

teti koji su uglavnom tržišno orijentisani organizuju kurseve iz raznih oblasti, ali su najzastupljeniji strani jezici i znanja i veštine vezane za korišćenje kompjutera. Kao što je već utvrđeno, u Holandiji stare osobe u mnogo većoj meri participiraju u neformalnom obrazovanju u odnosu na formalno, u okviru kojeg programi variraju od učenja stranih jezika, kompjutera, socijalnih veština (*social skills*), preko oblasti koje se tiču slobodnog vremena i hobi aktivnosti, pa sve do obuka i treninga za volonterski rad. Poslednjih godina rast u popularnosti doživljavaju kursevi joge, fitnesa, tai-čija i plesa. Za buduću sadržaj obrazovanja javljaju se kao veoma značajni kursevi pretpenzionisanja. Oni koji ih pohađaju, često pronadu orijentaciju za buduće obrazovne aktivnosti.

U ovom trenutku, u Sloveniji stari najčešće pohađaju kurseve stranih jezika i veština rada na računaru. Pored toga veliko interesovanje vlada i za otkrivanjem lokalnog identiteta, raznih oblasti umetnosti i kulture uopšte. Za razliku od toga, vlada malo interesovanje za volonterski rad, osnivanje malih preduzeća i neprofitnih organizacija i sl.

U Italiji je, kao što smo već mogli da uočimo, veoma mali broj ljudi starijih od 65 godina uključen u formalno obrazovanje. Oni koje se ipak uključuju najčešće se opredeljuju za kurseve koji se odnose na znanja vezana za kulturu (*general culture*), a njihov udeo u odnosu na ukupan broj korisnika iznosi u Ctp 9,2%, a u školama 3,8%. U okviru Univerziteta za treće doba kao najpopularniji kursevi izdvajaju se kursevi opismenjavanja, stranih jezika i dodatnog obrazovanja nakon završetka kursa opismenjavanja. Iza njih slede kursevi vezani za kulturu i umetnost, kao što su keramika, restauracija, slikarstvo, vajarstvo, mozaik, rad na staklu, grafika, književnost, film, fotografija i muzičko obrazovanje. U suštini, ovde se ne sme zanemariti činjenica da su Univerziteti za treće doba (*Old Age Universities*) u Italiji otvoreni za sve generacije i uzraste i pre se može reći da predstavljaju ustanove za obrazovanje odraslih nego što su ustanove za obrazovaje starih građana. Kada se, naime, analizira udeo starijih od 64 godine u različitim kursevima, može se zaključiti da njih ipak interesuju drugačiji sadržaji. Najveći procenati starijih od 64 godina je na kursevima vrtlarstva (50%), obrazovanja za volonterski rad (48,5%), obuke za rad na kompjuteru i web-dizajn (47,4%), obrazovanje o pravima građana (43,2%), muzičko obrazovanje (42,7%), kultura uopšte (41,2%) i ekologija i očuvanje okoline (41%).

Kao što se da uočiti, navode se različiti programi koji nalaze svoje okrilje u okviru različitih institucija. To svakako poređenje čini otežanim, ali bi se ipak moglo zaključiti da su u svim zemljama zastupljeni programi koji se odnose na, nazovimo to, opštom kulturom, kao što su osposobljavanja za korišćenje

računara, interneta i strani jezici, verovatno u najvećoj meri engleski. Sledeći programi, zastupljeni u svim zemljama jesu oni vezani za kulturu i umetnost i uopšte kvalitetnije korišćenje slobodnog vremena. Ono što izvesno predstavlja pozitivan trend jesu kursevi pretpenzionisanja i obuke za volonterski rad, koje su većoj meri zastupljene u Holandiji u odnosu na ostale dve zemlje.

Ukoliko se osvrnemo na shvatanja S. Medić koja smatra da ciljeve obrazovanja starih treba realizovati na tri nivoa: obrazovanjem u funkciji pripreme za penzionisanje, obrazovanjem kao pripremom za treće doba i obrazovanjem kao sadržajem aktivnosti u trećem dobu (S. Medić, 1989, str. 58), onda možemo zaključiti da je analiza obrazovnih programa za stare u ove tri zemlje pokazala favorizovanje trećeg nivoa tj. funkcije obrazovanja u odnosu na prethodne dve. Iako pretežno u funkciji sadržaja aktivnosti u trećem dobu, raznolikost programa organizovanih za stare ukazuje na prisutnost širokog polja interesovanja ove generacije za različite oblasti saznavanja. Napomenuli bismo samo da obrazovanje starih ne treba da se zadrži samo na postojećim, već je potrebno razvijati i nova interesovanja i nove obrazovne potrebe, na šta naročito ukazuju i određeni sadržaji prisutni samo u ponekoj od zemalja, jer bi to moglo označiti i mogućnost njihove implementacije u druge sredine u skladu sa stepenom ostvarenosti drugih potrebnih uslova.

Uloga države

U Holandiji, lokalna vlast igra ključnu ulogu kada su u pitanju stari što je slučaj i sa njihovim obrazovanjem. Od njih se očekuje da upravljaju, stimulišu lokalne institucije i organizacije i da konsultuju reprezentativna tela starih. Naime, u Holandiji je potupno uobičajeno da se bilo koja vrsta aktivnosti ne organizuje bez prethodnog konsultovanja predstavnika starijih ljudi. U nekim slučajevima takva saradnja formalno je određena zakonskim merama i regulativama, pogotovu kada se radi o penzionim fondovima, regionalnom planiranju zdravstvene i socijalne zaštite i mnogim drugim pitanjima koji se tiču starih građana.

Iako se u teorijskom smislu obrazovanje starih u Sloveniji prepoznaje kao neizostavan deo permanentnog obrazovanja i koncepta „društva koje uči“, u praktičnom smislu ono nema dovoljnu podršku od strane države i tako ne podleže nikakvim zakonskim regulativama. Posledica toga je da osim nekih programa koje vode Centri za socijalni rad, ne postoje obrazovni programi namenjeni starima osnovani od strane države. Ipak, lokalne vlasti podržavaju rad organizacija koje se time bave. Njihova podrška je veća i snažnija u manjim

sredinama gde su veze među članovima zajednice i organizacijama koje u njoj deluju čvršće.

Što se Italije tiče, Ctp (*Permanent teritorial centres*), kao ustanove za trening i obrazovanje odraslih, osnovani su od strane Ministarstva za obrazovanje. Kada je reč o Univerzitetima za treće doba ne postoje nikakve normativne regulative na nacionalnom nivou, ali su zato na regionalnom nivou ustanovljene određene norme koje služe za određivanje kriterijuma za dodeljivanje sredstava iz regionalnih fondova različitim centrima. Sredstva se obično dodeljuju na bazi određene fiksirane sume i promenljive sume obzirom na broj ljudi uključenih u kurseve. Obzirom na nejednakost nacionalnih sredstava koja se dodeljuju nosiocima formalnog s jedne, i nosiocima neformalnog obrazovanja s druge strane, Ministarstvo za obrazovanje i Forum za „treći sektor“ potpisali su dogovorni protokol u kome se obavezuju da pronađu načine za međusobnu saradnju. Tom prilikom Ministarstvo je prihvatilo stav da obrazovni sistem mora delovati u saradnji sa profesionalnim obrazovanjem i neformalnim obrazovnim sistemom.

S obzirom da ne postoje obrazovne institucije ili programi namenjeni obrazovanju starih koji su osnovani ili inicirani od strane države i njenih organa, pripadnici vlasti, bilo na nacionalnom, regionalnom, opštinskom ili lokalnom nivou, kao i šira javnost sasvim izvesno nailaze na poteškoće u razumevanju značaja obrazovanja starih, kako za tu starosnu kategoriju, tako i za društvo u celini. U tom smislu, potrebne su intenzivnije javne kampanje i povezivanje sa lokalnim autoritetima u svakoj od navedenih zemalja. Situacija nije bolja ni ako razmatramo samo osnovne i najjednostavnije vidove pomoći i uloge države u ovoj oblasti. Iako ovaj problem nije podjednako izražen u svim ovim zemljama, on je ipak prisutan. Za razliku od Slovenije i Italije, u Holandiji lokalne vlasti zaista preuzimaju odgovornost u odnosu na stare građane, međutim izgleda da obrazovanje ide u paketu koji podrazumeva razne aspekte brige za stare. Čini se da bi u svakoj od ove tri zemlje država trebalo da preuzme adekvatniju ulogu, pre svega u smislu stvaranja zakonskih, materijalnih, finansijskih i kadrovskih uslova za realizovanje ciljeva obrazovanja starih.

Finansiranje

Formalno obrazovanje odraslih u Holandiji finansira se od strane Ministarstva obrazovanja, kulture i nauke. Neformalni sektor takođe delimično potpada pod budžet ovog ministarstva, ali i Ministarstva zdravlja, socijalnih pitanja i sporta. Država dakle, delimično finansira obrazovanje odraslih, bilo

na regionalnom, bilo na lokalnom nivou, ali većim delom obrazovanje u neformalnom smislu ima komercijalnu pozadinu. Kada je reč o starima, kako u oblasti odlučivanja, tako i u oblasti finansiranja, glavnu ulogu u Holandiji po pitanju obrazovanja starih igraju lokalne vlasti. Međutim, mnoga pitanja vezana za stare imaju prioritet u odnosu na obrazovanje, kao što su, na primer, određene mere socijalne i zdravstvene zaštite.

U Sloveniji, institucije i organizacije koje su nosioci obrazovanja starih uglavnom pripadaju neprofitnom sektoru, što znači da ne potpadaju pod državne ili opštinske budžete. Ipak, u izvesnom smislu, lokalne vlasti pružaju finansijska sredstva za rad ovih organizacija, ali na osnovu kratkoročnih ugovora ili kao odgovor na tendere. Ovakvo rešenje, međutim, u raspodeli ovih sredstava nepravedno izjednačava organizacije koje kontinuirano pružaju obrazovne usluge sa onima koje samo povremeno nude takve obrazovne aktivnosti. Obim obrazovnih aktivnosti, dakle, ne igra nikakvu ulogu u odnosu na visinu finansijske podrške od strane lokalnih vlasti.

U Italiji se od strane nacionalnih fondova u mnogo većoj meri finansira formalno obrazovanje u odnosu na neformalno. Budžet za formalno obrazovanje iznosi 60 do 70%, dok za neformalno ne prelazi 0.6%. Univerziteti za treće doba već godinama vode bitku da zadrže pravo na sredstva iz državnog budžeta. Uopšte, veoma jasno je uočljiva razlika u finansiranju formalnog i neformalnog obrazovanja. Tako npr. Ctp se većinom finansiraju od strane nacionalnih (63.9%) i evropskih fondova (12.5%), a tek onda od preplata i članarina korisnika (8.5%), ličnog fonda samih centara (4%), lokalnih (4%), regionalnih (3.9%) i provincijalnih fondova (1.7%), i na kraju privatnih fondova (0.7%) i fondova banaka (0.2%). S druge strane, Univerziteti za stare se uglavnom finansiraju od naplate školarina i članarina svojih korisnika (79.6%), a dodatna sredstva u znatno manjoj meri dolaze od strane regionalnih (9.6%), ličnih (3.9%), lokalnih (3.8%), privatnih fondova (2.1%) i fondova koji obezbeđuju banke (0.7%), dok su sredstva od nacionalnih fondova izuzetno mala (svega 0.6%).

Dobrim delom, od toga kakva je uloga države u obrazovanju starih, zavisi i finansiranje ovog područja. Ovde se vrlo jasno pokazuje da tretiranje obrazovanja starih u okvirima socijalne zaštite, socijalne politike, zdravstva i zdravstvene zaštite, gerontološke prakse, i tako dalje, ne predstavlja dobro rešenje. Ako obrazovanje starih razmatramo u okviru ovih kategorija, susrećemo se sa problemom postojanja brojnih drugih prioriteta u zadovoljavanju različitih potreba starije generacije, koji dobijaju prednost u tretmanu, pa tako i finansiranju. U sve tri zemlje suočeni smo sa izvesnim zanemarivanjem ovog područja od strane države, te tako obrazovanje starih trpi posledice toga kada

je reč o finansiranju. Finansiranje je prepušteno nevladinim organizacijama, povremenim dotiranjima na bazi projekata ili donacija ili samofinansiranju. Budući da nema određenog, propisanog ili utvrđenog priliva finansijskih sredstava, može se zaključiti da ovakva situacija znatno usporava razvoj ovog područja. S jedne strane, povremena ili nedovoljna sredstva mogu označiti samo zadovoljavanje pojedinih potreba ograničenog broja starih ljudi u nedefinisanim vremenskom okviru, dok sa druge strane, samofinansiranje vodi ka, iako kontinuiranom, zadovoljavanju samo nekih, pretežno individualnih potreba starije generacije. Do sada smo ukazali da kreiranje ciljeva obrazovanja starih ne treba da kreće samo od potreba koje stari ljudi prepoznaju kao takve, već i u skladu sa širim društvenim potrebama. Državni, kao i privatni sektor još uvek ne prepoznaju značaj ovako kreiranih i postavljenih ciljeva, te se u mnogo većoj meri podržava i finansira formalno obrazovanje u odnosu na neformalno, u centar svog interesovanja stavljaju profesionalno obrazovanje za koje vezuju isključivo mlađe generacije, dok za one starije vezuju nepotrebnost i neisplativost. Finansiranje obrazovanja starih treba da predstavlja podlogu funkcionisanja ovog područja u praksi, te je iz tog razloga potrebna mnogostrukost izvora finansiranja: od budžetskih sredstava, preko zainteresovanih ustanova, institucija, privatnog biznisa, donatora, sve do ličnih sredstava, i to u skladu sa prethodnim pravnim regulisanjem sfere finansiranja obrazovanja starih.

Zaključak

Na osnovu komparacija stanja u obrazovanju starih u Holandiji, Sloveniji i Italiji možemo, pre svega, zaključiti da konceptijski obrazovanje starih svoje mesto nalazi u okviru obrazovanja odraslih, pod okriljem kojeg je i razvijano tokom nekoliko proteklih decenija. Svoje uporište obrazovanje starih nalazi u koncepciji doživotnog učenja i obrazovanja, a kao osnovni putevi obrazovanja starih navode se formalno, neformalno i informalno obrazovanje. Ipak, u svim ovim zemljama prisutna je nedovoljna ostvarenost koncepcije obrazovanja starih, koja se ogleda u nesistematičnosti u pristupima, nepostojanju planskih rešenja za njenu impolementaciju i adekvatne obrazovne strategije i nedovoljnoj zastupljenosti njenih postavki u obrazovnoj politici. Sistem obrazovanja starih je uprkos brojnim institucijama i organizacijama koje se bave organizacijom i realizacijom obrazovnih aktivnostima namenjenim starijoj generaciji, konfuzan, dalek i distanciran od svojih korisnika, i u odnosu na ciljeve nedovoljno izdiferenciran. Postoji i opasnost da se sistem obrazovanja starih izjednači sa sistemom obrazovanja odraslih. Pozitivan trend primetan je u proklamovanim

ciljevima, i naročito isticanje stava da zadovoljavanjem pojedinačnih ciljeva svake individue, treba posredno zadovoljavati i šire ciljeve savremenog društva. Njih, međutim, treba dalje operacionalizovati i iznalaziti adekvatnija rešenja za njihovo ostvarivanje.

Među nosiocima obrazovanja starih, u svakoj od zemalja prisutne su institucije koje su namenjene isključivo obrazovanju starih, ali su brojne i one koje preduzimaju obrazovne aktivnosti, iako to nije njihovo primarno opredeljenje, bilo da se bave obrazovanjem odraslih ili brigom za stare uopšte. I jedne i druge razvijaju izuzetno veliku programsku ponudu i široki dijapazon sadržaja koje zadovoljavaju različite obrazovne potrebe. Ovakve napore svakako treba podržati, ali i objediniti pod okriljem jedinstvene koncepcije obrazovanja starih. Poteškoće sa kojima se obrazovanje starih suočava ogledaju se i u ulozi države i finansiranju ovog područja obrazovanja. Država još uvek nije dovoljno uočila značaj obrazovanja starih, te se sve ove zemlje susreću sa nedovoljnom pravnom, materijalnom, institucionalnom, kadrovskom i finansijskom podrškom obrazovanju starih.

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EUROPEAN ASPECTS OF ELDERLY EDUCATION: THE NETHERLANDS – SLOVENIA - ITALY

The paper shows the results of the comparative research into the elderly education in the Netherlands, Slovenia, and Italy. The research has strived to come up with the similarities and differences, and on that basis also the general rules of the elderly education in relation to its concept and goal, to the elderly education agencies, their programmes and intended target groups, as well as in relation to the role of the state and the methods of financing in this area of education.

The results indicate that we are facing growing needs of older generations, as well as the needs of a society where the elderly will make up an ever-larger part of the population. These needs have affected the formation of various institutional and programming solutions, but they have been developing mostly in a spontaneous and sporadic manner within the scope of the educational practice. They have affected the attempts to form concepts, goals and principles upon which this area would develop. However, they are still not sufficiently accompanied by the adequate systemic solutions, the educational initiatives intended for the elderly do not meet with a sufficient public and state support, which is particularly evident in the lack of legal regulations and financial support. The development of this area has been limited by these very difficulties and they are to be resolved within the future framework of the elderly education in Europe.

Key words: elderly education, concept, goal, agencies, target groups, role of the state, financing

PRIKAZI

Dušan Zdravković

MENADŽMENT OBRAZOVANJA – SOCIO-EKONOMSKI ASPEKTI RAZVOJA I MODELI FINANSIRANJA OBRAZOVANJA

Slavko Karavidić

Knjiga Slavka Karavidića “Menadžment obrazovanja – socio-ekonomski aspekti razvoja i modeli finansiranja obrazovanja” predstavlja za pronicljive čitaoce pravi intelektualni izazov i podsticaj za dalja istraživanja. Odmah na početku, treba istaći jednu značajnu činjenicu, a to je da je literatura na našem jeziku iz ove složene oblasti veoma deficitarna. Skoro da i nema radova koji sa svih aspekata analiziraju, osvetljavaju i daju smernice u kom pravcu treba ići u rešavanju složenih problema obrazovanja. Dr Slavko Karavidić je uspeo da iz vizure socio-ekonomske matrice dâ značajan doprinos; i ne samo to, već, što je najvažnije, da nam ukaže i gde se nalaze rešenja problema ove oblasti, koja decenijama nije tako podrobno istraživana.

Drugim rečima, ova knjiga predstavlja temeljnu analizu socio-ekonomskih aspekata razvoja svih segmenata obrazovnog sistema: od osnovnog, preko srednjoškolskog i visokoškolskog, do obrazovanja dece sa posebnim potrebama i obrazovanja odraslih, kao i analizu i projekciju mogućih i realnih rešenja, i daje perspektivu razvoja. Poseban doprinos ove zanimljive knjige ogleda se u razmatranju pitanja kvaliteta obrazovanja u nas, kao i u traženju adekvatnih modela finansiranja i načina strateškog i svrsishodnog uticaja na njegov razvoj.

Knjiga zaista predstavlja izuzetan doprinos unapređivanju teorije i prakse finansiranja obrazovanja i modelovanja putem finansiranja gotovo svih pitanja vezanih za sistem vaspitanja i obrazovanja u našoj zemlji. Knjiga je rezultat višegodišnjih želja i napora autora da svoja empirijska i stručna znanja iz ove kompleksne oblasti (autor je pomoćnik ministra za prosvetu i sport) pretoči u knjigu koja može poslužiti svima koji se bave ovom materijom: studentima odgovarajućih fakulteta, ekonomistima, sociolozima, pedagogima – jednom rečju, svima onima koji se interesuju za obrazovanje iz raznih uglova: soci-

ološkog, politikološkog, ekonomskog, andragoškog, kulturološkog, tradicionalnog, savremenog, istorijskog itd. Poseban kvalitet je dat u delu knjige koji se odnosi na modele finansiranja obrazovanja i vaspitanja. Pored teorijskog promišljanja i bogatog empirijskog materijala, autor nas upućuje na ključne segmente koji čine fundament obrazovanja u svakoj zemlji, kao što su značaj i rastuća uloga obrazovanja u svakom društvu (kao najvažniji resurs privrednog razvoja) i značaj adekvatnog finansiranja i traženja optimalnih modela u tom pravcu. Takođe nam ukazuje na relativnu neistraženost pojedinih ekonomskih kategorija u okviru ekonomike i menadžmenta obrazovanja kao naučne discipline i na postojanje izrazito velike potrebe same prakse za egzaktnim utvrđivanjem kategorije troškova i cene obrazovanja. Imajući u vidu da ekonomska dimenzija obrazovanja ima svoje posebno mesto i značaj u kompleksu svih ovih pitanja, kako u pogledu ekonomskih efekata koji nastaju kao rezultat vaspitno-obrazovne funkcije, tako i u pogledu troškova društva za ovu delatnost, autor nedvosmisleno izvodi zaključak da između obrazovanja i ekonomskog razvoja postoji visoka korelacija uslovljenosti i povezanosti.

U knjizi su svi delovi jasno i koherentno povezani i prikazani na pregledan i pristupačan način, a za onaj deo populacije koji se ne bavi ovom materijom kao profesijom, pisana je u maniru zanimljive i izazovne literature. Posebnu draž i kvalitet daju tabele, grafikoni i drugi numerički podaci, što nam još bolje i više ukazuje da je autor izvanredan poznavalac ove složene materije.

Na kraju, želeo bih da još jedanput istaknem da knjiga "Menadžment obrazovanja" predstavlja značajan doprinos našoj sociološkoj i ekonomskoj nauci, s obzirom na veliki deficit literature u ovoj oblasti. Takođe bih toplo preporučio svima onima kojima je obrazovanje posao – i ne samo njima, već i široj naučnoj i stručnoj javnosti – da je pročitaju, jer nam nudi rešenja i upućuje na probleme koje mi kao zemlja tek treba da rešavamo.

Katarina Popović

„OBRAZOVANJE I KVALITET ŽIVOTA”

Aleksandra Pejatović

**Institut za pedagogiju i andragogiju Filozofskog fakulteta u Beogradu,
Beograd, 2005. godine, str. 296**

U okviru Biblioteke „Andragoške studije”, kao dvadeseta po redu, pojavila se nova knjiga Aleksandre Pejatović o međuosobnim odnosima obrazovanja i kvaliteta života u odraslom dobu. U razmatranja složenog sistema međusobnih odnosa između dva obuhvaćena konstrukta zašlo se, kako sam autor ističe, preko tri izdvojena vida – relacije: uloge obrazovanja u formiranju određenog kvaliteta života; obrazovanja kao ishodišta kvaliteta života i kvaliteta u obrazovanju.

Složenošću, ispitivani fenomeni i njihove međurelacije doprineli su tome da se u sadržaj pretežno teorijskog dela rada uvrste: analize i upoređivanja različitih shvatanja pojma „kvalitet života”; potom njemu srodnih pojmova, nužnih za pojašnjavanje onog osnovnog koji se u radu razmatra (blagostanje, stil života, način života, životni standard, životna situacija, filozofija života, koncepcija života i životna orijentacija na kvalitet); dok je poseban deo posvećen različitim pokazateljima i konceptima kvaliteta života (od početaka društvenog i naučnog interesovanja za sagledavanje kvaliteta života, ka, kao rezultat toga, proisteklim društvenim indikatorima i indeksima kvaliteta života). Svojevrstu životnost teorijskim polazištima istraživanja pružila su poglavlja knjige posvećena karakteristikama savremenog sveta kao pokazateljima kvaliteta života čoveka danas, kao i formirana „skica za sliku” kvaliteta života (u vreme razmatranja još uvek) jugoslovenskog društva. U svim poglavljima koja čine ovaj deo knjige obilje je primera uspostavljenih odnosa između obrazovanja (odraslih) i kvaliteta života.

Polazeći od etimološkog značenja pojma „kvalitet” i prateći elemente određenja „kvaliteta života” na kojima više autora zasniva svoja shvatanja ove sintagme, Aleksandra Pejatović se opredelila da pod „kvalitetom života” podrazumeva „zbirni pojam, odnosno zbirno stanje (složaj), u jednom određenom segmentu vremena, dosegnutih položaja na dimenzijama različitih svojstava koje ličnost, pojedinci, društvene grupe i/ili društvo vezuju za predmete, pojave, sebe, druge osobe, odnose, uloge, aktivnosti i stanja, postavljajući ih u različite relacije, a na osnovu vrednosnih standarda i zadovoljavanja potreba.

Smeštajući ovakvo shvatanje pretežno na individualni nivo, pri čemu se ojačava naglasak na doživljaj zbirnog stanja od strane pojedinca, otvara se prostor za njegovo izražavanje određenim stepenom zadovoljstva pojedinim aspektima života ili njime u celini." (str. 15). Na navedeni način shvaćen „kvalitet života" obuhvatio je i kvalitet kao svojstvo i kvalitet kao dosegnuti nivo nekog svojstva.

Učinjene analize brojnih izvora omogućile su autoru da formira konture „prostora za razmatranje međusobnih relacija obrazovanja (odraslih) i kvaliteta života". U njemu se obrazovanje pojavljuje u trostrukoj ulozi: kreatora, jednog od aspekata, kao i rezultata delovanja kvaliteta života. Ukoliko se kao polazište odabere kvalitet (života), i on se pojavljuje na tri mesta u odnosima sa obrazovanjem. „U tom slučaju potenciramo delovanje dosegnutog kvaliteta života na obrazovanje (odraslih), zatim pokrećemo celokupnu problematiku kvaliteta obrazovanja, i ishode obrazovanja tražimo u kvalitetu života." (str. 259).

Pojašnjavanju opisanog prostora posvećena su tri poglavlja u knjizi: Obrazovanje kao ishodište određenih kvaliteta, Uloga obrazovanja u formiranju kvaliteta života i Kvalitet u obrazovanju.

Nakon pregleda i analize srodnih empirijskih istraživanja, koja: obiluju korišćenjem različitih istraživačkih modela i stvaraju potpuno različite slike o „moćima obrazovanja" (od moći do nemoći) u odnosu na kvalitet života, Aleksandra Pejatović pristupa pojašnjavanju sopstvenog empirijskog pristupa istraživanom odnosu. U funkciju su stavljeni sledeći setovi varijabli: kvaliteti vezivi za ispitanike u svojstvu njihovih bio-socijalnih karakteristika; preduzimanje obrazovnih aktivnosti u odraslom dobu; lični obrazovni model pojedinca sa procenom uloge obrazovanja u životu; procena kvaliteta života zasnovana na objektivnijim pokazateljima; zadovoljstvo pojedinim životnim oblastima, domenima, relacijama, ulogama i aktivnostima, u tri vremenske dimenzije (prethodno, aktuelno i očekivano u budućnosti), sa viđenjem uloge znanja i veština u sadašnjem i očekivanom zadovoljstvu; procena prisustva vrednosti u životu; i procene vezane za život u celini (najveći kvalitet sopstvenog života, shvatanje kvaliteta života, godine najkvalitetnijeg i najmanje kvalitetnog života i zadovoljstvo ukupnim životom).

Priroda i širina obrađivane teme u kombinaciji sa obuhvatnošću istraživanja doprinele su obilju interesantnih istraživačkih nalaza, na osnovu ispitivanja sprovedenog u Beogradu na uzorku od 402 ispitanika od 18 i više godina.

Pomenućemo samo mali deo njih:

- Nivo obrazovanja je u vezi sa kvalitetima vezivim za dalje obrazovanje, kao posebnog aspekta kvaliteta života. Na taj način bi se moglo reći da određeni aspekti obrazovanja imaju udela u samorazvijanju sopstvenih kvaliteta.
- Između ostalih svojstava i nivoa, život ispitanika karakteriše i finansijsko-materijalna oskudica do nivoa siromaštva, sa vidljivim lišavanjima u zadovoljavanju određenih vrsta potreba.
- Najveće zadovoljstvo u odnosu na životne domene, aspekte, uloge, aktivnosti itd, ispitanici iskazuju prema različitim aspektima sopstvene ličnosti (moralnost), porodici i prijateljima.
- Veći udeo znanjima i veštinama u zadovoljstvu pojedinim životnim komponenta pridaje se kada je ono izraženije.
- Obrazovaje je zauzelo četvrto mesto na rang listi najvećih kvaliteta sopstvenog života, i sedmo na listi, prema kvalitetu, idealno zamišljenog života.
- Među bio-socijalnim kvalitetima ispitanika nivo i priroda obrazovanja najčešće stupaju u statistički značajne relacije sa različitim aspektima kvaliteta života, pritom su u najvećoj meri povezani sa procenama kvaliteta života zasnovanim na objektivnijim pokazateljima, a u najmanjoj sa procenama i shvatanjima koji se odnose na život u celini.
- Jedino se s obzirom na procene kvaliteta života ispitanika na osnovu pokazatelja objektivnije prirode može reći ko živi kvalitetnije od koga. Kada je reč o nivoima obrazovanja, najkvalitetnije žive ispitanici sa visokom stručnim spremom, a najmanje kvalitetno, i najčešće veoma različito od svih drugih, oni sa nepotpunom i potpunom osnovnom školom. Međutim, kada se imaju u vidu svi ispitivani aspekti kvaliteta života onda je vidno da sa povećanjem broja godina provedenih u formalnom školovanju nužno ne raste kvalitet života, već pre pripadnike, prema nivou, različitih grupa vezuju slični kvaliteti života, međusobno približavajući one koji po nivoima nisu dodorini (na primer: slični kvaliteti kod onih sa (ne)potpunom osnovnom školom i onih sa naučnim stepenima).
- Život osoba sa (ne)potpunom osnovnom školom u većem stepenu karakterišu: bogatstvo, istina i radost, dok magistara i doktora nauka slava i stvaralaštvo.

- Samoobrazovne aktivnosti, od ukupno tri pokazatelja preduzimanja obrazovnih aktivnosti u odraslom dobu, su najtešnje povezane sa pojedinim aspektima kvaliteta života. Između ostalog, ovi ispitanici su zadovoljniji životom u celini, kao i oni koje možemo okarakterisati kao „sveobuhvatne učenike”.
- Inicijalno formalno obrazovanje je u većoj meri povezano sa životnim standardom pojedinca, a samostalno usavršavanje tokom života sa subjektivnim doživljajem kvaliteta sopstvenog života.
- Različite vodeće orijentacije prema obrazovanju odraslih korespondiraju sa različitim aspektima kvaliteta života...

Nakon ovih, i još brojnijih drugih, ovde nenavedenih, rezultata, Aleksandra Pejatović, na samom kraju knjige postavlja pitanje: „Kako bi se najpreciznije i najsazetije mogao opisati međudnos obrazovanja (odraslih) i kvaliteta života, na osnovu svih nalaza i njihovog razmatranja?” (str. 267). Na ovako složeno pitanje, izgleda se jedino može dati ništa manje složen odgovor da možda „...različiti pojavni oblici obrazovanja pre no sa višim ili nižim kvalitetom života idu sa različitim svojstvima (nastalih između ostalog i usled različitih nivoa), njihovim međusobnim kombinacijama, pa čak i nosiocima. Tako deluje da je obrazovanje praćeno, da prati, odnosno produkuje, i da je unutar različitih kombinacija kvaliteta u životu, do nivoa da je reč o veoma različitim životima koji se odlikuju, usled bogatstva mogućih složaja, specifičnim kvalitetima.” (Ibidem).

U ovoj knjizi, kao autori shvatanja kvaliteta života pojavljuje se i manji broj ispitanika, čija razmevanja ovog konstrukta nisu nimalo manje složena od onih do kojih nas je ova knjiga dovela. Ona su u prilogu navedena u originalnoj formi, kao odgovori na pitanje: Ko živi kvalitetno? Kroz prizmu obrazovanja, i to je bilo jedno od pitanja za čijim odgovorom se kroz ovu knjigu traga.