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APPLYING MONTESSORI PRINCIPLES IN TEACHING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE: RESEARCH OVERVIEW

Abstract: *This paper inquires into the potential application of Maria Montessori’s educational philosophy, the Montessori Method, in foreign language instruction. Originating in the early 20th century, this method prioritizes hands-on experiences, active learning, and freedom in teaching. Despite the success of the Montessori Method in general education, its adaptation to foreign language learning has not been standardized in terms of materials or guidelines. The absence of a specific framework for language instruction within Montessori schools prompts exploration. Therefore, this paper provides an overview of Montessori pedagogy with a focus on language instruction, analysing existing research on incorporating Montessori principles into English language teaching. The aim is to assess the efficacy of this method in language education, considering its strengths and challenges, and advocating for further research to refine its application. The exploration of Montessori principles in language instruction contributes to the ongoing discourse on innovative approaches to language learning and teaching.*

Keywords: *alternative approach, educational philosophy, language teaching methodology*

INTRODUCTION

In today’s world, the English language has become the primary means of communication, and it is common for it to be learned as a first foreign

language from an early age. The methodology for language learning at an early age should cater to the overall development of a child, particularly as “language development arises from their entire experience, knowledge and competences” (Goullier et al., 2015, p. 12). In this endeavour, various English language teaching methods, such as Total Physical Response, Suggestopedia, Communicative Language Teaching, etc., have been tested, attempted, and are available. In the early 20th century, Maria Montessori established the Montessori Method of Education. This method has inspired many education experts, teachers, educators, and parents worldwide who considered it an appropriate response to the developmental needs of children. The fundamental principles of the Montessori Method reflect several alternative methods that were popular in Europe during that period, including hands-on experience, active learning, freedom for children and teachers, and the abandonment of strict conventional teaching methods (Matijević, 2001).

However, while the Montessori Method offers a standardized set of materials for *free work*¹ in different areas such as mathematics, geography, and the school’s primary language, there is no standardized set of Montessori materials for foreign language learning. Maria Montessori, the creator and founder of the approach, never developed such material or an elaborate concept for foreign language learning in Montessori schools (Lillard, 2007, pp. 333–334). Nevertheless, learning a foreign language is part of the curriculum in Montessori schools, and various models, such as dual teacher language, immersion and L2 corner, are used. Bilingual education programs (immersion), for instance, are frequently applied during *free work* (Winnefeld, 2012). The Montessori Method, which involves an individualized approach to each child, holistic development, a stimulating environment, freedom, and responsibility, represents interesting principles for language instruction. However, for a better understanding of the position of a foreign language within this type of education, the basic principles of the Montessori Method should be laid out.

This paper provides an overview of the Montessori pedagogy and principles, Montessori materials and Montessori materials for language learning. Additionally, the paper analyses research on incorporating principles of the Montessori Method into English language teaching. The aim is to explore the research outcomes to establish how they align with Montessori principles and contemporary language learning principles.

MONTESSORI PEDAGOGY AND PRINCIPLES

The pedagogy of Maria Montessori arises from scientific observations of children’s spontaneous learning, encouragement of their activities, and respect

¹ The individual and independent learning cycles called *free work* are suggested to take place “uninterrupted” and for approximately three hours every day (Association Montessori Internationale 2010; Lillard, 2014).

for their independence. Montessori recognizes and values the holistic image of the child, with the fundamental principle being to support the child in all developmental stages of physical, psychological, and spiritual growth (Philipps, 1999). In this attempt, education plays a significant role. In the annotated version of the book "The Montessori Method", Gerald Lee Gutek (2004, p. 79) echoes Maria Montessori's criticism of the school system, asserting that children suffer from tools that disturb their bodies and minds. She mentioned how desks, rewards, and punishments establish discipline only in the classroom, resulting in a lack of mobility and silence. She believed that such methods hinder children's learning and development.

According to Lillard (2014), there are three fundamental principles of Montessori education: the prepared environment, the educated teacher, and the child's freedom and the development of discipline. Each of these principles is briefly outlined in the following section.

According to Maria Montessori, the prepared environment goes beyond mere classroom arrangements; it encompasses carefully designed spaces and specific teacher behaviours that facilitate independent learning and foster children's natural curiosity and physical, mental, and spiritual development (Philipps, 1999). Learning materials are adapted to stimulate development. They are organized by complexity, guiding the child through various exercises. Montessori materials adhere to strict standards and encourage independent learning. Montessori suggested that the prepared environment symbolizes freedom and serves as an educational tool, allowing children to choose comfortable ways of play or work. Research in neuropsychology supports the idea that the environment influences learning, emphasizing the importance of allowing children free movement for exploration and learning (Jechura et al., 2016; Seitz & Hallwachs, 1996; van Liempd, et al., 2020). A well-prepared environment not only facilitates independent work but also enables teachers to focus on smaller groups or individual students, promoting calm and balanced learning. In a Montessori classroom, tables and chairs are movable and tailored to the child's size, with additional workspaces such as small tables or carpets. The space is aesthetically decorated with real photographs, artworks, and children's creations, encouraging spacious, free movement. Plants and a classroom pet contribute to a nurturing atmosphere. Open shelving makes self-directed work materials accessible while emphasizing the need for cleanliness and the ability to teach children responsibility.

Furthermore, the prepared environment should be a harmonious, unified entity, not just a collection of different items. It enables children to joyfully discover the world through experiments, emphasizing the importance of care and responsibility in handling materials (Seitz & Hallwachs, 1996). Additionally, Montessori pedagogy stresses the importance of establishing a proper working environment. This implies that children concentrate on their

work, and encourage and help each other in a peaceful and relaxed environment rather than in a noisy classroom filled with aggression and competition for a better position (Seitz & Hallwachs, 1996). The premise is that when a child feels good in their environment, is not afraid, and is allowed to make mistakes to find the right solution independently, they will be able to seize the opportunity for free choice (Seitz & Hallwachs, 1996).

In Montessori schools, the role of the teacher significantly differs from that in conventional schools. Montessori's principle of the educated teacher emphasizes a shift from direct instruction to facilitating student exploration and independent learning. Instead of being a transmitter of knowledge, the Montessori teacher acts as an organizer and assistant in the learning process. The teacher provides initial instructions, allowing children to work independently on activities. Occasionally, the teacher offers guidance, motivates, and demonstrates how to use materials. Therefore, the Montessori teacher functions as an indirect leader, supporting children in building their personalities, finding their own rhythm, making decisions, and achieving independence (Philipps, 1999).

Since Montessori pedagogy is child-centered, adapting methods and content to the child's needs, children freely choose materials and decide how long and how often they will work with them (Matijević, 2001). Although the teacher can suggest activities, if children accept them, the teacher steps back. In addition to independently choosing materials, children work at their own pace, with the freedom to determine the order and duration of activities. Positive empowerment, encouragement, and freedom of choice are crucial, along with a cheerful and gentle approach. Individual work is common, and the teacher refrains from imposing a specific approach or immediately correcting mistakes. Instead, the teacher allows the child to notice and correct errors independently, encouraging independence and critical thinking.

The teacher's speech, gestures, and presentations should be careful, calm, and patient, with an awareness of their impact on children's behaviour. Good communication skills, especially with parents, are of utmost importance. The teacher needs to understand Montessori theory, the child's developmental period, and sensitive periods to meet the child's needs and encourage independent learning.

Montessori pedagogy embraces the principle of a child's freedom and development of discipline, encouraging self-reliance through the motto "Help me do it myself!". Maria Montessori observed that children do not want to be served but desire independence. Children want to learn but prefer to do it on their own. The teacher's role is to help the child become independent by allowing the child to make and correct mistakes independently. In Montessori schools, discipline must stem from freedom. Montessori suggested that children should be given more freedom both in school and in everyday life (Seitz & Hallwachs, 1996). According to Philipps (1999), Montessori considered freedom as the

inner freedom of action and movement inherent in all people. Montessori's method liberates the child from things that limit their spontaneity. Children are encouraged to become independent. Instead of providing external guidance, the teacher guides the child indirectly, granting autonomy. Montessori believed that a child is free when familiar with their environment. Working with materials in the Montessori environment teaches the child to connect with reality and encourages their willingness to commit. By systematically encouraging commitment, the teacher influences the child's development of the ability to act freely. Providing the child with freedom is achieved by creating a prepared environment where they can reach desired goals. However, freedom must be learned; it is a developmental process in which one learns independence, discipline, and responsibility. Responsibility refers to discipline and self-control (Philipps, 1999). If the child is given the freedom to choose activities and manages to finish them independently, they practice decision-making and build autonomy and independence.

However, freedom must not be misunderstood; giving the child freedom does not mean that everything is allowed; in contrast, freedom requires significant boundaries (Schäfer, 2015). The child is confronted with these boundaries in the limited number of materials and in the prepared environment divided into workstations. Therefore, the child is given freedom in an environment created for them to explore their limits. According to Philipps (1999), we need freedom to practice responsibility and need the ability to be responsible to be truly free. Parents and teachers should exhibit discipline and responsibility as children consider them role models, learning from their example what freedom entails and how to live in a state of freedom.

MONTESSORI MATERIALS

Montessori classrooms are equipped with specially designed materials made from various substances such as wood, leather, paper, metal, etc. (Philipps, 1999). Maria Montessori relied on the design of these didactic materials, drawing from her observations of children and the works of Itard and Séguin². The classroom environment should be organized and adapted to the child's needs and the basic psychological needs of children include movement, order, language, and love for the environment. To meet these needs,

² Jean-Marc-Gaspard Itard (1774–1838), a French physician noted for his work with the deaf and with the *wild boy of Aveyron*. Itard was one of the first to attempt the instruction of intellectually disabled children on a scientific basis. In "Rapports sur le sauvage de l'Aveyron" (1807; Reports on the Savage of Aveyron), he explained the methods that he used (1801–1805) in trying to train and educate an unsocialized 11-year-old boy who had been found in a forest in Aveyron, south of Paris. Edouard Séguin (1812–1880), a French-born American psychiatrist who pioneered modern educational methods for teaching the severely intellectually disabled. As a young doctor, he worked with psychologists Jean-Marc-Gaspard Itard and Jean-Étienne-Dominique Esquirol.

each Montessori classroom should have materials for everyday life (cleaning materials, tools, buttons, etc.), materials for motor development, materials for sensory development (especially touch and hearing), language materials, and mathematical materials (Matijević, 2001). These materials are color-coded and neatly arranged in the classroom so that children can easily find and access them, however, there is only one set of each material in the Montessori classroom (Seitz & Hallwachs, 1996). According to the authors, if a child wants to work with a particular material and notices that someone else is using it, the child faces a choice; the child can either wait for the other child to finish the activity, join the activity, or postpone the activity for the next day. In this way, children learn how to organize their time and practice patience.

Furthermore, each set of Montessori materials includes the ability to recognize mistakes (Philipps, 1999), and this ability to recognize mistakes is an important principle of Montessori pedagogy. The material is designed so that children can find the solution or the path to the solution independently through direct or indirect error control (Philipps, 1999). A child learns by making mistakes and can solve a task only if he or she has correctly completed all previous tasks. It is crucial to provide the child with the opportunity to notice the mistake on their own. Recognizing and correcting mistakes educates the child and is a prerequisite for careful, independent, and concentrated work.

MONTESSORI MATERIALS FOR LANGUAGE LEARNING

Most materials follow the three-period lesson principle, aiding children in learning vocabulary and concepts through three distinct phases: 1) naming or introducing the object by the teacher; 2) recognizing or identifying the object by the child; and 3) naming or remembering the name of the object by the child. Owing to a scarcity of literature on teaching a foreign language in a Montessori school, the following paragraphs introduce some of the Montessori materials and activities for teaching a primary language.

The development of strong listening skills is crucial for language acquisition, and varied materials and activities can support this development. Britton (1995) described a Montessori activity called the Silence Game, which was designed to enhance listening skills. Maria Montessori initially developed this activity while working with partially deaf children. In the game, the teacher softly calls out the name of each child in turn, and when the child hears their name, they quietly move to the teacher. By requiring careful listening and maintaining silence, this activity improves auditory awareness in children.

Montessori schools utilize various materials and activities for the development of speaking skills. According to Philipps (1999), pictures are frequently used in Montessori schools to teach new vocabulary. Pictures are

categorized on the basis of concepts found in the human environment, the world of animals and plants. Unknown names of objects, animals, and plants are introduced through the three-period lesson concept. Prior to this, children learn vocabulary through rhymes, poems, verses, picture books, and books shown during circle time or on the basis of individual preferences. Another speaking activity mentioned by Britton (1995) is the Object Game employed when a child is learning letter sounds. This activity helps the child identify and analyse different sounds. While described for practicing the mother tongue in the book, it can be adapted for a foreign language class. The game involves two groups of objects, each starting with a different letter. The teacher points to objects one at a time, saying the word and ensuring that the child hears the beginning sound clearly. The teacher then combines objects from both groups, repeating the process. The teacher picks up an object and says, "I spy with my little eye something else beginning with [letter]", prompting the child to choose another object with the same initial sound. This activity enhances a child's ability to recognize sounds in words.

Montessori classrooms encourage early writing development through different writing materials and activities. Sandpaper letters stand out as widely recognized Montessori tools for language acquisition. These letters, divided into red consonants and blue vowels, are cut out of sandpaper glued on wooden tiles. Children trace the letters with their index fingers, memorizing their shapes. This tactile approach allows the child to learn how to write before understanding the meanings of the letters. The Montessori Method emphasizes feeling individual letters first, followed by composing words and sentences (Seitz & Hallwachs, 1996). Additionally, metal frames and inserts of various shapes, such as geometric frames, indirectly prepare the child for writing. By outlining shapes on paper and filling them in, children learn how to control a pencil and practice making lines and curves, which is essential for later writing (Philipps, 1999).

In a Montessori school, at the age of four, when the child has just acquired the ability to write, he or she will be inspired to use this skill repeatedly (Philipps, 1999). However, if the child likes to have free will, he or she will not be as happy to write dictations as when he or she can choose a picture or an object and write about it to the tiniest details. The Montessori teacher can fulfil this will to write by preparing cards and pictures as prompts for writing; it does not matter how complicated the words are, the child will be happy to copy them (Philipps, 1999). Additionally, at this point, it does not matter if the child can read what he wrote. It is enough if the teacher reads the word; the child starts with 'total reading' when he or she masters writing completely (Philipps, 1999).

Diverse reading materials and activities are used to develop early literacy skills. The child starts to learn how to read by matching small objects with cards that have the names of the objects written on them, followed by matching

cards with pictures with cards with written words (Philipps, 1999). The child can check his answers by looking at the picture cards with words written under the pictures. Furthermore, to practice reading, a child is given tasks that he must read and then fulfil. For example, the child is given a card with the name of an object that can be found in the classroom. The child reads the word with the teacher and then finds that object in the room and places the card next to it (Philipps, 1999). Additionally, there are strings of words with highlighted letters for practicing reading. The words are put into small booklets that encourage children to read. Puzzles also serve children to solve and write down the answers (Philipps, 1999). Children read sentences that describe pictures, which inspires the child to later choose a picture and write sentences that describe the picture. The described activities show how to teach reading in an interactive and interesting way. They gradually introduce reading with pictures and games that are engaging and interesting to children. Another activity for preparing for reading is called "Moveable Alphabet" (Britton, 1995, p. 60). This activity is also helpful for practicing listening for the sounds in words. The idea of the activity is to build a word starting with the sounds and then, by putting the sounds together quickly, saying the word. The child will learn how to read by sounding out the letters. The teacher puts five sets of individual letters of the alphabet and a box of small objects in front of the child. The objects should be three-letter phonic words. The teacher asks the child to choose one of the objects and then asks him/her what sounds he/she can hear in that word. When the child says the sound, the teacher asks him/her to find that sound among the letters. The teacher then asks what sound comes next in the word, and when the child says it, the teacher asks him/her to find that letter. When the child finds all the letters from the word, the teacher builds the word in front of the child and reads it to the child.

In a Montessori school, language instruction follows a sequence of speaking, writing, and, finally, reading. This progression mirrors the natural development of language skills in children. To support this sequence, Montessori educators utilize four distinct categories of materials. The first group lays the groundwork for literacy skills, preparing children for the act of reading and writing. The second group focuses on comprehension, immersing children in reading materials and fostering understanding. The third group introduces children to the fundamental building blocks of language, the various parts of speech. Finally, the fourth group delves into the analysis of reading materials and sentence structure analysis.

The effectiveness of these materials depends on their proper presentation and timing. Montessori materials serve as tools for children to explore language, helping them expand, deepen, and comprehend the language they are learning (Buczynski et al., 2019). Using tangible language materials, a child can enhance vocabulary and grasp the intricacies of both their native language

and, eventually, a foreign language (Seitz & Hallwachs, 1996). Montessori-designed materials encourage speaking, naming, describing, composing words with letters, and practicing writing. These materials encompass a wide range, from metal shapes and inserts to discussions about the prepared environment, engaging in practical life exercises, working with sensory development materials, storytelling, conversations, sandpaper letters, sound discrimination, movable alphabet, and activities related to writing, reading, word classes, grammar boxes, and sentence structure (Philipps, 1999).

APPROACHES TO FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING IN MONTESSORI SCHOOLS

As shown in the preceding section, Maria Montessori meticulously designed a standardized set of materials to cater to subjects such as mathematics, geography, everyday life, and the primary language of the school. However, she did not extend this to creating a standardized set of materials or a specific framework for foreign language learning within the Montessori school environment. Nevertheless, the integration of language learning into Montessori schools was inevitable but required a thoughtful alignment with the foundational principles of the Montessori Method.

The pedagogical approaches to English Language Teaching (ELT) at primary and pre-primary levels exhibit a spectrum of variations. This includes scenarios where English serves as the medium of instruction (EMI), immersion education, bilingual or partially bilingual education, Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), and the predominant model treats English as a subject with allocated lessons in the primary curriculum (Enever, 2016, p. 355). In the implementation of language learning in Montessori schools, guided by the principles of the Montessori Method, practitioners identified various models (Chavarría, 2021).

These models encompass the following: the dual teacher language model, where each language is associated with a specific adult; time allocation for both L1 and L2; immersion education where instruction occurs in the target language; target language classrooms structured with set groups or flexible times; L2 corners situated within the classroom, and blended models incorporating technology for language provision and practice. The selection of a particular model depends on the combination of social context, community needs, teacher expertise, available resources, and educational priorities (Chavarría, 2019). In general, the decision-making process on how to implement foreign language learning in Montessori schools is a collaborative effort involving teachers and management (Winnefeld, 2012).

An example of a model is the contemporary Montessori Primary School “Barunice Dedee Vranyczany”³ in Zagreb, Croatia where bilingual teaching is integrated, i.e., English is incorporated as part of the Cambridge program, covering subjects such as English, Math, and Science. These lessons are conducted within basic groups and serve as additional classes for science, taking place during the *free work* period in the morning.

METHODOLOGY

This study employed a qualitative thematic analysis to explore how the Montessori Method aligns with contemporary principles of English language teaching (EAL/ESL/EFL) in pre-primary and primary education. The analysis focused on a corpus of nine research papers identified through a systematic search of academic databases. Most importantly, the chosen studies were selected on the basis on their specific focus on the application of the Montessori Method for teaching English in pre-primary or primary school settings. This ensured a focused and relevant analysis of the research topic. To ensure the research captured both established and recent findings in the field, the selection considered one study published in 1998, alongside studies published between 2009 and 2018.

The nine research papers included in this analysis⁴ can be categorized into two distinct groups (Table 1). The first group included Implementation Studies (articles 1–5). These studies directly implemented Montessori principles within their research design and aimed to assess the effectiveness of this approach in facilitating language learning. The second group included Suggested Practices Studies (articles 6–9). These studies focused on providing educators with practical guidance for incorporating Montessori values into their English as a foreign language (EFL) instruction by outlining relevant activities and strategies. While they did not necessarily assess the effectiveness of these practices through formal research, they offer valuable insights for practical implementation.

This selection process intended to cover a range of perspectives by including both implementation and suggested practices studies. However, the analysis being limited to the chosen studies may not represent the entirety of existing research on this topic.

³ <http://www.os-montessori-bdvranyczany-zg.skole.hr/nastava/posebnosti>

⁴ The research papers outlined in this overview were previously employed for a similar study, however with different research objectives, conducted during the composition of the second author’s master’s thesis.

Table 1*Categorization of research papers selected for analysis*

Author(s) and year of publication	Title	Participants / Context	Country	Type of research
Handayani, S., 2014	The Implementation of Montessori Method for the Teaching of English Language at Singapore Piaget Academy International School Solo Baru.	Pre-primary learners, teachers, parents	Indonesia	descriptive, qualitative research (observations and interviews)
Jendza, J., 2016	Foreign Languages in the Montessori Environment: A Participatory Action Research – the First Cycle.	Teachers	Poland	participatory action research
Ghaffari, M., Kashkouli, S. & Moahmmadi, S. F., 2017	Montessori and Conventional Teaching Methods in Learning English as a Second/Foreign Language: An Overview	N/A	N/A	comparative study
Aktaş, C. B., 2017	Listening to Young Children: Applying Montessori's Method to English as an Additional Language (EAL) Education	Pre-primary learners	Switzerland	action research
Adisti, A. R., 2018	The Montessori's Values in Teaching English to Young Learners (TEYL)	Teacher and students	Indonesia	descriptive qualitative (observation and interview)
Rosanova, M. J., 1997	Early Childhood Bilingualism in the Montessori Children's House: Guessable Context and the Planned Environment	Pre-primary	USA	observations

Table 1 (continued)

Author(s) and year of publication	Title	Participants / Context	Country	Type of research
Wysmulek, I., 2009	Montessori Method in Teaching Foreign Languages	Pre-primary and primary	Ukraine	overview
Winnefeld, J., 2012	Task-based Language Learning in Bilingual Montessori Elementary Schools: Customizing Foreign Language Learning and Promoting L2 Speaking Skills	Primary (elementary school)	Germany	N/A
Akhsanova, L. & Salyakhova, G. I., 2016	English Teaching Features on the basis of Montessori System Among Preschool Age Children	Pre-primary	Russia	Reflection and observation

RESULTS

This section presents the findings from the analysis of the nine research papers exploring the use of the Montessori Method in teaching English in pre-primary and primary school settings. The results are presented according to the categorization of studies, i. e. Implementation Studies (articles 1–5), and Suggested Practices Studies (articles 6–9).

IMPLEMENTATION STUDIES

These studies directly put Montessori principles into practice within their research design, aiming to assess their effectiveness in facilitating language learning. We will delve into each study's specific applications of the Montessori Method, their chosen research methodologies, and observed outcomes related to language acquisition in early education settings.

Handayani (2014) engaged in descriptive, qualitative research, focusing on four-year-old children enrolled in the Play Group II Class at Singapore Piaget Academy International Elementary School in Solo Baru, Indonesia. The data collection process involved observing English lessons and conducting interviews with teachers, teaching staff, students, and parents. Handayani observed the children's learning dynamics, analysing their engagement with the Montessori Method in their everyday English learning experiences at school.

This encompassed examining how children interacted with learning materials, collaborated in groups, and demonstrated their academic achievements.

The observations emphasized on the learning process over the outcome, leading to the incorporation of repetition and practice in this educational approach and revealing that the school had implemented an effective technique facilitating easy English language acquisition for children. The teaching method is strategically aligned with English language lesson objectives, including listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills.

For listening activities, teachers employed dialogs, songs, poems, and reading comprehension exercises. Children practiced listening through play, conversations, poems, and singing, utilizing devices such as tape recorders, computers, and televisions. Speaking exercises involved modeling, drilling for comprehension, repetition, problem-solving, and discussions on the basis of previously heard short stories. The Montessori Method's encouragement of spontaneity and self-expression created an environment where children actively and confidently engaged in these activities without fear of errors, which is crucial for learning a foreign language.

In terms of reading, two activities were identified: drilling to enhance basic English language skills and reading library books for knowledge development. Colourful pictures and simple words in books were employed to make reading engaging for children. The study noted that children began recognizing new words, understanding sentence structures, and learning punctuation.

Writing was the most challenging aspect of English lessons for young children as it demanded both cognitive and motor skills. The researcher emphasized the importance of repetition in acquiring writing skills and highlighted the role of colourful and attractive pictures in sustaining children's interest in writing.

Handayani's findings affirmed that the Montessori Method proved highly effective in teaching English to children in playgroup classes. The study concluded that specific elements of the Montessori Method, including innate curiosity, parental support, teacher professionalism, peer influence, and the teaching methodology itself, played significant roles in fostering an exceptional and talented individual proficient in English as a second language across cognitive, motor, and social domains.

The goal of Jendza's (2016) participatory action research, which was conducted in a Montessori primary school in northern Poland, was to examine how the research participants could transcend their tacit knowledge concerning foreign language education. It also aimed to discover how the interested parties understand their own practices in the context of a given field. The research findings show that the Montessori method, complete as it may seem, contains several issues either insufficiently explored or simply omitted by its creator. Therefore, there is a need for creative inspiration and enrichment of teaching rather than a strict application of the method. Furthermore, the Montessori's

methodology of teaching foreign languages was too mechanical and lacked sufficient educational opportunities for real communication. Montessori linguistic material, in terms of foreign language teaching, was shown to be either lexically and grammatically too complex or too easy and not interesting for the children; thus, it was inadequate. The author finds this to be connected to the fact that the materials are imported from Anglo-Saxon countries and designed for learners whose mother tongue is English, which is why the materials should be customized to both children's personal needs and English language competences. Finally, the author suggested that Montessori teachers, in this school should become more familiar with general contemporary theories of education and psychology.

In their 2017 paper, Ghaffari, Kashkouli, and Sadighi presented the results of their comparative analysis of the Montessori Method and traditional teaching approaches for learning English as a second or foreign language. The primary aim of their study was to challenge existing beliefs among educators, steering them towards a focus on individualized learning and critical thinking, which constitute the core objectives of Montessori methods.

In listing the advantages of Montessori education over conventional education, the authors initially mentioned the superior academic and social outcomes produced by Montessori classrooms. For example, kindergarten graduates from Montessori programs outperform their peers in public and private schools on standardized math and reading tests. This trend continued into elementary school, where Montessori students exhibited greater creativity and depth in their essays than their peers did. Some Montessori students even demonstrated mastery of reading and writing before the age of 6. Additionally, middle school evaluations in the U.S. revealed that Montessori students reported greater affect, potency, intrinsic motivation, and flow experience, and undivided interest during school activities.

The success of Montessori education, according to the authors, stems from the role of teachers in fostering self-growth from childhood to adulthood. The Montessori approach facilitates problem-solving skills, social responsibility, time management, and overall fulfillment for students. However, the authors acknowledged certain limitations, such as the lack of formal acceptance of Montessori principles by administrators and policymakers in traditional schools. This reluctance is attributed to the method's deviation from traditional subject-based pedagogy, as well as its lack of academic assessment. Challenges such as the scarcity of trained Montessori professionals, implementation costs, and administrator resistance also restrict program expansion.

In conclusion, the authors emphasized the need for further work on student discipline and socialization. They advocate the Montessori Method's potential to enhance understanding of individual differences among English learners, especially considering environmental factors. Furthermore, the authors state

that the Montessori Method has the potential to bring about some positive changes not only to our education system but also to society at large. Finally, the authors concluded that the reason why the Montessori Method is not used in all schools in the world because not every educator is familiar with the Montessori Method. This article does not mention the location of teaching English as a second language in a Montessori environment and it does not provide the context of the investigation. Additionally, the article is too general and does not provide concrete examples of teaching. Therefore, more research is needed on the information presented in the article.

In a structured action research design, Carla Aktaş (2017) set out to assess the effectiveness of the Montessori Method in teaching EAL to young preschool children within the framework of social justice. Given the heightened importance of social justice in education, particularly for young EAL students in an era of globalization, the study aimed to address the challenge of providing a socially just education to children moving to a new country and needing to learn English as a second language.

Choosing the Montessori Method as the foundation for the EAL program, the author highlighted its emphasis on social justice and the inclusion of student voices. The research took place in a preschool in the Kanton of Zürich, Switzerland, spanning fourteen lessons conducted over a fourteen-week period. To ensure accurate language development results, the researcher created a non-English speaking environment. Nine participants, each with varying exposure to English and diverse nationalities and ethnicities, participated in the study. All the lessons adhered to the Montessori Method for language instruction, with Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) objectives used to track participants' progress.

Emphasizing the significance of spoken language comprehension, the author asserted that the most effective way to learn a language involves engaging in activities such as speaking, reading, and writing. Each lesson commenced and concluded with a singing circle, fostering connections between the heard words and their meanings. To suit the participants' age and attention span, three to four activities were incorporated into each session. The results indicated that even children with no prior exposure to English presented evidence of language learning. The participants without prior English exposure demonstrated a silent period until weeks nine and twelve, after which they gradually increased their number of oral demonstrations as comfort in the learning environment increased.

Among participants with previous exposure to English, some became particularly vocal, constructing word chunks to convey meaning at the end of the study. While others engaged in conversation, those with no prior knowledge of English could answer directed questions but struggled to initiate conversations beyond making requests with one or two words. Notably, all the participants

demonstrated consistent progress each month, enhancing their comprehension, vocabulary knowledge, and attempts at spoken English. In conclusion, Aktaş stated that “even when children do not live in an English-speaking country, employing the Montessori Method can have positive results for English language learning” (p. 6).

Adisti’s (2018) study aimed to describe the implementation of Montessori’s values in reaching English to young learners at Aisyiyah Kindergarten in Karanganyar, Indonesia, using a descriptive qualitative method. The participants were preschool-aged children whose mother tongue was Indonesian. The researcher discovered that the application of Montessori’s values in teaching increased students’ interest and enthusiasm in learning English. The author concluded that when given the freedom to choose activities to their liking, the students enjoyed the activities more and were more active, independent, and responsible for what they learned. However, the author found some weaknesses in applying Montessori’s values, such as the difficulty in controlling student achievement results because there was no testing in Montessori schools, and the requirement of a highly creative approach from a teacher in applying Montessori’s values so that the students do not become bored with free activities all the time.

SUGGESTED PRACTICES STUDIES

The following section reveals the range of practical suggestions and activities outlined in each study, providing insights into how educators can adapt the Montessori Method to enrich the language learning experience for their EFL students.

Rosanova’s (1997) paper explored the language immersion approach implemented by the Intercultural Montessori School in Oak Park, Illinois, which caters to children aged 2 to 6. Following the Canadian immersion model, teachers refrained from using the majority language for the initial three years of the program, aiming to foster bilingualism. The majority of the students were native English speakers, with a minority exposed to various target languages such as Spanish, French, Italian, and Japanese.

On the basis of eleven years of experience, Mike Rosanova asserted that children who are neurologically and emotionally sound, come from supportive families, and consistently experience a second language immersion Montessori environment, typically do not remain monolingual. The author introduced four developmental stages within a Montessori community: pre-production, early production, speech emergence, and intermediate fluency. In the pre-production stage, children (3 to 6 years old) initially avoid speaking the target language, focusing on developing a receptive vocabulary through social and cognitive strategies. Although easily distracted, they understand the language and respond

through gestures or nods. The curriculum emphasizes accuracy and contextual cues, with a focus on practical life, motor development, grace and courtesy, sensorial, and basic math materials.

In the early production stage, older children mentor younger children, and children begin producing simple words and short phrases. Their interest in books in the target language grows, and they show a preference for stories known in English. The curriculum has expanded to include reading and writing materials, with children capable of constructing two-word strings in the target language.

The third year involves further development, with children mastering letters and engaging in more advanced work. While gaps and errors persist, children can participate in class discussions and work with grammar materials. For example, children at this stage can understand and engage with materials related to nouns and adjectives. The curriculum also introduces variations and extensions of basic materials.

The final stage, intermediate fluency, involves cooperative work, with older children serving as powerful models for younger children. Children in their third year, ages five and six, have usually mastered most of the letters of the alphabet and first-level presentations of materials. Consequently, teachers can introduce variations and extensions of basic materials, and more children engage in advanced work. While older children begin to speak in longer phrases and produce whole sentences, noticeable gaps and errors in vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation still exist.

Rosanova concluded that the growth toward bilingualism in young children is robust in the right circumstances. The Montessori curriculum provides essential foundations, particularly for basic social language, while acknowledging challenges in developing Cognitive and Academic Language. The Montessori teacher, according to Rosanova, should identify typical issues of second language learners and conduct systematic, unobtrusive assessments for children to reflect on their language skill growth. This involves observing children as they perform tasks, engaging them in discussions about their learning, and encouraging self-assessment.

In her article, Wysmulek (2009) presented the possible applications of the Montessori Method and chosen principles in the realm of teaching foreign languages. Proposing that the incorporation of Montessori principles in language learning classes holds practical use, the author outlined several reasons supporting this assertion. Primarily, she advocated for the humanization and individualization of the study process, stating that Montessori principles, such as the teacher's role as an observer and helper in preparing, working individually with each child, and fostering respect and freedom in discipline, can be effectively realized in foreign language classes (p. 452). Furthermore, she argued that a Montessori class provided the child with the freedom to learn

the language at their own pace and in alignment with their unique abilities. Recognizing the diversity in children's learning needs, the author emphasized the importance of guiding each child individually through their distinct learning path. Additionally, she provided a Montessori lesson as an example, suggesting that innovative technologies such as Project Making, the Portfolio Method, Role Play, Circle Check, and others could easily be integrated into learning, departing from traditionally organized lessons (p. 452).

Moreover, Wyszumlek drew parallels between the organizational aspects of Montessori lessons and modern approaches to teaching the English language. She noted the similarity in class organization, homework assignments, and checking classwork, underscoring the adaptability of Montessori principles to contemporary teaching methodologies (pp. 452–453). In conclusion, the author maintained that the global dissemination of the Montessori Method proves its promising nature. She speculated that the method holds potential for application in various educational settings and can contribute to resolving certain educational challenges.

In their paper, *English Teaching Features on the basis of the Montessori System Among Preschool Age Children* (2016), Akhsanova and Salyakhova shared insights from their professional experience at a Montessori preschool in Russia, where they employed the Montessori Method to enhance the subject-spatial environment for foreign language learning. The development encompassed key areas such as speech development, reading and writing, sensory education, and zones dedicated to travel and geography, all taught in English. Within the article, the authors not only describe their Montessori-inspired activities for reading, writing, speaking, listening, sound exploration, vocabulary acquisition, and geography studies but also offer practical suggestions for implementation.

One of the activities highlighted is the preparation for reading and writing, utilizing frame-inserts, a game material integral to Montessori's methodology. The task involves encircling figures within frames, colouring them with pencils, and memorizing English associations of concepts, such as "blue, pink, a square, a star". The children engage in constructing syntagms or phrases (e.g. "It's a little red oval; I like this black square; a yellow house, a big star"), fostering sensory skills, visual and tactile recognition of different forms, optical-spatial thinking, shape and colour recognition, observation, attention, eye coordination, fine motor skills, and hand movement coordination.

From their observations, the authors concluded that integrating the Montessori Method significantly enhances English language mastery among preschool children. It not only contributes to their personal development but also elevates motivation for learning, satisfies educational interests, cultivates communication skills, broadens worldviews, and positively influences readiness for school (p. 763). Additionally, they emphasized the continuous evolution

of Montessori's pedagogy, underscored by teaching and learning techniques tested over years of practice. They concluded that Montessori's pedagogy is constantly evolving with teaching and learning techniques which were tested over years of practice. These techniques require creative teacher's approach; the integration of the system of training concerning rhythmic, musical and regional geographic components; graphic activity; theatre arts; and creative tasks in the system of education. These components ensure that preschool children reach a high level of foreign language mastery.

Finally, Winnefeld (2012) stated that "bilingual education seems to be feasible and applicable in Montessori education" however, "even in a bilingual classroom the Montessori way of learning may not allow for very much oral production of the foreign language" (p. 69). The author stated that L2 production and interaction, which use communication strategies such as the negotiation of meaning and modified output, have a positive influence on L2 learning and support its development. The author suggested Task-based Language Learning (TBLL) as one way to promote oral language production and the use of communication strategies such as the negotiation of meaning. Therefore, the author argued that TBLL is a promising approach for facilitating of L2 production and thus the development of speaking skills in a Montessori context. Additionally, the author hypothesized that TBLL could be implemented in a bilingual Montessori environment while still making the Montessori Method of learning possible. The author introduced TBLL as "a means of enabling individual foreign language learning in a Montessori environment so that the development of speaking skills is facilitated as well" (p. 70). In addition to discussing their effects on learners' interaction and performance during task-based interaction, examples of task design were presented. Finally, the author concluded that the lack of opportunities for children to produce a foreign language in some Montessori schools can be resolved by implementing TBLL techniques to create such opportunities for oral interaction and L2 production. Additionally, the author stated that, considering previous research findings on the effects of task design and implementation variables, the implementation of TBLL in a Montessori elementary classroom appears to be beneficial. Furthermore, the author stated that TBLL could be applied during the first work cycle, which is referred to as 'free work'. The TBLL tasks would not interrupt the 'free work' period, "since the variety of tasks can become part of the prepared environment and task-based work can happen on the basis of interest, individual choice, and autoeducation, i.e., the Montessori way of learning" (p. 79).

DISCUSSION

The overview of the research presented in this paper offers insights into Montessori-based language learning, emphasizing its strengths and areas that call for further exploration. This discussion places the research findings within

the principles of Montessori pedagogy and the contemporary view of foreign language learning.

The research findings across the presented studies emphasized the importance of the *prepared environment* aspect within the Montessori pedagogy for teaching English as a foreign language. For example, Handayani's (2014) observations affirmed the effectiveness of Montessori materials in providing a conducive and spontaneous environment for language learning. Jendza's (2016) action research highlighted the necessity for creative inspiration and enrichment in teaching, indicating that the Montessori Method is not a rigid application but rather a framework open to innovative adaptation. Creating an environment where young English language learners can choose activities tailored to their interests, according to Adisti's (2018) study, made a positive impact of applying Montessori values and therefore fostering increased enthusiasm for learning. Aktaş's (2017) research, which was conducted in a socially just environment using the Montessori Method for EAL also emphasized the importance of a prepared setting in achieving accurate language learning outcomes. Additionally, Rosanova's (1997) exploration of language immersion at the Intercultural Montessori School reinforces the role of a language-rich environment in promoting bilingualism.

Collectively, these findings emphasize the important role of a carefully prepared environment in the success of Montessori language education, aligning with contemporary principles that encourage learner-centered, adaptive, and technology-integrated learning spaces. The Montessori Method aligns with contemporary principles of early foreign language learning in the holistic approach to the child while ensuring a conducive and enticing learning environment where language is learned through various situations, with various materials, and through activities which are meaningful, familiar to children from their mother tongues such as games, songs, stories (European Commission, 2011). They necessitate providing meaningful contexts and relevant thematic areas along with the visual approach, multisensory learning which is age-related and taking full advantage of the children's physical predispositions. Research findings by Silić (2007) indicated a positive correlation between increased exposure to a foreign language and enhanced language learning effectiveness. Therefore, content and methodology should be selected to ensure that the children retain and deepen their natural openness to what is new, and over the course of the learning process acquire sensitivity in self-perception and the perception of others (Edelenbos et al., 2006).

The second principle of Montessori pedagogy, *the principle of educated teachers*, emerged as a key factor influencing the success of teaching English as a foreign language, as indicated by the research findings. The central role of the Montessori teacher in fostering self-growth, problem-solving skills, and social responsibility among students became evident (Ghaffari, Kashkouli &

Sadighi, 2017) as did the need for a highly creative approach from teachers when applying Montessori values to maintain engagement and prevent student boredom (Adisti, 2018). Observations by Handayani (2014) further emphasized the role of teachers in applying Montessori techniques, allowing children to be spontaneous and express themselves freely within a language learning context. The creative teacher's approach in the implementation of Montessori activities for reading, writing, speaking, listening and vocabulary learning was highlighted by Akhsanova and Salyakhova (2016). Winnefeld (2012) advocated TBLL as a means to facilitate L2 production, emphasizing the importance of a knowledgeable and adaptable teacher. This is closely associated with Montessori language teaching which can be defined as an approach based on full immersion in a language environment with self-corrective activities, fostering autonomy and problem-solving learning by developing the critical ability towards a foreign language. Overall, the critical role of an educated teacher in implementing the Montessori approach for effective language education prevails in the research. With respect to teachers' competences, we cite Rosanova "If the teacher's words cannot always be understood, then it is absolutely critical that the environment speaks" (1997, p. 12). Furthermore, the author noted that the level of competence and commitment to Montessori principles needs to be higher than what one might expect in a monolingual Montessori program (Rosanova, 1997, pp. 13–14). Language learning is not presented as a school subject, rather as a communicative tool that is integrated with all other subjects and routines. In that respect, it differs from language teaching within conventional school settings where teacher expertise and patterns of provision present challenges, i.e., understandings about what may be achieved with limited intensity of provision (2–3 lessons per week) are often confused.

The contemporary principles of educated teachers place emphasis on teacher professionalism, pre-service teacher training, continuing professional development and extended education, creativity, and adaptability. In planning and implementing the aims, content and methods of early foreign language learning, the practitioner or teacher should always ensure that the child's needs are considered. Furthermore, the demand for well-qualified teachers with English competency has proven challenging in many contexts (Enever, 2016, p. 361). This is mostly due to the limited availability of appropriate teacher preparation courses at both pre-service and in-service levels.

Furthermore, Handayani (2014) reported that the Montessori Method allows children to be spontaneous and express themselves freely, fostering an environment conducive to language learning. This aligns with the Montessori principle of *child freedom*, which was consistently emphasised in the research findings. Adisti (2018) explored the positive impact of this principle, demonstrating that students enjoy learning more and exhibit greater responsibility when given freedom to choose activities. This freedom also

extends to language expression. For example, Winnefeld (2012) suggested the effectiveness of TBLL within a Montessori context, promoting oral language production. Finally, Aktaş (2017) examined the Montessori Method for EAL and emphasized the importance of student voice within the framework, aligning with the principle of granting children the freedom to shape their educational path.

Overall, these studies reveal the crucial role of providing children with freedom and autonomy within a structured framework, ultimately contributing to effective language learning.

Contemporary principles of language learning also emphasize learner agency, autonomy, and self-directed learning. Autonomy, as the “capacity to take control of one’s own learning” (Benson, 2001, p. 47), can take place in the day-to-day management of learning, the cognitive processes involved in language acquisition, and decisions about learning content (Benson, 2016, p. 339).

According to the revised Nuremberg Recommendations for early foreign language learning (Goethe Institut, 1993), early foreign language programs should provide as many practical opportunities as possible, specifically tailored to the age-groups concerned, for children to experience and appreciate children’s rights, and thus for the individual child’s sense of self to be strengthened. This includes listening to children, inviting them to express themselves, permitting questions, and exercising sensitivity and discretion in the correction of errors.

CONCLUSION

This research review explored the potential of the Montessori Method for teaching English as a foreign, second, or additional language to young learners. The analysis of the nine studies aimed to reveal how the core principles of Montessori pedagogy align with contemporary views on effective language learning.

The analysis revealed several strengths of the Montessori Method in promoting effective English language learning. First, the emphasis on the prepared environment, characterized by child-sized furniture, a variety of teaching materials, and hands-on learning experiences, fostered a sense of enjoyment, encouraged exploration, and promoted experimentation with materials. This aligns with contemporary trends towards learner-centered environments equipped with diverse materials and technology to facilitate multisensory language acquisition.

Second, the analysed research papers highlighted the key role of the Montessori teacher, whose characteristics reflect many qualities of contemporary foreign language teachers. Montessori teachers guided their students toward autonomy, problem-solving skills, and social responsibility. Their expertise and commitment were essential for creating engaging and dynamic language learning experiences. Like Montessori teachers, foreign language teachers

are also expected to develop students' independence, critical thinking, and intercultural competence. This is achieved by creating interactive, learner-centered lessons, where students are actively involved in the learning process.

Third, the importance of offering children freedom within a structured framework was evident in the research presented. Allowing students to choose activities, express themselves, and contribute to their own learning fostered enthusiasm, independence, and a sense of ownership. This aligns with contemporary principles that promote learner agency and self-directed learning as important aspects of effective language education.

Although the analysis of the research papers reveals strengths of the Montessori Method such as encouraging children's engagement and creating positive learning environments, it has also identified some challenges. The absence of formal examinations made it difficult to measure student achievements, and the method demanded a high level of creativity from teachers to maintain an engaging learning experience. Despite these limitations, the research suggested that the Montessori Method holds promise for teaching EFL/ESL/EAL to young learners. With adjustments in activities, materials, and organizational structures due to differing age groups, learning objectives and achievement measurements, the method is applicable to both pre-school and elementary education

Finally, it is important to acknowledge some limitations of this research. First, the studies reviewed were conducted in diverse contexts, making it difficult to draw definitive conclusions about the generalizability of the findings. Second, the research focused primarily on qualitative data, limiting the ability to measure the long-term effectiveness of the Montessori approach for language acquisition. Therefore, more research is needed regarding long-term language proficiency, assessment practices, and teacher training to better understand methods' effectiveness in diverse settings and guide their application in language education.

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PRIMJENA MONTESSORI NAČELA U NASTAVI ENGLSKOGA KAO STRANOGA JEZIKA: PREGLED ISTRAŽIVANJA

***Sažetak:** Ovaj rad istražuje primjenu obrazovne filozofije Marije Montessori, Montessori metode, u poučavanju stranih jezika. Ova metoda, koja potječe iz ranih godina 20. stoljeća, prioritet daje praktičnim iskustvima, aktivnom učenju i slobodi u nastavi. Unatoč uspjehu Montessori metode u općem obrazovanju, njezina prilagodba učenju stranih jezika nije standardizirana po pitanju materijala ili smjernica. Upravo taj nedostatak definiranog okvira za poučavanje jezika u Montessori školama potiče na istraživanja o uspješnosti metode. Stoga rad daje pregled Montessori pedagogije s naglaskom na poučavanju jezika, analizirajući postojeća istraživanja o uključivanju Montessori načela u poučavanje engleskoga jezika. Cilj je izložiti učinkovitost ove metode u poučavanju jezika uzimajući u obzir njezine prednosti i izazove te zagovarajući daljnja istraživanja radi poboljšanja njezine primjene. Istraživanje Montessori načela u poučavanju jezika pridonosi saznanjima o raznolikosti pristupa učenju i poučavanju jezika.*

***Ključne riječi:** alternativni pristup, metode poučavanja jezika, obrazovna filozofija*

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UČITELJSKE PROCJENE PODRŠKE RAVNATELJA

***Sažetak:** Ravnatelj kao poslovodni i stručni voditelj školske ustanove ima brojne zadatke kako bi se osiguralo njezino kvalitetno i harmonično djelovanje. Ravnatelj ima vodeću ulogu i u stvaranju pozitivnog i poticajnog okruženja za rad učitelja, a jedan od preduvjeta za stvaranje takvog okruženja pružanje je podrške učiteljima. Cilj ovog istraživanja bio je ispitati kako učitelji percipiraju podršku ravnatelja ovisno o radnom mjestu (razredna nastava – predmetna nastava), dobi i stažu te veličini škole u kojoj rade. Istraživanje je provedeno online. U istraživanju je sudjelovao 761 učitelj iz cijele Republike Hrvatske. Istraživanje je pokazalo da učitelji u osnovnim školama visoko procjenjuju podršku ravnatelja te da ne postoje razlike u procjenama ovisno o radnom mjestu, dobi učitelja, duljini radnog iskustva i veličini škole u kojoj rade. Na kraju rada dane su smjernice za moguća buduća istraživanja podrške ravnatelja.*

***Ključne riječi:** kvantitativni pristup, osnovna škola, ravnatelji, učitelji*

UVOD

Ravnatelj je poslovodni i stručni voditelj školske ustanove koji je odgovoran za njezin rad (Sekulić Erić, 2023). Kako bi školska ustanova djelovala uspješno, ravnatelj treba ostvariti brojne ciljeve, kratkoročne i dugoročne. Njegov je zadatak izgradnja vizije i misije škole, uspostavljanje zajednice učenja i osiguravanje kvalitetnog školskog kurikulumu, nastave i ocjenjivanja koji se u njoj provode (Stronge i Xu, 2021). Za ostvarenje tako kompleksnih zadaća ravnatelj treba suradnju i potporu učitelja i ostalih djelatnika škole, učenika, roditelja i lokalne zajednice. Osim toga, on je ključna osoba koja nadahnjuje autentične trajne promjene i stalna poboljšanja kvalitete rada stvarajući zajednicu učenja u kojoj svi imaju određene odgovornosti, učenici, učitelji i roditelji (Delgado, 2014). Kvaliteta škole u velikoj mjeri ovisi upravo o ravnatelju, njegovoj osposobljenosti za organizaciju rada škole, njegovu stručno-pedagoškom vođenju, značajkama njegove osobnosti te o drugim potencijalima (Peko i sur., 2009). Staničić (2000) škole shvaća kao razvojne i autonomne institucije čiju odgojno-obrazovnu djelatnost uspješno može voditi jedino kompetentan ravnatelj. Optimalno vođenje prikazuje modelom kompetencijskog profila ravnatelja, integrirajući s jedne strane teorijske spoznaje o vođenju i s druge strane spoznaje prikupljene empirijskim istraživanjem. Model je konstruiran od pet ključnih kompetencija, a to su: osobna, razvojna, stručna, međuljudska i akcijska kompetencija. Sve su one važne za uspješno rukovođenje školom.

Tijekom vremena istraživanja usmjerena vođenju škole i rukovođenju školom imala su različita polazišta. Dio istraživanja bio je usmjeren na karakteristike ravnatelja (Engels i sur., 2008; Francis i Oluwatoyin, 2019; Gümüş i sur., 2024; Lazaridou i Beka, 2015; Lee i Mao, 2023; Nuswantoro i sur., 2023; Schulte i sur., 2010), dok je dio bio usmjeren na strategije i pristupe (Cahyono i sur., 2023; Cistone i Stevenson, 2000; Goldring i Pasternack, 1994; Grinshtain i Gibton, 2018; Mulford i sur., 2008). Treći smjer kojim su provedena istraživanja usmjeren je na kompetencije učinkovitih ravnatelja (Mustamin, 2012; Bafadal, 2019; Şemin, 2019; Bouchamma i sur., 2024; Chen, 2024).

Ravnatelj ima vodeću ulogu i u stvaranju pozitivnog i poticajnog okruženja za rad učitelja. Komunikacija je najučinkovitiji alat ravnatelja za pružanje podrške učiteljima i stvaranje pozitivne školske kulture. Brojni izazovi i prepreke mogu se svladati kvalitetnom i uvažavajućom komunikacijom. Cosner (2009; 2011) ističe da ravnatelji trebaju njegovati etiku povjerenja unutar škole jer ona pruža temelj za provođenje inovacija i reformi u školi, što zatim vodi do suradničkog učenja i pozitivnog radnog okruženja. U kontekstu odgoja i obrazovanja Blažević (2014, str. 9) ističe kako „većina istraživanja i teorijskih promišljanja kao ključne odrednice rukovođenja navodi sposobnost motivacije, poticanja primjerene komunikacije te razvijanja komunikacijskih vještina, sposobnost izgradnje korektnih međuljudskih odnosa i poticanja na timski

rad, sposobnost izgradnje zajedničke vizije, uvođenja promjena i inovacija, sposobnost poticanja i stvaranja uvjeta za osobno i stručno usavršavanje djelatnika škole te stvaranje uvjeta za što bolji ugled škole u društvu“.

Dojam ravnateljeve dobronamjernosti, poštenja, otvorenosti, kompetentnosti i dosljednosti pridonosi povjerenju koje učitelji imaju u ravnatelja (Handford i Leithwood, 2013). Hughes i suradnici (2015) naglašavaju i važnost suradničkog odnosa između ravnatelja i učitelja ističući da on mora uključivati otvorene forume, rasprave i sastanke kako bi se procijenile potrebe škole, učitelja i učenika. Prema rezultatima istraživanja, ponašanje ravnatelja, odnosno podrška koju pruža učiteljima u njihovu radu, pozitivno je povezana sa samoučinkovitošću učitelja (Çoban i sur., 2023; Gkolia i sur., 2021; Li i Liu, 2020; Mehdinezhad i Mansouri, 2016), kolektivnom učinkovitošću (Cansoy i Parlar, 2018; Çalik i sur., 2012; Đuranović i sur., 2024), zadovoljstvom poslom (Brown i Wynn, 2009; Olsen i Huang, 2019), a negativno s izgaranjem (Slišković i sur., 2016; Villarreal, 2023) i napuštanjem učiteljske profesije (Becker i Grob, 2021; Hughes i sur., 2015; Rothmann i Fouché, 2018).

Podrška se općenito može definirati kao pozitivna radna interakcija između nadređene osobe i zaposlenika (Slišković i sur., 2016). Povezanost socijalne podrške, zdravlja i stresa intenzivnije se počela istraživati 70-ih godina prošlog stoljeća jer je utvrđeno da odsutnost pozitivnih društvenih odnosa može dovesti do negativnih psiholoških stanja poput anksioznosti i depresivnosti (Cohen i Wills, 1985). Stoga se pojavila potreba i interes za stvaranjem radnih okruženja koja bi smanjila stres kod zaposlenika i povećala zadovoljstvo poslom. House (1981) je tvrdio da podrška nadređenih ne samo da smanjuje stres nego i pojačava organizacijsku učinkovitost. Navedeni autor konceptualizirao je socijalnu podršku kroz četiri moguće dimenzije: emocionalnu, instrumentalnu, informacijsku i podršku procjene. Emocionalna podrška uključivala je ljubav, empatiju, brigu i povjerenje, instrumentalna se odnosila na pružanje pomoći pri obavljanju zadataka, informacijska na pružanje informacija, a podrška procjene odnosila se na povratne informacije o radu osobe koje bi joj bile korisne pri samovrednovanju. House je otkrio da sve četiri dimenzije socijalne podrške značajno utječu na zadovoljstvo radnika poslom koji obavlja.

Littrell i suradnici (1994) na temelju Houseva konceptualnog okvira socijalne podrške kreirali su konstitutivne i operativne mjere socijalne podrške u školama, odnosno ravnateljeve podrške učiteljima. Prema navedenim autorima pod emocionalnom podrškom podrazumijevaju se sva ponašanja ravnatelja kojima on pokazuje učiteljima da su cijenjeni profesionalci. Ravnatelj nastoji uspostaviti i održavati otvorenu komunikaciju s učiteljima, poštuje i razmatra njihove ideje, pokazuje zahvalnost i zanimanje za njihov rad. Instrumentalna podrška odnosi se na izravnu pomoć koju ravnatelj pruža učiteljima u njihovom radu. Ovaj oblik podrške podrazumijeva osiguravanje potrebnog materijala, prostora i vremena za obavljanje nastavnih i nenastavnih dužnosti.

Informacijskom podrškom ravnatelj daje učiteljima korisne informacije koje mogu biti korisne za poboljšavanje svog odgojno-obrazovnog rada (npr. omogućavanje učiteljima da sudjeluju u radionicama na kojima će čuti korisne informacije koje mogu upotrebljavati u svojoj praksi i sl.). Podrška pri procjeni odnosi se na kontinuirano praćenje i procjenjivanje učitelja, slanje čestih i konstruktivnih povratnih informacija o njihovom radu, pružanje informacija vezanih uz učinkovito poučavanje te davanje jasnih smjernica u vezi s radnim odgovornostima.

DiPaola (2012) je Housevu (1981) i Littrellovu (1992) informacijsku dimenziju socijalne podrške preimenovao u profesionalnu (stručnu) podršku smatrajući da ta dimenzija bolje odgovara mjerenju podrške u školskom kontekstu. On je postojeće četiri dimenzije socijalne podrške (emocionalnu, instrumentalnu, profesionalnu i podršku procjene) spojio u dvije osnovne školske dimenzije: ekspresivnu podršku i instrumentalnu podršku. Na taj način je od početne četiri dimenzije dobio dvije. Ekspresivna podrška nastala je spajanjem profesionalne i emocionalne podrške, dok je instrumentalna podrška nastala spajanjem podrške procjene i instrumentalne podrške.

Berkovich i Eyal (2017) ističu i podršku ravnatelja komunikacijskim strategijama ističući važnost empatičkog slušanja, osnaživanja i normalizacije. *Empatičko slušanje* oblik je slušanja koji ne ostaje samo na informacijama, nego je usmjeren na razumijevanje osjećaja, misli i stajališta sugovornika te znatno doprinosi boljem razumijevanju osobe (Matijević i sur., 2016). Ovaj oblik slušanja potiče pozitivnu emocionalnu transformaciju u osobi koju se sluša (Fosha, 2005). *Oснаžujuće poruke* uključuju izražavanje povjerenja u sposobnosti zaposlenika (učitelja) s namjerom da ih inspiriraju na preuzimanje inicijative (Choi, 2006). *Oснаžujuće poruke* ravnatelja povezane su s pozitivnim emocijama zaposlenika (učitelja) kao što su sreća, zadovoljstvo, utjeha, smirenost, uzbuđenje i entuzijizam (Dasborough, 2006). *Normalizacija* se opisuje kao proces u kojem se *izvanredni* događaji i njihovi negativni učinci preoblikuju u *obične* (Ashforth i Kreiner, 2002). Normalizirajuće su poruke one u kojima se naglašava da se slične stvari događaju i drugima te da su neki događaji i situacije sastavni dio posla.

Anderson i West (1998) naglašavaju važnost podrške inovacijama. Ova vrsta podrške pruža brojne mogućnosti poput otvaranja prema novim i različitim mišljenjima, poticaj je za razmjenu iskustva i znanja (Friend i Cook, 2013) te je povezana s povećanim sudjelovanjem učitelja u različitim obrazovnim aktivnostima, kao i aktivnostima razvoja školske politike (Castro Silva i sur., 2017). U literaturi se sve više naglašava i važnost podrške ravnatelja profesionalnom rastu i razvoju učitelja (Bredeson i Johansson, 2000; Bush i Glover, 2014; Karacabey, 2021; Leithwood, 2014; Zepeda, 2012). Leithwood i suradnici (2010) tvrde da ravnatelji igraju ključnu ulogu u stvaranju uvjeta koji učiteljima omogućavaju profesionalni razvoj i samim time stjecanje novog

iskustva. Profesionalni razvoj učitelja podrazumijeva sve mogućnosti i prilike za učenje koje učitelju omogućavaju prilagodbu promjenama koje se događaju u obrazovnom sustavu i povećavaju njegovu učinkovitost u radu (Smith i Gillespie, 2007). Ravnatelji mogu na različite načine poticati profesionalni razvoj učitelja, kao npr. stvaranjem mreže kolegijalne podrške kojom se potiče suradnja učitelja, dovođenjem stručnjaka različitih profila u škole i slično (Youngs i King, 2002).

Postoji međunarodna sklonost da se učinkovitost osnovnih škola utvrđuje na osnovi rezultata koje učenici postižu na standardiziranim testovima (Moller, 2009). Buchanan (2012) naglašava da se uspješnost nekog obrazovnog sustava procjenjuje ostvarenim uspjehom njegovih učenika te su učitelji oni koji imaju ključnu ulogu u ostvarivanju tog uspjeha. U prilog tome govore rezultati istraživanja Duffielda i suradnika (2013), prema kojima i profesionalni razvoj učitelja neizravno povećava postignuća učenika. Posljedično, kao rezultat politike odgovornosti, danas je sve prisutniji znatan pritisak na škole i ravnatelje da poboljšaju ishode učenja svojih učenika (Liu i sur., 2016). Kroz prizmu uspjeha učenika i rezultata koje postižu na vanjskim evaluacijama, škole se rangiraju u uspješne, prosječne i manje uspješne, a i ravnatelji se poistovjećuju s takvim procjenama.

Kako bi osigurali što kvalitetnije poučavanje u svojim školama, ravnatelji su dužni stvoriti i podržati školsko okruženje u kojem učitelji trebaju unapređivati svoja znanja i praksu učenika (Duffield i sur., 2013). To može rezultirati i pretjeranim pritiskom ravnatelja na djelatnike škola i učenike. Učitelji koji percipiraju podršku ravnatelja vjerojatnije će imati pozitivnije stavove prema poslu i biti predaniji u radu dok učitelji koji nemaju podršku ravnatelja prijavljuju više stresa, više izostanaka s nastave i manju motivaciju za rad (Singh i Billingsley, 1998).

Kovač i Pažur (2021) ističu važnost sposobnosti ravnatelja da upravlja odnosima između ravnatelja, učitelja i stručnih suradnika. Na temelju provedenog kvalitativnog istraživanja s 30 ravnatelja osnovnih škola u Republici Hrvatskoj navedene autorice uočile su da su oni ravnatelji koji percipiraju snažniju podršku svojih suradnika skloniji prepustiti ili delegirati instruktivne inicijative motiviranim učiteljima i stručnim suradnicima, dok su u situacijama u kojima je podrška suradnika i učitelja znatno slabija ili čak izostaje ravnatelji skloniji svoje aktivnosti prilagoditi obilježjima, afinitetima i interesima djelatnika, što od ravnatelja zahtijeva znatno veći angažman. Na temelju navedenoga evidentno je da je i podrška ravnatelju iznimno važna za stvaranje povoljnih okolnosti za djelotvorno funkcioniranje školskih ustanova.

Ovim radom prikazan je dio rezultata opsežnijeg istraživanja o tome kako učitelji percipiraju podršku ravnatelja, vlastitu i kolektivnu učinkovitost te odanost školi u kojoj rade. Cilj istraživanja bio je ispitati kako učitelji

percipiraju podršku ravnatelja ovisno o radnom mjestu (razredna nastava / predmetna nastava), dobi i stažu te veličini škole u kojoj rade.

METODOLOGIJA

Postavljeni su sljedeći zadatci istraživanja:

1. Ispitati postoje li razlike u procjenama tvrdnji o podršci ravnatelja na ukupnom uzorku.
2. Ispitati postoje li razlike u učiteljskim procjenama podrške ravnatelja ovisno o radnom mjestu.
3. Ispitati postoje li razlike u učiteljskim procjenama podrške ravnatelja ovisno o dobi učitelja.
4. Ispitati postoje li razlike u učiteljskim procjenama podrške ravnatelja ovisno o stažu učitelja.
5. Ispitati postoje li razlike u učiteljskim procjenama podrške ravnatelja ovisno o veličini škole u kojoj rade.

UZORAK ISPITANIKA

Istraživanje je provedeno online pomoću zatvorene učiteljske grupe na društvenoj mreži, tijekom travnja i svibnja 2022. U istraživanju je sudjelovao 761 učitelj iz cijele Republike Hrvatske. Ženskih sudionika bilo je znatno više ($n = 710$; 93,3 %) od muških ($n = 51$; 6,7 %). Prema radnom mjestu sudjelovalo je 268 učitelja razredne nastave (35,2 %) i 493 učitelja predmetne nastave (64,8 %). Sudionici su bili učitelji u dobi od 24 do 65 godina starosti. Prema stažu, sudionici su bili podijeljeni u četiri kategorije: 0 – 10 godina staža ($n = 250$; 32,9 %), 11 – 20 godina staža ($n = 274$; 36,0 %), 21 – 30 godina staža ($n = 167$; 21,9 %) te više od 30 godina staža ($n = 70$; 9,2 %). Za potrebe istraživanja učitelji su bili podijeljeni u pet kategorija ovisno o veličini škole u kojoj rade: škole koje imaju manje od 150 učenika ($n = 109$; 14,3 %), škole koje imaju 151 – 300 učenika ($n = 165$; 21,7 %), škole koje imaju 301 – 500 učenika ($n = 205$; 26,9 %), 501 – 750 ($n = 186$; 24,4 %) i škole koje imaju više od 751 učenika ($n = 96$; 12,6 %).

INSTRUMENT

Uvodnim dijelom upitnika prikupljeni su demografski podaci o sudionicima istraživanja, a u drugom je dijelu primijenjen upitnik za procjenu Podrške ravnatelja (Principal support scale, DiPaola, 2012). Originalna skala sadrži 16 tvrdnji koje mjere dvije dimenzije: izrazitu podršku (expressive support) i instrumentalnu podršku (instrumental support). Nakon što je provedena eksplanatorna faktorska analiza metodom glavnih komponenata s ortogonalnom (varimax) rotacijom ($KMO = .961$; Bartlettov test sfericiteta $\chi^2_{df120} = 14767,70$; $p = ,000$), dobivena je jednofaktorska struktura upitnika koja objašnjava 72,15 %

varijance podrške ravnatelja. Dobiveni koeficijent Cronbachov alfa ukazuje na vrlo visoku pouzdanost i iznosi $\alpha = ,974$.

Na Likertovoj skali od pet stupnjeva učitelji su trebali procijeniti uolikoj mjeri se slažu s navedenom tvrdnjom (od 1 – *uopće se ne slažem*, do 5 – *u potpunosti se slažem*).

REZULTATI I RASPRAVA

Tablica 1.

Deskriptivne vrijednosti rezultata na tvrdnjama o podršci ravnatelja (N = 761)

		1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
	Tvrdnje	f %	f %	f %	f %	f %		
1.	Pokazuje zanimanje dok mu/joj nešto govorim.	45 5,9	67 8,8	133 17,5	211 27,7	305 40,1	3,87	1,21
2.	Iskren/a je i otvoren/a prema učiteljima u školi.	109 14,3	105 13,8	125 16,4	180 23,7	242 31,8	3,45	1,42
3.	Daje mi osjećaj da sam važan/na i da je važno ono što radim.	110 14,5	121 15,9	116 15,2	177 23,3	237 31,3	3,41	1,44
4.	Podržava moje odluke.	60 7,9	83 10,9	173 22,7	205 26,9	240 31,5	3,63	1,25
5.	Daje mi povratnu informaciju o mom radu (nakon prisustvovanja na nastavi).	86 11,3	54 7,1	131 17,2	202 26,5	288 37,8	3,73	1,34
6.	Često daje povratne informacije o mojem cjelokupnom radu.	123 16,2	121 15,9	204 26,8	152 20,0	161 21,2	3,14	1,36
7.	Pomaže mi procijeniti ako trebam promijeniti nešto u svojem radu.	144 18,9	123 16,2	174 22,9	164 21,6	156 20,5	3,09	1,40
8.	Vjeruje u ispravnost mojih odluka u razredu.	65 8,5	60 7,9	148 19,4	211 27,7	277 36,4	3,76	1,26
9.	Pokazuje da ima povjerenje u moj rad.	66 8,7	69 9,1	132 17,3	187 24,6	307 40,3	3,79	1,30
10.	Pruž mi mogućnosti za stručno usavršavanje.	59 7,8	49 6,4	128 16,8	192 25,2	333 43,8	3,91	1,25
11.	Potiče moj profesionalni rast i razvoj.	75 9,9	67 8,8	168 22,1	150 19,7	301 39,6	3,70	1,33
12.	Daje mi prijedloge kako bih unaprijedio/la svoj rad i poučavanje.	150 19,7	118 15,5	198 26,0	142 18,7	153 20,1	3,04	1,39

Tablica 1. (nastavak)

		1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
	Tvrđnje	f %	f %	f %	f %	f %		
13.	Odobrava mi slobodne dane za stručno usavršavanje.	79 10,4	65 8,5	155 20,4	197 25,9	265 34,8	3,66	1,32
14.	Daje dovoljno vremena za planiranje rada (npr. izradu izvedbenih kurikuluma i dr.).	35 4,6	47 6,2	121 15,9	227 29,8	331 43,5	4,01	1,13
15.	Pružila mi dodatnu pomoć kad vidi da sam preopterećen/a poslom.	174 22,9	128 16,8	167 21,9	132 17,3	160 21,0	2,97	1,45
16.	Jednako raspoređuje sredstva, ali i nepopularne poslove svim učiteljima u školi.	204 26,8	121 15,9	132 17,3	142 18,7	162 21,3	2,92	1,50

Legenda: 1= uopće se ne slažem; 2= ne slažem se; 3= niti se slažem, niti se ne slažem; 4= slažem se; 5= u potpunosti se slažem; M= aritmetička sredina

Kod svih tvrdnji raspon je odgovora maksimalan, što indicira da tvrdnje dobro pokrivaju odgovore na svim stupnjevima slaganja (Tablica 1.). Najviše su procijenjene tvrdnje: 14. Daje dovoljno vremena za planiranje rada (npr. izradu izvedbenih kurikuluma i dr.). ($M = 4,01$, $SD = 1,13$) i 10. Pruža mi mogućnosti za stručno usavršavanje. ($M = 3,91$, $SD = 1,25$). Planiranje rada obveza je svakog učitelja i odvija se na više razina: od godišnjeg planiranja, mjesečnog ili tjednog, pa sve do mikroplaniranja na dnevnoj razini. U tom dijelu radnih obveza učitelji su autonomni i imaju priliku osmisliti svoj odgojno-obrazovni rad tako da bude primjeren potrebama i mogućnostima razrednog odjela, ali i specifičnostima pojedinih učenika. Očito su ravnatelji svjesni činjenice da je planiranje iznimno važno te da učiteljima treba dati dovoljno vremena i stoga ne rade vremenski pritisak na njih. Nadalje, prema visokim procjenama učitelja, ravnatelji im pružaju mogućnost za stručno usavršavanje. Konstantno nadograđivanje kompetencija nužno je u svakoj profesiji, tako i u učiteljskoj. Brz razvoj znanosti, umjetnosti, tehnologije zahtijeva od učitelja da sudjeluju u organiziranim oblicima stručnog usavršavanja, ali i da se individualno usavršavaju ovisno o vlastitim preferencijama, potrebama i mogućnostima. Kako bi to uspjeli, potrebno je da ravnatelji pruže potporu u realizaciji tih aktivnosti, što i čine. U skladu s navedenim Fatih (2020) ističe da su sami učitelji odgovorni za svoj profesionalni razvoj, dok su ravnatelji škola rukovoditelji koji osiguravaju mogućnosti podrške u njihovu profesionalnom razvoju.

Najniže je procijenjena tvrdnja 16. *Jednako raspoređuje sredstva, ali i nepopularne poslove svim učiteljima u školi.* ($M = 2,92$, $SD = 1,50$). Preko jedne četvrtine učitelja (26,8 %) uopće se ne slaže s navedenom tvrdnjom, a njih 15,9 % ih se ne slaže, što ukazuje na veliko nezadovoljstvo raspodjelom sredstava i poslova. Doživljaj pravednosti iznimno je važan za zaposlenike. Na osnovi provedenoga istraživanja Zlatić i suradnici (2021) ukazuju da doživljaj pravednosti oblikuje pozitivne doživljaje organizacije, zadovoljava potrebu za razvojem pozitivne slike o sebi te tako vodi poistovjećivanju s organizacijom, a posredno i većoj radnoj angažiranosti zaposlenika. U skladu s navedenim, za učinkovito i kvalitetno funkcioniranje škola kao organizacija, ali i samih učitelja, nužno je povesti računa o pravednijoj distribuciji sredstava i poslova. I tvrdnja 15. *Pružila mi dodatnu pomoć kad vidi da sam preopterećen/a poslom.* ($M = 2,97$, $SD = 1,45$) niže je procijenjena. Velik dio učitelja smatra da ne dobiva pomoć ravnatelja u trenucima u kojima im je potrebna. Sigurno i sami ravnatelji imaju brojne obveze, zaduženja i aktivnosti koje moraju odraditi, ali učitelji od njih kao rukovoditelja očekuju da primijete kad su preopterećeni te da reagiraju i pruže im adekvatnu pomoć.

Valja naglasiti da dvije navedene nisko procijenjene tvrdnje imaju najveće standardne devijacije, što ukazuje na najveće raspršenje odgovora. Prema tome, dio učitelja iskazuje neslaganje, dok istovremeno i znatan dio iskazuje slaganje s navedenim tvrdnjama. To bi moglo upućivati na nejednak tretman učitelja, favoriziranje jednog dijela učitelja u odnosu na druge.

Tablica 2.

Deskriptivne vrijednosti skale Podrška ravnatelja (N = 761)

	M	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	min	max	Kolmogorov-Smirnov d index
Podrška ravnatelja	3,50	1,13	-,383	-,932	1,00	5,00	.093

Za skalu Podrška ravnatelja izračunan je prosječan rezultat temeljem tvrdnji koje ga sačinjavaju. Kao što je vidljivo u Tablici 2., riječ je o blago lijevo asimetričnoj distribuciji, što sukladno smjeru skale indicira pozitivne učiteljske procjene podrške ravnatelja. Nadalje, sukladno koeficijentu varijabilnosti riječ je o platikurtičnoj distribuciji, što ukazuje na nižu homogenost obilježja predmeta mjerenja. Prema Kolmogorov-Smirnovljevu testu rezultati značajno odstupaju od normalne distribucije. Ipak, skala ima zadovoljavajuće indekse asimetričnosti i spljoštenosti (Kline, 2011), a i uzorak je velik. Marusteri i Bacarea (2010) ističu da će *t-testovi* i ANOVA testovi ispravno ispitivati čak kada je distribucija samo približna Gaussovoj, posebno kad je uzorak velik (npr. $N > 100$), što je ovdje slučaj. Stoga je u daljnjim obradama primijenjena parametrijska statistika.

Tablica 3.*Vrijednosti t-testa razlika u Podršci ravnatelja s obzirom na radno mjesto (N = 761)*

	RN (n = 268)		PN (n = 493)		t	p	Cohen d
	M	SD	M	SD			
Podrška ravnatelja	3,50	1,10	3,51	1,15	-,057	,954	0,004

p < 0.05

Kako bi se ispitale razlike u učiteljskim procjenama podrške ravnatelja ovisno o radnom mjestu, primijenjen je *t-test* (Tablica 3.). Prema dobivenim rezultatima, ne postoji statistički značajna razlika u procjeni podrške ravnatelja između učitelja razredne nastave i predmetne nastave.

Unatoč očekivanjima da će učitelji predmetne nastave podršku ravnatelja procijeniti nižom, to se nije dogodilo. Naime, u studijskim programima učitelja predmetne nastave znatnije su zastupljeni kolegiji kojima se razvijaju njihove stručne kompetencije, a u manjoj mjeri pedagoške. S druge strane, tijekom inicijalnog obrazovanja učitelji razredne nastave imaju više pedagoških kolegija i samim time stječu šire pedagoške kompetencije te se očekivalo da ne trebaju podršku ravnatelja u tolikoj mjeri koliko je trebaju učitelji predmetne nastave. Osim toga, razvojne karakteristike učenika mlađe školske dobi manje su izazovne za rad učitelja u odnosu na razvojne karakteristike učenika viših razreda osnovne škole koje poučavaju učitelji predmetne nastave. U višim razredima osnovne škole učenici nerijetko burno proživljavaju pubertet, teško se nose s autoritetima i očekivalo se da će učitelji predmetne nastave procijeniti podršku ravnatelja nedostatnom. Ipak, razlike u procjenama nisu se pokazale. Moguće je da ravnatelji dobro balansiraju između potreba razredne i predmetne nastave pružajući im upravo onoliko podrške i onu vrstu podrške koja im treba.

Tablica 4.*Razlike u Podršci ravnatelja prema dobi učitelja – ANOVA*

	≤ 30 (n = 77)		31 – 40 (n = 270)		41 – 50 (n = 236)		51 – 60 (n = 160)		≥ 60 (n = 18)		F	p	eta ²
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD			
podrška ravnatelja	3,66	1,16	3,52	1,11	3,39	1,89	3,55	1,01	3,58	1,39	1,133	,340	,006

p < 0.05

Želeći odgovoriti na treći problem, uzorak je podijeljen prema dobi na pet skupina. Prvu skupinu činili su ispitanici do 30 godina starosti, drugu skupinu

ispitanici između 31 i 40 godina, treću skupinu između 41 i 50 godina, četvrtu skupinu između 51 i 60 godina, a petu skupinu ispitanici s više od 60 godina starosti.

Kako bi se izbjegao rizik od pogreške tipa jedan zbog niza ANOVA testova, rabila se Bonferroni korekcija. Za svaku zavisnu varijablu izračunalo se 10 razlika između svih parova skupina, pa bi vrijednost p od najmanje 0,005 za 5 % rizika i 0,001 za 1 % rizika trebalo smatrati značajnom. Kao što je vidljivo u Tablici 4. ne postoji statistički značajna razlika u procjeni podrške ravnatelja ovisno o dobi učitelja.

Valja napomenuti da su rezultati nekih istraživanja potvrdili razlike u podršci ravnatelja prema dobi učitelja. Tako su primjerice Sanchez i suradnici (2022) proveli istraživanje u Sjedinjenim Američkim Državama kako bi, između ostalog, ispitali percepcije nastavnika o vodstvu ravnatelja. Istraživanje je provedeno na uzorku od 334 ispitanika. Općenito, ispitanici su bili zadovoljni podrškom ravnatelja. Međutim, ustanovljene su određene razlike u percepciji podrške ravnatelja s obzirom na neke demografske varijable učitelja – učitelji koji su bili stariji od 41 godinu i imali više radnog staža percipirali su niže angažman i podršku ravnatelja u odnosu na mlađe kolege koji su bili početnici. Također, učitelji s nižom razinom obrazovanja (npr. prvostupnici) percipirali su podršku ravnatelja pozitivnijom u odnosu na učitelje s višom razinom obrazovanja.

Tablica 5.

Razlike u Podršci ravnatelja prema duljini staža učitelja – ANOVA

	0 – 10		11 – 20		21 – 30		> 30		F	p	eta ²
	(n = 250)		(n = 274)		(n = 167)		(n = 70)				
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD			
podrška ravnatelja	3,63	1,10	3,40	1,18	3,51	1,11	3,46	1,06	1,750	,155	,007

$p < 0.05$

Želeći utvrditi razlike u podršci ravnatelja prema duljini staža, učitelji su podijeljeni u četiri skupine: do 10 godina radnog iskustva, od 11 do 20 godina, od 21 do 30 godina te s više od 30 godina radnog iskustva.

Kako bi se izbjegao rizik od pogreške tipa jedan zbog niza ANOVA testova, rabila se Bonferroni korekcija. Za svaku zavisnu varijablu izračunalo se 6 razlika između svih parova skupina, pa bi vrijednost p od najmanje 0.008 za 5 % rizika i 0.002 za 1 % rizika trebalo smatrati značajnom. Rezultati u Tablici 5. ukazuju na to da ne postoji statistički značajna razlika u procjeni podrške ravnatelja ovisno o stažu učitelja. Ipak, učitelji s manje radnog staža procjenjuju podršku nešto višom, ali ne statistički značajno različitom. Moguće je objašnjenje da ravnatelji

daju podjednaku podršku svim učiteljima, ali ipak učiteljima početnicima i onima s malo staža zbog njihovog neiskustva pružaju veću podršku. Drugo je moguće objašnjenje da mlađi učitelji traže veću podršku zbog svoje nesigurnosti. Dobiveni rezultati nisu u skladu s istraživanjem koje su proveli Caspersen i Raaen (2014). Naime, kvantitativnim i kvalitativnim istraživanjem su dobili iznenađujuće otkriće da učitelji početnici dobivaju manje podrške nego što je dobivaju njihovi iskusni kolege. Nažalost, o nedostatku potrebne podrške učiteljima početnicima izvještavaju i druga istraživanja (Tschannen-Moran i Woolfolk Hoy, 2007). U budućim istraživanjima u hrvatskom odgojno-obrazovnom kontekstu bilo bi poželjno dodatnu pozornost posvetiti ovoj temi.

Tablica 6.

Razlike u Podršci ravnatelja prema veličini škole – ANOVA

	≤ 150		151 – 300		301 – 500		501 – 750		≥ 751		F	p	eta ²
	(n = 109)	(n = 165)	(n = 205)	(n = 186)	(n = 96)	M	SD	M	SD	M			
podrška ravnatelja	3,73	1,15	3,52	1,13	3,44	1,09	3,56	1,12	3,24	1,16	2,712	,029	,014

p < 0.05

Prema broju učenika škole su podijeljene u 5 kategorija. Iz Tablice 6. vidljivo je da je u velikim školama, s više od 751 učenika, radi najmanji broj učitelja obuhvaćen uzorkom. Kako bi se izbjegao rizik od pogreške tipa jedan zbog niza ANOVA testova, rabila se Bonferroni korekcija. Za svaku zavisnu varijablu izračunalo se 10 razlika između svih parova skupina, pa bi vrijednost *p* od najmanje 0,005 za 5 % rizika i 0,001 za 1 % rizika trebalo smatrati značajnom (Tablica 6.). Dobiveni rezultati pokazuju kako nema statistički značajne razlike u procjeni podrške ravnatelja ovisno o veličini škole u kojoj učitelji rade. Svaka škola ima svoje specifičnosti te je moguće pretpostaviti da ih ravnatelji uspijevaju uzeti u obzir i pružiti potrebnu podršku. Dodatno, i lokalna zajednica mogla bi imati značajnu ulogu u pružanju potpore ravnateljima škola da svoju funkciju obnašaju kvalitetno i u skladu s očekivanjima djelatnika škola.

Ipak, rezultati istraživanja provedenog u Republici Hrvatskoj donose drukčije rezultate. Naime, ispitujući kako učitelji procjenjuju fleksibilnost i autoritativnosti ravnatelja na stratificiranom reprezentativnom uzorku osnovnih škola u Splitsko-dalmatinskoj županiji utvrđeno je da učitelji iz manjih škola (< 400 učenika) znatno niže procjenjuju obje varijable u odnosu na učitelje iz većih škola (> 800 učenika) (Blažević, 2014).

ZAKLJUČAK

Istraživanje je pokazalo da učitelji u osnovnim školama procjenjuju podršku ravnatelja relativno visokom te da ne postoje razlike u procjenama ovisno o radnom mjestu, dobi učitelja, duljini radnog iskustva i veličini škole u kojoj rade. Prema dobivenim rezultatima evidentno je da učitelji percipiraju ravnateljevu podršku jednakom bez obzira na varijable koje su se uzele u obzir ovim istraživanjem. Navedeno bi se moglo tumačiti razvijenim kompetencijama ravnatelja za funkciju koju su preuzeli u vođenju škole. Svi ravnatelji moraju imati iskustvo rada u odgojno-obrazovnim ustanovama u trajanju od najmanje pet godina, što im je dobro polazište za razumijevanje nužnosti pružanja podrške učiteljima.

Dobiveni rezultati mogli bi poslužiti za osnaživanje kompetencija ravnatelja jer neke od tvrdnji su niže procijenjene što otvara prostor za poboljšanje. To se primarno odnosi na pravedniju distribuciju resursa i poslova te na pružanje pomoći učiteljima u trenucima kad su preopterećeni. Ravnatelji trebaju prepoznati takve situacije, a zatim djelovati, po mogućnosti što prije, kako bi se minimizirali mogući negativni učinci.

Prilikom interpretacije rezultata važno je uzeti u obzir i nekoliko ograničavajućih čimbenika. U prvom redu uzorak je bio prigodni te se nalazi ne mogu generalizirati. Nedostatak je istraživanja i u tome što se u obzir nisu uzele osobine ravnatelja. Tako Delgado (2014; prema Pažur i sur., 2020) naglašava da određena obilježja ravnatelja kao duljina iskustva na funkciji ravnatelja mogu djelovati na njihovu sposobnost prakticiranja vođenja škole. Osim toga, tu su još i varijable poput spola ravnatelja, dobi i staža, edukacije kojima su prisustvovali i slično, što se nije uzelo u obzir. Podrška ravnatelja i podrška ravnatelju mogle bi biti revezibilni procesi te bi buduća istraživanja mogla biti usmjerena na dublje ispitivanje njihova međuodnosa. Stoga bi ovo istraživanje moglo biti poticaj za nova sveobuhvatnija istraživanja kojima bi se moglo doći do novih spoznaja.

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TEACHER PERCEPTIONS OF PRINCIPAL SUPPORT

Abstract: *Principal, as the manager and expert leader of a school, performs out numerous tasks to ensure quality and harmonious operations within the school. The principal has the leading role in creating a positive and encouraging environment for the implementation of the teaching process. One of the conditions needed to create such an environment is providing support to teachers.*

The aim of this research was to examine how teachers perceive principal support according to their workplace (classroom teaching or subject teaching), age, years of work experience and the size of their school. The research was conducted online. The participants were 761 teachers from various parts of the Republic of Croatia. Research has shown that primary school teachers perceive a high level of principal support and that there are no differences in their perceptions in terms of their workplace, age, years of work experience or the size of their school. The concluding part of the paper presents guidelines for potential future research on principal support.

Keywords: *quantitative approach, primary school, principals, teachers*

INTRODUCTION

The principal is the manager and expert head of a school and is responsible for its activities (Sekulić Erić, 2023). If a school is to function successfully, the principal needs to achieve various short-term and long-term goals. The role of the principal is to create the vision and mission of the school, to set up the learning community and ensure the creation of a quality school curriculum and the teaching and assessment process in it (Stronge & Xu, 2021). To perform such complex tasks, the principal needs support from and collaboration with teachers and other school employees, students, parents and the local community. In addition, the principal is the key person who inspires authentic permanent changes and constant improvement in work quality by creating a learning community in which all stakeholders (students, teachers, and parents) have certain responsibilities (Delgado, 2014). The quality of a school depends on the principal, their competence in organizing school activities, their professional and pedagogical leadership, their personality traits, and other potential (Peko et al., 2009). Staničić (2000) perceives schools as developing and autonomous institutions whose educational activities can be successfully led only by a competent principal. He illustrates optimal leadership via the principal competency profile model, integrating theoretical knowledge about leadership and knowledge gained via empirical research. The model contains five key competencies: personal, developmental, professional, interpersonal and action competencies, all of which are crucial to successful school management.

Over the years, studies on school leadership and school management have had various starting points. Some studies are based on principal qualities (Engels et al., 2008; Francis & Oluwatoyin, 2019; Gümüş et al., 2024; Lazaridou & Beka, 2015; Lee & Mao, 2023; Nuswantoro et al., 2023; Schulte et al., 2010), whereas others are based on principals' strategies and approaches (Cahyono et al., 2023; Cistone & Stevenson, 2000; Goldring & Pasternack, 1994; Grinshtain & Gibton, 2018; Mulford et al., 2008). The third focus of studies has been on the competencies of effective principals (Mustamin, 2012; Bafadal, 2019; Şemin, 2019; Bouchamma et al., 2024; Chen, 2024).

The principal has a key role in creating a positive and encouraging working environment for teachers. Communication is the most efficient tool that principals can use to provide support to teachers and to create a positive school culture. Numerous challenges can be solved and obstacles can be overcome through proper communication in which both parties appreciate each other. Cosner (2009; 2011) noted that principals should nurture a culture of trust within the school, as it paves the way for introducing innovation and reforms into the school, which in turn leads to cooperative learning and a positive working environment. Within the educational context, Blažević (2014, p. 9) states that "most studies and theoretical considerations point out some key determinants of management, such

as the ability to motivate others, encourage appropriate communication patterns and develop communication skills; the ability to build positive interpersonal relationships and encourage team work; the ability to create a common vision, introduce changes and innovation, encourage and create the conditions for personal and professional development of school employees, and create the conditions which will help build better school reputation in the community.”

If the principal is perceived as benevolent, honest, open, competent and consistent, the teachers will have trust in him/her (Handford & Leithwood, 2013). Hughes et al. (2015) noted the importance of collaboration between the principal and teachers. They also state that this collaboration should include open forums, discussions, and meetings to assess the needs of the school, teachers and students. According to research results, the principal’s behaviour, that is, the support they provide to teachers, is positively related to teacher self-efficacy (Çoban et al., 2023; Gkolia et al., 2021; Li & Liu, 2020; Mehdinezhad & Mansouri, 2016), collective efficacy (Cansoy & Parlar, 2018; Çalik et al., 2012; Đuranović et al., 2024) and job satisfaction (Brown & Wynn, 2009; Olsen & Huang, 2019), whereas it is negatively related to burnout (Slišković et al., 2016; Villarreal, 2023) and abandonment of the teaching profession (Becker & Grob, 2021; Hughes et al., 2015; Rothmann & Fouché, 2018).

Support can generally be defined as a positive working interaction between the superior and employees (Slišković et al., 2016). More thorough research on the relationships among social support, health and stress began in the 1970s, as it was determined that a lack of positive social relationships could result in negative psychological states, such as anxiety and depression (Cohen and Wills, 1985). Therefore, there was an emerging need for and interest in creating a positive working environment which would reduce stress levels in employees and increase their job satisfaction. House (1981) claimed that support provided by superiors not only reduces stress levels, but also increases organizational efficacy. He conceptualized social support through four potential dimensions: emotional, instrumental, informational and appraisal support. Emotional support includes love, empathy, care, and trust; instrumental support implies providing help in task execution; informational support implies providing information, and appraisal support includes feedback on job performance which would be useful in self-assessment. House reported that all four dimensions of social support significantly influence job satisfaction.

On the basis of House’s social support conceptual framework, Littrell et al. (1994) created constituent and operative measures of social support in school, that is, the principal’s support for teachers. According to these authors, emotional support implies all principal behaviours by which they show teachers that they are valued professionals. The principal tries to establish and maintain open communication with teachers, appreciates and considers their ideas, shows gratitude for and interest in their work. Instrumental support implies direct help

the principal provides to teachers and their work. This form of support implies ensuring the necessary materials, space, and time to perform the teaching and administrative tasks. Informational support implies that the principal provides teachers with relevant information that they can use to improve their teaching and educational activities (for example, enabling teachers to take part in workshops which will provide them with information useful in their teaching practice). Appraisal support includes the continuous assessment and evaluation of teachers' work, the provision of frequent and constructive feedback on their work, the provision of information about effective teaching processes, and the provision of clear guidelines about work responsibilities.

DiPaola (2012) renamed the informational dimension of social support proposed by House (1981) and Littrell (1992) professional (expert) support, feeling that this dimension was better suited to the measurement of support in the school context. He merged the four existing dimensions of social support (emotional, instrumental, informational and appraisal support) into two basic school dimensions: expressive support and instrumental support. In this way, he reduced the initial four dimensions to two dimensions. Expressive support consists of professional and emotional support, whereas instrumental support consists of appraisal support and instrumental support.

Berkovich and Eyal (2017) noted that principal support can also be provided through communication strategies such as empathic listening, empowering, and normalizing. *Empathic listening* is a type of listening that is not limited only to information, but also involves understanding the feelings, thoughts, and attitudes of the collocutors, significantly contributing to a better understanding of a person (Matijević et al., 2016). This type of listening encourages a positive emotional transformation within a person being listened to (Fosha, 2005). *Empowering messages* imply showing confidence in employees' (teachers') competencies with the aim of inspiring them to take initiative (Choi, 2006). The principal's empowering messages are related to the positive emotions of employees (teachers), such as happiness, satisfaction, comfort, calmness, excitement, and enthusiasm (Dasborough, 2006). *Normalizing* is described as a process in which *extraordinary* events and their negative effects are shaped into *ordinary* events (Ashforth & Kreiner, 2002). Normalizing messages are those that imply that similar events happen to others as well, and that some events and situations are integral parts of a job.

Anderson and West (1998) stress the importance of support for innovation. This form of support offers numerous opportunities, such as being open to new and various opinions, and it encourages an exchange of experiences and knowledge (Friend & Cook, 2013). It is also associated with an increased teacher participation in various educational activities and activities directed at developing school policy (Castro Silva et al., 2017). In the literature, increasing attention has been given to the importance of principal support for

the professional growth and development of teachers (Bredeson & Johansson, 2000; Bush & Glover, 2014; Karacabey, 2021; Leithwood, 2014; Zepeda, 2012). Leithwood et al. (2010) claim that principals play a key role in creating the opportunities for teachers' professional development and acquisition of new experiences. Teacher professional development includes all learning opportunities that enable teachers to adjust to the changes taking place in the education system and that increase their work performance (Smith and Gillespie, 2007). Principals can support teacher professional development in various ways, such as creating a network of collegial support that encourages cooperation between teachers, inviting experts in various fields to school, etc. (Youngs & King, 2002).

There is a tendency at the international level to determine the efficacy of primary schools on standardized tests on the basis of their students' scores (Moller, 2009). Buchanan (2012) noted that the success of an education system is assessed by the achievements of its students, and that teachers play a key role in that process. This finding is supported by the results of a study carried out by Duffield et al. (2013) which indicated that the professional development of teachers indirectly increases student achievement. Therefore, as a result of responsibility policy, there is an increasing pressure on schools and principals to improve the outcomes of their students (Liu et al., 2016). From the aspect of student achievement and the results they achieve in external evaluation, schools are categorized into successful, average, and less successful schools, and principals are also assessed according to the same criteria.

To ensure a quality teaching process in their schools, principals need to create and support a school environment in which teachers should develop their knowledge and teaching practice (Duffield et al., 2013). This can lead to a lot of pressure put on teachers and students by their principals. Teachers who perceive a higher level of principal support are more likely to have more positive attitudes toward work and be committed to it, whereas teachers who do not feel that they have principal support report higher stress levels, tend to be more absent from work and are less motivated to work (Singh & Billingsley, 1998).

Kovač and Pažur (2021) highlight the importance of a principal's ability to manage the relationships among the principal, teachers, and expert associates. On the basis of qualitative research carried out on a sample of 30 primary school principals in the Republic of Croatia, the authors noticed that those principals who perceive more support from their associates tend to transfer or delegate the instructions to more motivated teachers and expert associates, while in the situations where they perceive a lower level of support or do not perceive it at all, the principals are more likely to adjust their activities according to the characteristics, preferences and interests of teachers. This requires a significantly higher level of engagement from the principals themselves. Importantly, the

support that principals perceive is extremely important for creating stimulating conditions for the efficient functioning of schools as institutions.

This paper presents some results of comprehensive research on how teachers perceive principal support, their own and collective efficacy, and loyalty to their school. The aim of the research was to examine how teachers perceive principal support depending on their workplace (classroom teaching or subject teaching), age, years of work experience and the size of their school.

METHODOLOGY

The following research tasks were set:

1. Examine whether there are differences in the assessed items about principal support in the total sample.
2. Examine whether there are differences in teacher perceptions of principal support in terms of their workplace.
3. Examine whether there are differences in teacher perceptions of principal support in terms of teacher age.
4. Examine whether there are differences in teacher perceptions of principal support in terms of the years of the teachers' work experience.
5. Examine whether there are differences in teacher perceptions of principal support in terms of school size.

PARTICIPANT SAMPLE

The research was conducted online in a closed teacher group on a social network, from April to May 2022. The participants were 761 teachers from all parts of the Republic of Croatia. There was a significantly greater number of female participants ($n = 710$, 93.3%) than male participants ($n = 51$; 6.7%). In terms of the workplace, there were 268 classroom teachers (35.2%) and 493 subject teachers (64.8%). The age of the participants ranged between 24 and 65 years. In terms of the years of their work experience, the participants were divided into four categories: 0 – 10 years of work experience ($n = 250$; 32.9%), 11 – 20 years of work experience ($n = 274$; 36.0%), 21 – 30 years of work experience ($n = 167$; 21.9%) and more than 30 years of work experience ($n = 70$; 9.2%). To meet the needs of the research, the teachers were divided into five categories, depending on the size of their school: schools with less than 150 students ($n = 109$; 14.3%), schools with 151 – 300 students ($n = 165$; 21.7%), schools with 301 – 500 students ($n = 205$; 26.9%), schools with 501 – 750 students ($n = 186$; 24.4%), and schools with more than 751 students ($n = 96$; 12.6%).

INSTRUMENT

The introductory part of the survey was used to collect demographic data from the participants, whereas in the second part of the survey, the *Principal*

Support Scale was used to assess principal support (DiPaola, 2012). The original scale contains 16 items which measure two dimensions: expressive support and instrumental support. After the exploratory factor analysis was performed via the principal component method with orthogonal (varimax) rotation ($KMO = .961$; Bartlett's test of sphericity $\chi^2_{df120} = 14767.70$; $p = .000$), a single-factor questionnaire structure was obtained, accounting for 72.15% of the principal support variance. The obtained Cronbach alpha coefficient of $\alpha = .974$ indicates very high reliability.

On a Likert-type five-point scale, teachers had to express their agreement with each item (from 1 – *I strongly disagree*, to 5 – *I strongly agree*).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 1

Descriptive values of the results on principal support items (N = 761)

		1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
	Items	f %	f %	f %	f %	f %		
1	Gives me undivided attention when I am talking.	45 5.9	67 8.8	133 17.5	211 27.7	305 40.1	3.87	1.21
2	Is honest and straightforward with the staff.	109 14.3	105 13.8	125 16.4	180 23.7	242 31.8	3.45	1.42
3	Gives me a sense of importance – I make a difference.	110 14.5	121 15.9	116 15.2	177 23.3	237 31.3	3.41	1.44
4	Supports my decisions.	60 7.9	83 10.9	173 22.7	205 26.9	240 31.5	3.63	1.25
5	Provides data for me to reflect on following classroom observations of my teaching.	86 11.3	54 7.1	131 17.2	202 26.5	288 37.8	3.73	1.34
6	Provides frequent feedback about my performance.	123 16.2	121 15.9	204 26.8	152 20.0	161 21.2	3.14	1.36
7	Helps me evaluate my needs.	144 18.9	123 16.2	174 22.9	164 21.6	156 20.5	3.09	1.40
8	Trusts my judgment in making classroom decisions.	65 8.5	60 7.9	148 19.4	211 27.7	277 36.4	3.76	1.26
9	Shows confidence in my actions.	66 8.7	69 9.1	132 17.3	187 24.6	307 40.3	3.79	1.30
10	Provides opportunities for me to grow professionally.	59 7.8	49 6.4	128 16.8	192 25.2	333 43.8	3.91	1.25

Table 1 (continued)

		1	2	3	4	5	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Items		f %	f %	f %	f %	f %		
11	Encourages professional growth.	75 9.9	67 8.8	168 22.1	150 19.7	301 39.6	3.70	1.33
12	Provides suggestions for me to improve my instruction.	150 19.7	118 15.5	198 26.0	142 18.7	153 20.1	3.04	1.39
13	Provides time for various nonteaching responsibilities.	79 10.4	65 8.5	155 20.4	197 25.9	265 34.8	3.66	1.32
14	Provides adequate planning time.	35 4.6	47 6.2	121 15.9	227 29.8	331 43.5	4.01	1.13
15	Provides extra assistance when I become overloaded.	174 22.9	128 16.8	167 21.9	132 17.3	160 21.0	2.97	1.45
16	Equally distributes resources and unpopular chores.	204 26.8	121 15.9	132 17.3	142 18.7	162 21.3	2.92	1.50

Legend: 1 = *I strongly disagree*; 2 = *I disagree*; 3 = *I neither agree nor disagree*; 4 = *I agree*; 5 = *I strongly agree*; *M* = arithmetic mean

For all the items, the range of responses is maximal, which indicates that these items adequately cover the responses across all degrees of agreement (Table 1). The items with the highest assessment score were: 14. *Provides adequate planning time.* (e.g., *time to do curricular planning, etc.*) ($M = 4.01$, $SD = 1.13$) and 10. *Provides opportunities for me to grow professionally.* ($M = 3.91$, $SD = 1.25$). Planning is an obligatory part of the work of every teacher and is implemented at several levels: annual, monthly, weekly, micro and daily. Teachers have autonomy in that part of their work obligations, and they can design their own teaching process and adjust it to the needs and abilities of their classes and the specific needs of individual students. Principals are clearly aware of the fact that planning is extremely important and that teachers should be given sufficient time for it, so they do not put time pressure on them. In addition, owing to high assessments by teachers, principals provide them with sufficient opportunities for professional development. Continuous improvement and development of competencies is crucial to any profession, including the teaching profession. The rapid development of science, arts, and technology requires teacher participation in organized forms of professional development, as well as individual professional development, depending on teachers' preferences, needs, and possibilities. For them to do so, principals need to offer them support in organizing these activities, which they do. In line with what has been said, Faith (2020) maintains that teachers themselves are responsible for their own professional development, whereas school principals are leaders who provide opportunities to support teachers' professional development.

The item with lowest assessment was 16. *Equally distributes resources and unpopular chores.* ($M = 2.92$, $SD = 1.50$). More than a quarter of the teachers (26.8%) *strongly disagreed* with this item, while 15.9% *disagreed*, which indicates a high level of dissatisfaction with the distribution of resources and chores. The perception of fairness is extremely important to employees. Zlatić et al. (2021) reported that the perception of fairness shapes the positive perceptions of an organization, satisfies the need to create a positive self-image and leads to identification with the organization, and, as a result, a greater engagement at work. In line with this, ensuring an equal distribution of resources and chores is necessary for both schools and teachers to function efficiently. Another item with a low score was item 15. *Provides extra assistance when I become overloaded.* ($M = 2.97$, $SD = 1.45$). A significant number of teachers feel that they are not given assistance from the principal when they need it. Indeed, principals have many obligations, tasks, and activities they need to complete, but teachers expect them, as managers, to notice when they are overloaded and to react and provide appropriate assistance.

It should be noted that the two items with low scores have the highest standard deviations, which indicates a high level of dispersion. This means that a certain number of teachers expressed disagreement, whereas a significant number of teachers expressed agreement with these items. This could indicate that not all teachers receive equal treatment by principals, and that some of them are in a more favourable position.

Table 2

Descriptive values of the Principal Support Scale (N = 761)

	M	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	min	max	Kolmogorov-Smirnov d index
Principal support	3.50	1.13	-.383	-.932	1.00	5.00	.093

The average result for the Principal Support Scale was calculated on the basis of the items it is composed of. As shown in Table 2, there is a slight left skewed distribution, which, in line with the direction of the scale, indicates positive teacher perceptions of principal support. In addition, in line with the variability coefficient, there is a platykurtic distribution, which indicates a lower level of homogeneity in the characteristics of the subject measured. According to the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, there is a significant deviation of the results from normal distribution. Nevertheless, the scale has satisfactory skewness and kurtosis indices (Kline, 2011), and the size is large. Marusteri and Bacarea (2010) noted that *t-tests* and ANOVA tests yield correct results even in cases where distribution is near a Gaussian

distribution, especially for large samples (e.g., $N > 100$) such as this one. This is why parametric statistics were applied in further data analyses.

Table 3

Differences in T-test values for principal support in terms of workplace (N = 761)

	RN (n = 268)		PN (n = 493)		t	p	Cohen d
	M	SD	M	SD			
Principal support	3.50	1.10	3.51	1.15	-.057	.954	0.004

$p < 0.05$

T-test was applied (Table 3) to examine the differences in teacher perceptions of principal support in terms of the workplace. According to the obtained results, there is no statistically significant difference in the perceived principal support between classroom teachers and subject teachers.

Despite the expectation that subject teachers would perceive a lower level of principal support, this was not the case. Teacher education study programmes for subject teachers include more courses designed to develop professional competencies instead of pedagogical competencies. On the other hand, during their initial education, classroom teachers take more pedagogical courses and acquire broader pedagogical competencies, so it was expected that they would not need as much principal support as subject teachers would need. In addition, developmental characteristics of younger students are less challenging for teachers than are the characteristics of students in higher grades of primary school, with whom subject teachers work. In Grades 5–8, students often go through puberty in a very intense way, and they find it difficult to accept authority, thus, it was expected that subject teachers would report an insufficient level of perceived principal support. Nevertheless, there were no differences in their perceptions. A reason for that might be that principals balance well the needs of the classroom and the needs of subject teachers, providing them with the exact amount and kind of support they expect.

Table 4

Differences in principal support in terms of teachers' age – ANOVA

	≤ 30 (n = 77)		31 – 40 (n = 270)		41 – 50 (n = 236)		51 – 60 (n = 160)		≥ 60 (n = 18)		F	p	eta ²
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD			
Principal support	3.66	1.16	3.52	1.11	3.39	1.89	3.55	1.01	3.58	1.39	1.133	.340	.006

$p < 0.05$

To address the third research problem, the sample was divided into five groups, according to the participants' age. The first group consisted of participants up to 30 years of age, the second group consisted of the participants aged 31 – 40 years, the third group consisted of participants aged 41 – 50 years, the fourth group consisted of participants aged 51 – 60 years, and the fifth group consisted of participants aged 60 years and over.

To avoid the risk of Type 1 error due to a range of ANOVA tests, the Bonferroni correction was applied. For each dependent variable 10 differences between all pairs of groups were calculated, so the minimum p values of at least 0.005 for 5% risk and 0.001 for 1% risk should be considered significant. As shown in Table 4, there is no statistically significant difference in the perceived principal support in terms of the teachers' age.

Notably, the results of some previous studies confirmed the differences in principal support in terms of teachers' age. For example, Sanches et al. (2022) carried out research in the United States to examine, among other things, teacher perceptions of principal leadership. The research was carried out on a sample of 334 participants. In general, the participants were satisfied with the principal support. However, certain differences were detected in perceptions of principal support in terms of some demographic variables of teachers – teachers who were older than 41 years and who had more years of work experience perceived a lower level of principal support and engagement than their younger colleagues did. Additionally, teachers with a lower level of education (those with bachelor's degree) perceived more positive principal support than did teachers with a higher level of education.

Table 5

Differences in principal support in terms of teachers' years of work experience – ANOVA

	0 – 10 (<i>n</i> = 250)		11 – 20 (<i>n</i> = 274)		21 – 30 (<i>n</i> = 167)		> 30 (<i>n</i> = 70)		<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	eta ²
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>			
Principal support	3.63	1.10	3.40	1.18	3.51	1.11	3.46	1.06	1.750	.155	.007

$p < 0.05$

To determine the differences in principal support in terms of their years of work experience, teachers were divided into four groups: up to 10 years of work experience, 11 – 20 years of work experience, 21 – 30 years of work experience, and more than 30 years of work experience.

To avoid the risk of Type 1 error due to a range of ANOVA tests, the Bonferroni correction was applied. For each dependent variable 6 differences

between all pairs of groups were calculated, so p values of at least 0.008 for 5% risk and 0.002 for 1% risk should be considered significant. The results presented in Table 5 indicate that there is no statistically significant difference in the perceived principal support in terms of the teachers' years of work experience. Nevertheless, teachers with fewer years of work experience perceive a somewhat higher level of principal support, but this difference is not statistically significant. A possible explanation is that principals offer more or less the same amount of support to all teachers, but they still offer more support to novice teachers and those with fewer years of work experience. Another possible explanation is that younger teachers ask for more support as they feel insecure. These findings are not in line with those of the study carried out by Caspersen and Raaen (2014). Through quantitative and qualitative research they obtained surprising results indicating that novice teachers tend to receive less support than their more experienced colleagues do. Unfortunately, the findings obtained in other studies (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007) also highlight a lack of support for novice teachers. In future studies carried out in the Croatian educational context, it would be important to pay more attention to this topic.

Table 6

Differences in principal support in terms of the school size – ANOVA

	≤ 150 (n = 109)		151 – 300 (n = 165)		301 – 500 (n = 205)		501 – 750 (n = 186)		≥ 751 (n = 96)		F	p	eta ²
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD			
Principal support	3.73	1.15	3.52	1.13	3.44	1.09	3.56	1.12	3.24	1.16	2.712	.029	.014

$p < 0.05$

The schools were divided into 5 categories according to their size (number of students). Table 6 shows that the smallest number of teachers in the participant sample are employed in large schools, with more than 751 students. To avoid the risk of Type 1 error due to a range of ANOVA tests, the Bonferroni correction was applied. For each dependent variable 10 differences between the pairs of all groups were calculated, so p values of at least 0.005 for 5% risk and 0.001 for 1% risk were considered significant (Table 6). The obtained results indicate no statistically significant difference in the perceived principal support in terms of the size of the school in which teachers work. Every school has its own specificities, so it can be assumed that principals take them into consideration and that they provide the necessary support. In addition, the local community could play a significant role in providing support to school

principals and helping them perform their work at a high quality level and in accordance with the expectations of their employees.

Nevertheless, the results of the research carried out in the Republic of Croatia are different. The analysis of how teachers perceive the flexibility and authority of principals was carried out on a stratified representative sample of primary schools in Split-Dalmatia County and revealed that teachers from smaller schools (< 400 students) perceive lower levels of both variables, than do teachers from larger schools (> 800 students) (Blažević, 2014).

CONCLUSION

The research has shown that primary school teachers perceive a relatively high level of principal support and that there are no differences in perceptions in terms of workplace, teachers' age and years of work experience, the size of the school in which they work. According to the obtained results, teachers perceive the same level of principal support regardless of the variables included in this research. This could be explained by the developed competencies of principals for their function of the school leaders. All principals must have at least 5 years of previous work experience in educational institutions, which is a good starting point for understanding the necessity of providing support to teachers.

The obtained results could be used to empower the competencies of principals, as some items received lower assessments, creating room for improvement. This is related primarily to a more just distribution of resources and chores, and to providing assistance to teachers when they feel overloaded. Principals should be able to detect these situations and act accordingly, as soon as possible, to minimize potential negative effects.

While interpreting the results, it is important to consider several limitations. First, the sample size was convenient, so the results cannot be generalized. Another limitation is that principal qualities were not taken into consideration. Delgado (2014, as cited in Pažur et al., 2020) noted that certain principal qualities, such as years of work experience as the principal, can have an impact on their ability to run the school. In addition, other variables, such as the principal's gender, age, years of work experience, and professional development were not taken into consideration. Principal support and support for the principal could be reversible processes, so future studies could focus on a deeper examination of their mutual relationship. Therefore, this research could provide an incentive for new, more comprehensive research which would result in new knowledge.

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<https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2892-6548>**MOGUĆNOSTI UNAPRJEĐENJA NASTAVNE PRAKSE
PRIMJENOM ISTRAŽIVAČKOG UČENJA**

Sažetak: *Suvremeno društvo, kojega je sustav obrazovanja sastavni dio, suočava se sa sve dinamičnijim obrazovnim izazovima 21. stoljeća. Upravo se implementacija istraživačkog pristupa nastavi nameće kao jedan od odgovora na takve potrebe. Odmakom od tradicionalnog načina poučavanja moguće je unaprijediti kvalitetu učenja i poučavanja, potaknuti aktivnu ulogu učenika i time doprinijeti cjelovitom razvoju njihovih kompetencija koje ih pripremaju za život. U odgojno-obrazovnom kontekstu učenicima je nužno osiguravati prikladno iskustvo za razvoj kompetencija i vještina potrebnih za učinkovito istraživačko učenje. Metode istraživačkog učenja uvelike mogu doprinijeti razvoju vještina rješavanja problema i kritičkog mišljenja kod učenika, što se iz škole prenosi i u svakodnevne aktivnosti. Zato je u stvaranju poticajnog i dinamičnog okružja za učenje i uključivanje učenika u istraživačke procese ključna uloga učitelja. On vodi, usmjerava i pruža potporu učenicima u samostalnim problemskim zadatcima i u zaključivanju, pri čemu oni stječu spoznaje o svijetu koji ih okružuje.*

Ključne riječi: *istraživački pristup, tradicionalna nastava, uloga učitelja, vještine kritičkog mišljenja*

UVOD

Današnje učenike ne možemo poučavati na isti način kao što su poučavani oni prije nekoliko godina i desetljeća. Jedna od ključnih sastavnica jest da učenici

trebaju biti aktivni sudionici procesa učenja, samoregulirati ga i preuzimati odgovornost za njega. Kako se navodi kod Gholama (2019), istraživačko učenje nastavni je pristup u kojem učenici upotrebljavaju smislene zadatke, kao što su samostalni zadatci, projekti i istraživanja za kontekstualno učenje, pri čemu se od učenika očekuje suradnja kako bi riješili problemski zadatak i stekli istraživačke vještine. Ta koncepcija uključuje istraživanje, razmišljanje i propitivanje, odnosno eksperimentiranje s različitim mogućnostima do kojih će učenici doći. Oni povezuju prethodno i sadašnje znanje sa stvarnim iskustvima, uče postavljati pretpostavke i djelovati svrhovito kako bi razumjeli proces. Uče prikupljati podatke i objašnjavati što su otkrili istraživanjem. Koriste se znanstvenom metodom za izradu i testiranje teorija za rješavanje problema na razne načine zauzimajući se za svoja stajališta i argumentirajući ih (Rubio i Conesa, 2022). Serafin i sur. (2015) definiraju istraživačko učenje kao pristup koji uključuje različite motivacijske metode, organizacijske oblike i problemsko učenje gdje učitelj ne prenosi nastavni sadržaj uporabom prezentacije, već potiče stvaranje znanja rješavanjem problema i postavljanjem pitanja.

Istraživačko učenje teži uključivanju učenika u proces autentičnoga znanstvenog otkrića. S pedagoškog aspekta složeni znanstveni proces podijeljen je na manje, logički povezane cjeline koje usmjeravaju učenike i skreću pozornost na bitne značajke znanstvenog mišljenja (Pedaste i sur., 2015). Istraživanje pruža mogućnostima učenicima i učiteljima inicirati i provoditi vlastita istraživanja, a stečene nove spoznaje potpomažu im u analizi i raspravi, što potiče većinu učenika na dublje uključivanje u nastavu i bolje razumijevanje samog procesa. Sloboda odabira istraživanja (unutar postavljenih opcija) i načina upravljanja procesom smatra se vrlo korisnom (Major, 2012). U istraživačkom učenju učitelji postavljaju otvorena pitanja kako bi potaknuli aktivnu raspravu i sudjelovanje učenika, a učenici uglavnom nude raznolike odgovore u kontekstu otvorenog učenja. U takvom okruženju aktivnog učenja učenici mogu slobodno postavljati kreativna pitanja te kombinirati prethodno usvojeno znanje i trenutačno iskustvo za istraživanje podataka i odnosa kako bi razvili novo znanje i produbili razumijevanje postojećeg. Najčešće su učitelji s višegodišnjim iskustvom uspješniji u primjeni istraživačkih metoda u nastavi, dok se učitelji početnici često nalaze pred izazovom da uspješno odgovore i objasne odgovore učenicima na jednostavan i smislen način, a time im ujedno ponude i gotovo rješenje (Chowdhury, 2016).

Istraživačko učenje učenicima predstavlja poseban izazov tijekom kojega mogu naučiti razne informacije, pratiti svoje učenje i istražiti problem traženjem rješenja. Međutim, kada se učenici susreću s problemima tijekom procesa implementacije, osnovna znanja, koncepti i sposobnosti pomažu im u prevladavanju i dovršavanju zadataka. Iako su mnoge informacije dostupne na internetu, za učitelje je nužno usvojiti niz strategija kako bi potaknuli kod učenika sposobnosti rješavanja problema i kako bi im pomogli u konstruiranju

i primjeni vlastitog znanja (Fan i Ye, 2022). Osim kognitivnih, mogu razvijati psihomotorne i afektivne sposobnosti učenika. Istraživačko učenje temeljeno je na pretpostavci da učenici imaju urođenu potrebu za traženjem i pronalaženjem vlastitog znanja. Glavni cilj istraživačkog učenja jest pomoći učenicima da vođeni znatiželjom razviju intelektualne i misaone vještine postavljanjem pitanja i dobivanjem odgovora (Andrini, 2016).

U pristupu istraživačkom učenju od učitelja se očekuje da kontinuirano prati i vrednuje učenike i, ako je potrebno, usmjerava ih određenim aktivnostima kako bi im pomogao oblikovati vlastito učenje u svakoj fazi procesa poučavanja i učenja. Od učenika se očekuje da preuzimaju važne uloge i da planiraju, provode i vrednuju vlastite procese učenja. Nadalje, očekuje se da se ponašaju kao istraživači, surađuju unutar skupine, razvijaju teorije i prikupljaju podatke za testiranje teorija, donose rezultate i dijele s drugima svoje zaključke (Božar, 2019).

Pedaste i sur. (2015) sustavnim pregledom literature koja se odnosi na istraživačko učenje predlažu pet različitih općih faza istraživanja: orijentacija, konceptualizacija, provedba istraživanja, zaključak i rasprava. Liu i sur. (2020) opisuju četiri vrste istraživačkog učenja: inicijalno (učenicima se unaprijed daju pitanja, postupci i rješenja), strukturirano (učenicima se daju pitanja i postupci, a oni dolaze do rješenja na temelju prikupljenih dokaza), vođeno (učenicima se daju pitanja, a oni osmišljavaju postupke i generiraju rješenja) i otvoreno (učenici razvijaju vlastita pitanja, osmišljavaju i provode istraživanja te iznose rezultate). Autori ističu da u vođenom i otvorenom istraživanju učenici razvijaju dublje znanstveno razmišljanje i zaključivanje.

METODOLOGIJA

Ovaj rad daje pregled literature o primjeni istraživačkog pristupa u nastavi i odgojno-obrazovnom kontekstu. Cilj je bio ispitati važnost i primjenjivost još uvijek slabo zastupljenoga pedagoškog pristupa, istraživačkog učenja, u suvremenim uvjetima obrazovnog procesa. Osim toga, analizirali smo njegove mogućnosti, prednosti i izazove u okružju netradicionalnog učenja. U radu se daje pregled značajki istraživačkog učenja te promjena i pogodnosti koje ono donosi za učenike i učitelje. Analizirali smo studije vezane uz istraživački pristup u nastavi koje su provedene u posljednjih desetak godina, posebno se usmjeravajući na sljedeća tri pitanja:

1. Koje su glavne karakteristike istraživačkog učenja?
2. Kako istraživačko učenje utječe na učenike?
3. Koje su prednosti istraživačkog učenja?

Pretraživali smo sljedeće znanstvene baze podataka: EBSCOhost, ERIC, Google Scholar, J-Store, SAGE i ScienceDirect. U prvoj su fazi početne ključne riječi identificirane na temelju znanja istraživača o tom području. To uključuje učitelja, istraživačko učenje, prednosti istraživačkog pristupa u

nastavi te vještine kritičkog mišljenja. Za pohranu odabrane literature rabljena je besplatna aplikacija Zotero (<https://www.zotero.org/>). Za odabir radova koji će se upotrebljavati u ovom radu rabljena je besplatna web aplikacija Rayyan (Ouzzani i sur., 2016). U sljedećoj fazi oba su autora samostalno odabrala relevantan popis literature. Njihova prihvatljivost procijenjena je s pomoću sljedećih kriterija za studije uključene u njihove uzorke: a) godina objavljivanja od 2013. do 2023.; b) metodologije istraživanja: kvantitativne, kvalitativne, mješovite metode, sustavni pregled literature i pregledni članci; c) istraživanja provedena u školi; d) studije na engleskom jeziku. Odabran je 31 članak za dublju analizu. Literaturu o istraživačkom nastavnom pristupu organizirali smo u dvije dimenzije relevantne za cilj istraživanja: značajke istraživačkog učenja i istraživačka nastava (Tablica 1).

Tablica 1.*Dimenzije odgojno-obrazovne prakse*

Dimenzije odgojno - obrazovne prakse	Literatura
Značajke istraživačkog učenja	Aghazadeh (2020) Andrini (2016) Attard, Berger i Mackenzie (2021) Duran i Dökme (2016) Gholam (2019) Hofer i Lembens (2019) Kang i Keimonen (2016) Khalaf i Zin (2018) Loizou i Lee (2020) Prayogi i Wasis (2018) Şen, Ay i Güler (2021) Şerafin i sur. (2015) Shamsudin, Abdullah i Yaamat (2013) Smallhorn, Young, Hunter i da Silva (2015) Susilowati, Sajidan i Ramli (2018) Wheatley (2018) Vieira, Flores, da Silva, Almeida i Vilaça (2021)
Istraživačka nastava	Abdi (2014) Bailey (2018) Bayram, Oskay, Erdem, Özgür i Şen (2013) Boğar (2019) Fan i Ye (2022) Friesen i Scott (2013) Kuklok (2016) LePage-Kljajic (2019) Rubio i Conesa (2022) Sotiriou, Lazoudis i Bogner (2020) Suduc, Bizoi i Gorghiu (2015) Thaiposri i Wannapiroon (2015) Wang, Wu, Yu i Lin (2015) Wilson (2020)

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U ovom odlomku kritički detaljno raspravljamo o literaturi o istraživačkom učenju na temelju dimenzija koje su identificirane, dakle o značajkama istraživačkog učenja i istraživačkoj nastavi. Pregled daje sažetak sadržaja istraživačkog učenja koji uključuje relevantan opis istraživačkog pristupa u nastavi, kao i njegovu cjelokupnu perspektivu, argument ili svrhu.

ZNAČAJKE ISTRAŽIVAČKOG UČENJA

Istraživačko je učenje prije svega način razmišljanja. Samim time zahtijeva duboku promjenu u vrijednostima utemeljenim u obrazovanju. Predstavljajući mnogo više od tehnike poučavanja, ono kultivira pojedince sposobne za kritičko razmišljanje, rješavanje problema i donošenje dobro obrazloženih odluka u društvenom i osobnom životu (Aghazadeh, 2020). Osim što se pokazalo učinkovitim za poboljšanje vještina kritičkog mišljenja učenika (Susilowati i sur., 2018; Prayogi i Wasis, 2018), istraživačko učenje doprinosi razvoju samostalnosti kod učenika, potičući ih da preuzimaju odgovornost za vlastito učenje. Poticanje razvoja samostalnosti kod učenika podrazumijeva pružanje mogućnosti formuliranja i istraživanja pitanja na temelju dokaza. Na temelju načela znanstvene metode, učenici promatraju fenomen/pojavu, sintetiziraju istraživačka pitanja, testiraju ta pitanja na ponovljiv način i na kraju analiziraju i priopćuju svoja otkrića (Smallhorn i sur., 2015). Slično zaključuju Duran i Dökme (2016) koji smatraju da taj pristup ima pozitivniji učinak na razinu kritičkog razmišljanja učenika te da tradicionalna nastava, svedena na učenje iz udžbenika ne rezultira značajnim poboljšanjem kritičkog mišljenja učenika. Smatraju da aktivno sudjelovanje učenika u nastavi sudjelovanjem u nastavnim aktivnostima i odgovaranjem na pitanja unutar i među grupnim raspravama pozitivno pridonosi razvoju njihovog kritičkog mišljenja. Nadalje, rezultati istraživanja koje su proveli Şen, Ay i Güler (2021) pokazuju da primjenom istraživačkog učenja učenici pokazuju napredak u vještinama zaključivanja, objašnjavanja te razvoju i generalizaciji operativnih strategija. Učenici su dolazili do rješenja problema iz stvarnog života koristeći se različitim strategijama u procesu istraživačkog učenja deduktivnim i induktivnim zaključivanjem na temelju svog postojećeg znanja i iskustava.

Khalaf i Zin (2018) sustavnim pregledom literature utvrđuju ključne nedostatke tradicionalnih modela i modela istraživačkog učenja koji utječu na njihovu učinkovitost. Dok je tradicionalni model učenja naišao na nedostatke u učenikovu znanju, vještinama, kompetencijama i ishodima, model istraživačkog učenja nailazi na ozbiljne nedostatke u pogledu svoje primjene i funkcije. Nedostaci istraživačkog učenja tijekom njegove primjene povezani su s funkcioniranjem odgojno-obrazovnog sustava, kurikulomom i ulogom učitelja, sposobnošću učenika da primjenjuju tehnologiju u učenju i reguliraju

aktivnostima učenja. Vieira i sur. (2021) propitujući prednosti i nedostatke modela istraživačkog učenja, utvrđuju kako on promiče razvoj istraživačkih kompetencija, višestrukog znanja i osobnih vizija obrazovanja temeljenih na humanističkim i demokratskim vrijednostima, što može poboljšati profesionalnu djelatnost učitelja. U istraživanju koje provode Loizou i Lee (2020) učitelji, učenici i roditelji iskazuju pozitivna mišljenja i slažu se da je interakcija tijekom nastave u istraživačkom učenju ključna za razumijevanje svrhe nastavnih aktivnosti. Učenici i učitelji smatraju da su aktivnosti bile zanimljivije, motivirajuće i privlačnije od onih u tradicionalnoj nastavi, posebice uz uporabu tehnologije.

Učitelji se susreću s nedostatkom autonomije i vremena u pripremi i provođenju aktivnosti istraživačkog učenja, ali i nedovoljnim i neprimjerenim stručnim usavršavanjem vezanim uz tu tematiku (Kang i Keinonen, 2016). Hofer i Lembens (2019) smatraju kako pomno osmišljen program stručnog usavršavanja mijenja uvjerenja i stavove učitelja o istraživačkom učenju i njegovoj primjeni u nastavi. Rezultati istraživanja pokazuju da potpora učiteljima u planiranju, provedbi i promišljanju istraživačkog učenja omogućuje upoznavanje s procesima propitivanja i implementacije istraživačkog učenja kao učinkovitog pristupa nastavi. Attard i sur. (2021) provode istraživanje o uočenim utjecajima istraživačkog učenja na angažman učenika, što je omogućeno profesionalnim učenjem učitelja u kontekstu dvaju glavnih infrastrukturnih programa. Rezultati istraživanja pokazuju utjecaj programa profesionalnog učenja na razumijevanje učitelja o osmišljavanju i provedbi istraživačkog učenja unutar STEM disciplina. To je rezultiralo značajnim pomacima u odnosu na postojeće prakse, što je posljedično rezultiralo uočenim promjenama u angažmanu učenika u okviru operativnih, kognitivnih i afektivnih razvojnih područja. Čini se da percipirana povećanja angažmana utječu na njihovu sposobnost da primijene prethodno naučeno u okviru relevantnog i zanimljivog konteksta.

Učenici bolje uče kada mogu birati među aktivnostima i kada mogu prilagoditi te aktivnosti vlastitim stilovima učenja. Konkretno, istraživačko učenje omogućuje učiteljima da prilagode razinu samostalnosti učenika, dopuštajući im da vode učenike u procesu učenju (Wheatley, 2018). Uloga učitelja samo je posrednička, on pomaže učenicima u učenju i uporabi vještina vlastitog procesa za stjecanje više razine znanja. Nužno je da učitelj ima cjelovitu sliku o tome kako se odvija proces poučavanja i učenja te koji su koraci potrebni kako bi se zadatci mogli kvalitetno obaviti i kako bi se mogli postići očekivani rezultati. Strategije poučavanja i učenja ocrtavaju način djelovanja kako bi se postigli zacrtani ciljevi (Andrini, 2016). Serafin i sur. (2015) problem vide uglavnom u učiteljevu razmišljanju o nastavnoj praksi. Očitom ističu inerciju i preuzimanje već ranije zahvaćenih pasivnih stilova u obrazovanju koje je teško promijeniti u progresivne nastavne pristupe. To dovodi do povećane potrebe za razvojem pojedinih kompetencija u područjima specifičnih didaktičkih disciplina.

Primjena istraživačkog učenja učitelja koji je motiviran, entuzijastičan i voljan iznova propitivati i modelirati obrasce razmišljanja omogućuje učenicima uključenost u razrednu kulturu koja poboljšava suradnju, rješavanje problema, refleksiju, diferencijaciju, motivaciju i iznad svega, primjenu znanja i vještina u novim izazovima (Gholam, 2019). Kang i Keinonen (2016) kao zajedničke i snažne pretkazatelje za provedbu istraživačkog učenja ističu suradnju učitelja i njihovo povjerenje u vlastito poučavanje zbog njegova pozitivnog učinka na postignuća i motivaciju učenika. Nadalje, uporaba komunikacijskih, suradničkih vještina i misaonih vještina ključna je u procesu poučavanja (Šen i sur., 2021). Shamsudin i sur. (2013) u provedenom istraživanju utvrđuju kako su svi učitelji bili zadovoljni odabirom tog pristupa poučavanju. Ne samo da su se osjećali donekle uspješnima u smislu nastavnog sadržaja koji namjeravaju poučavati, već su bili i zadovoljni reakcijama učenika, posebno namjerom da postavljaju pitanja, kao i radnim ozračjem u kojemu se odvijala rasprava i razmjena informacija.

ISTRAŽIVAČKA NASTAVA

Bognar i Matijević (2005) istraživačku nastavu definiraju kao onu u kojoj učenici samostalnim istraživanjem dolaze do novih spoznaja. Činjenica je da je internet ubrzao i olakšao protok informacija te ih učinio dostupnijima učenicima. Izravan pristup bazama podataka i digitaliziranim izvorima kao što su povijesni arhivi, virtualni muzeji i virtualni atlasi podržavaju proces istraživanja jer učenici mogu razviti vještine disciplinarnog istraživanja promatranjem, tumačenjem i analizom podataka iz tih izvora (Aghazadeh, 2020). Rezultati istraživanja (Thaiposri i Wannapiroon, 2015) pokazuju da informacijske i komunikacijske tehnologije igraju važnu ulogu u poticanju učenja učenika u 21. stoljeću. Osim toga, upućuju na to da poboljšanje vještina kritičkog razmišljanja aktivnostima istraživačkog učenja uz primjenu društvenih mreža pomaže učenicima razviti znanja i vještine koje će im biti potrebne za postizanje uspjeha u tehnološki razvijenom dobu. Uporaba digitalnih platformi u istraživačkom učenju omogućava djelotvorno vrednovanje napretka učenika u učenju, praćenje njihovih reakcija, poticanje interesa učenika i stjecanje uvida u procese rješavanja problema. U takvom dubinskom učenju, koje opisuje dugotrajno, održivo i uspješno stečeno kognitivno znanje, važni su svi koraci koje učenici poduzimaju kako bi riješili problem (razumijevanje i karakterizacija problema, predstavljanje problema, rješavanje problema te promišljanje i komuniciranje rješenja) (Sotiriou i sur., 2020).

Većina je učenika pasivnija, bojažljivija ili sramežljivija prilikom izražavanja svojega mišljenja, što svakako može narušiti nesmetano učenje i kreativnost učenika u učenju (Andrini, 2016). Učenici najčešće stječu informacije bez propitivanja i internaliziranja, a zbog pasivne pozicije u kojoj se nalaze, ne mogu

naučiti kako učiti (Božar, 2019). Istraživačko učenje podrazumijeva odmak od tradicionalne nastave u kojoj uglavnom dominira izravna i jednostrana pouka, odnosno činjenično znanje koje učenici moraju upoznati i slijepo prihvaćati. Osim toga, takav pristup potiče zanimanje učenika, zahtijeva od njih rješavanje problema logičnim razmišljanjima i potkrepljenjem dokazima, potiče ih na daljnje proučavanje kako bi razvili detaljnija objašnjenja i naglašava važnost objašnjenja na temelju dokaza (Abdi, 2014).

Nekoliko istraživanja u nastavku govori o pozitivnom utjecaju istraživačkog učenja na postignuća učenika. Rezultati istraživanja koje je proveo Abdi (2014) upućuju na to da postoji značajna razlika između razina postignuća učenika koji su poučavani metodom istraživačkog učenja i učenika koji su se obrazovali tradicionalnim metodama poučavanja. Drugim riječima, učenici koji su se koristili istraživačkim učenjem postali su uspješniji od učenika koji su primjenjivali tradicionalne metode poučavanja. Raznovrsna i opsežna istraživanja u sustavnom pregledu literature (Friesen i Scott, 2013) ukazuju na to da različiti pristupi istraživačkog učenja pozitivno utječu na sposobnost učenika da razumiju temeljne koncepte i postupke te stvaraju zanimljivije okruženje za učenje. Potrebno je potaknuti niz strategija kako bi se povećao učinak istraživačkog učenja poput razvojnih aktivnosti, formativnih povratnih informacija i istraživačkih metoda važnih za proces učenja. Istraživanje koje provodi LePage-Kljajic (2019) također potvrđuje da istraživačko učenje ima pozitivan učinak na postignuća učenika, posebno zbog grupne dinamike i komunikacijskih aspekata koji su uključeni u istraživanje. Istraživačke aktivnosti motiviraju učenike na konstruiranje, argumentiranje i vrednovanje vlastitih objašnjenja te predstavljaju učinkovit način za suočavanje s pogrešnim predodžbama. Osim toga, razvijaju vještine kritičkog mišljenja koje će prenositi dalje u mnogim aspektima života i nakon osnovnoškolskog i srednjoškolskog obrazovanja.

Rezultati istraživanja (Wang i sur., 2015) pokazuju da primjena istraživačkog učenja pri poučavanju ima pozitivan utjecaj na motivaciju i zanimanje učenika za učenje te potvrđuju važnost konteksta školskog okruženja s obzirom na učinak provedbe poučavanja. Drugim riječima, različita okruženja različito utječu na učinke primjene istraživačkog učenja pri poučavanju. Do sličnih rezultata dolazi i Wheatley (2018) koja zaključuje da u usporedbi s tradicionalnim poučavanjem istraživačko vodi boljem angažmanu učenika tijekom nastave, poboljšanom kritičkom mišljenju, unaprjeđenim postignućima, boljim stavovima prema učenju i boljem razumijevanju znanja te njihovom općem zadovoljstvu. Nadalje, istraživanje koje provodi Wilson (2020) pokazuje da primjena istraživačkog učenja ima pozitivan i izravan odnos s postignućima učenika. Učenici mogu iskustiti dublje razumijevanje u praktičnom i iskustvenom učenju koje ima sveukupnu pozitivnu korist na prisjećanje i zadržavanje znanja. Suduc i sur. (2015) također dokazuju da je primjena istraživačkog učenja pri poučavanju

različitih aspekata relevantnija za učenike od uobičajene nastave. Osim toga, pokazuju da je za učenike osnovne škole važno sudjelovati u nastavnim satima koji su zanimljivi, ali i razumjeti materiju te sudjelovati u aktivnostima koje su im korisne u svakodnevnom životu.

Do sličnih rezultata dolazi i Bailey (2018), koji utvrđuje da je nastava usmjerena na istraživačko učenje uspješna u poboljšanju školskog uspjeha učenika. Na taj način učenicima je omogućeno više vremena za pitanja i raspravu o temi s vršnjacima i učiteljem. U većoj su mjeri uključeni u suradničke aktivnosti koje im omogućuju da kritički razmišljaju. Učenici su željniji sudjelovanja u aktivnostima i uspješniji u ispunjavanju aktivnosti kada imaju one koji ih podržavaju i vode kroz istraživački proces. Temeljem rezultata istraživanja Rubio i Conesa (2022) zaključuju da je najbolji način učenja istraživanjem. Do izražaja dolazi visoka razina užitka i interesa većine učenika za to istraživanje, ali i njihove ocjene koje su bile izvrsne ili vrlo dobre. Rezultati pokazuju da je više od 83 % učenika nakon nekog vremena bolje pamtilo pojmove i detalje više kognitivne razine. Na taj način učenicima je omogućeno intenzivnije učenje, pri čemu im je dopušteno da znanje o određenoj temi upotrijebe i primjene u drukčijoj situaciji. Osim što potiču motivaciju i aktivnost kod učenika te poboljšava njihove stavove o učenju, dobro postavljena problemska pitanja u okviru istraživačkog učenja doprinose razvoju učenja s razumijevanjem (Bayram i sur., 2013). Rezultati istraživanja (Fan i Ye, 2022) pokazuju da učenici pozitivno ocjenjuju opisani model učenja jer im pomaže u unaprijeđenju vlastitog samopouzdanja u istraživanju, kao i u rješavanju problema (Kuklok, 2016).

ZAKLJUČAK

Tradicionalni modeli učenja sve više nailaze na određene nedostatke koji se posljedično odražavaju na usvajanje znanja učenika i ishode njihova učenja. To je svakako pogodovalo implementaciji novih modela učenja koji doprinose promjenama stilova i pristupa učenja usmjeravajući ih na učenika, a ne na učitelja. Jedan od tih modela zasigurno je i model istraživačkog učenja. Neosporno je da je implementacija učinkovitih aktivnosti istraživačkog učenja prilično izazovan zadatak s obzirom da učenicima prilično nedostaju vještine više kognitivne razine. Važno je napomenuti i kako povećai opseg nastavnih sadržaja osporava i otežava organizaciju nastavnog procesa u čijem je središtu istraživačko učenje. Ipak, danas se u školama primjenjuju razne metode i tehnike poučavanja s ciljem dubljeg razumijevanja i primjene koncepta, čime se želi unaprijediti nastavni proces. Takav pristup poučavanju razvija istraživačke vještine i stavove koji će učenicima biti primjenjivi u svakodnevnim situacijama.

Visokoj razini angažiranosti učenika pri rješavanju istraživačkih zadataka treba prethoditi njihova spremnost za to, kao i temeljita priprema učitelja,

njihovo razumijevanje o implementaciji metode istraživačkog učenja te opremljenost kabineta/škole nastavnim materijalima. Stoga je važno da taj pristup poučavanju bude osmišljen i ostvaren tako da kod učenika potiče razvoj istraživačkih vještina i stavova koje će oni moći primijeniti u svakodnevnim životnim okolnostima. Sposobnost kritičkog mišljenja, postavljanje pitanja, analiziranje, povezivanje i zaključivanje samo su neki od potencijala koji se kod učenika mogu razviti provedbom istraživačke nastave. Samim time, metode istraživačkog učenja mogu potaknuti razvoj sposobnosti organiziranog i samoreguliranog učenja kako bi u procesu učenja učenici postajali sve samostalniji i znali prevladati poteškoće. Zato se njihov doprinos kvalitetnoj nastavnoj praksi ogleda u kontinuiranom preispitivanju odnosa između razvoja znanja učenika, modela učenja i uloge učitelja u nastavi.

Rezultati istraživanja naglašavaju potrebu za suvremenim strategijama poučavanja koje potiču smislene veze, produbljuju razumijevanje, kritičko mišljenje, rješavanje problema i angažman učenika u nastavi. Sukladno tomu, učitelji se u svom radu trebaju usmjeravati na pitanja koja jačaju inovativne obrazovne metode i pristupe u nastavi, a koja učenicima omogućuju sudjelovanje u aktivnostima potičući samoregulirano učenje i nadogradnju vlastitog znanja. Posljedično, potrebno je osmisлити programe stručnog usavršavanja i obrazovanja učitelja koji bi ih potaknuli na implementaciju i integraciju tog pristupa u njihovim nastavnim praksama. Jasno je da taj pristup zahtijeva kontinuirano ulaganje i predanost u radu učitelja izdvajanjem znatnog vremena i truda za implementaciju tog dizajna i stalnih povratnih informacija. Međutim, ako želimo da učenici dobivaju najbolje i najkvalitetnije obrazovanje, ta se ograničenja moraju prevladati. Stoga ovo istraživanje upućuje na odgovornost obrazovnih politika prema osiguravanju stručnog usavršavanja i potpore učiteljima u praktičnoj primjeni istraživačkog učenja kako bi poboljšali svoje znanje i vještine o pedagoškom sadržaju. Uz osiguravanje prikladne potpore uprave škole i obrazovnih politika te uz prilagodbu aktivnosti razvojnim mogućnostima učenika, unaprjeđenje nastavne prakse implementacijom istraživačkog učenja čini se ostvarivim obrazovnim ciljem. Buduća istraživanja mogu ispitati percepcije učenika o učinku istraživačkog učenja na njihovu motivaciju i interes za učenjem.

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POSSIBILITIES FOR IMPROVING TEACHING PRACTICE THROUGH THE APPLICATION OF INQUIRY-BASED LEARNING

Abstract: *Contemporary society, in which the education system is an integral part, is facing increasingly dynamic educational challenges in the 21st century. The implementation of an inquiry-based approach to teaching is emerging as one of the responses to such challenges. By moving away from the traditional way of teaching, it is possible to enhance the quality of learning and teaching, encourage an active role of the students, and thereby contribute to the comprehensive development of their competences that prepare them for life. In the educational context, it is necessary to provide students with a suitable experience for the development of competences and skills needed for effective inquiry-based learning. Inquiry-based learning methods can greatly contribute to the development of problem-solving skills and critical thinking in students who are transferred from school to everyday activities. In creating a stimulating and dynamic learning environment and engaging students in inquiry processes, the role of the teacher is crucial. They lead, guide, and support students in independent problem-solving tasks and in drawing conclusions, enabling them to gain insights into the world around them.*

Keywords: *critical thinking skills, inquiry-based approach, teachers' role, traditional teaching*

INTRODUCTION

Today's students cannot be taught in the same way as those before they were taught a few years and decades ago. One of the key components is that students need to be active participants in the learning process, self-regulate it, and take responsibility for it. Inquiry-based learning, as found in Gholam (2019), is a teaching approach in which students engage in meaningful tasks such as independent tasks, projects, and research for contextual learning, with collaboration expected from students in solving a problem task as well as in acquiring research skills. This concept involves investigation, thinking, and questioning, as well as experimenting with different possibilities that students will explore. They connect prior and current knowledge with real experiences, learn to make assumptions and act purposefully to understand the process. They learn to collect data and explain what they have discovered through inquiry. They use scientific methods to develop and test theories for solving problems in various ways, advocating for their own viewpoints and providing justification for them (Rubio & Conesa, 2022). Serafin et al. (2015) define inquiry-based learning as an approach that involves various motivational methods, organizational forms, and problem-based learning where the teacher does not transmit instructional content via presentation but encourages knowledge creation through problem-solving and questioning.

Inquiry-based learning aims to engage students in the process of authentic scientific discovery. From a pedagogical perspective, the complex scientific process is divided into smaller, logically connected units that guide students and draw attention to important features of scientific thinking (Pedaste et al., 2015). Inquiry provides opportunities for students and teachers to initiate and conduct their own investigations, and the acquired new knowledge supports them in analysis and discussion, encouraging most students to engage more deeply in learning and better understand the process itself. The freedom to choose research (within set options) and the way of managing the process is considered very useful (Major, 2012). In inquiry-based learning, teachers pose open-ended questions to stimulate active discussion and student participation, whereas students typically offer diverse responses within the context of open learning. In such an environment of active learning, students can freely pose creative questions and combine previously acquired knowledge and current experience to explore data and relationships to develop new knowledge and deepen understanding of existing knowledge. Experienced teachers are more successful in implementing inquiry methods in teaching, whereas novice teachers often face the challenge of effectively responding to and explaining answers to students in a simple and meaningful way, thereby offering them a ready solution (Chowdhury, 2016).

Inquiry-based learning presents a unique challenge to students through which they can learn various types of information, monitor their learning, and explore problems by seeking solutions. However, when students encounter challenges during the implementation process, foundational knowledge, concepts, and skills

help them overcome and complete tasks. Although much information is available through the internet, teachers need to adopt a range of strategies to encourage students' problem-solving abilities and to assist them in constructing and applying their own knowledge (Fan & Ye, 2022). In addition to their cognitive skills, they can develop students' psychomotor and affective abilities. Inquiry-based learning is based on the assumption that students have an innate need to seek and find their own knowledge. The main goal of inquiry-based learning is to help students develop intellectual and cognitive skills by being guided by curiosity in asking questions and receiving answers (Andrini, 2016).

In the approach to inquiry-based learning, teachers are expected to continuously monitor and evaluate students and, if necessary, guide them through specific activities to help them develop their own learning at each stage of the teaching and learning process. Students are expected to take on important roles and to plan, implement, and evaluate their own learning processes. Furthermore, they are expected to act as researchers, collaborate within a group, develop theories, and collect data to test theories, present results, and share conclusions with others (Božar, 2019).

Pedaste et al. (2015) propose five different general phases of inquiry through a systematic review of the literature related to inquiry-based learning: orientation, conceptualization, inquiry implementation, conclusion, and discussion. Liu et al. (2020) described four types of inquiry-based learning: initial (students are provided with questions, procedures, and solutions in advance), structured (students are given questions and procedures, and they arrive at solutions based on collected evidence), guided (students are given questions, and they devise procedures and generate solutions), and open (students develop their own questions, devise and conduct research, and present results). The authors emphasize that in guided and open inquiry, students develop deeper scientific thinking and reasoning.

METHODOLOGY

This paper provides an overview of the literature on the application of the inquiry-based approach in teaching and educational contexts. The aim was to examine the significance and applicability of the still underrepresented pedagogical approach, inquiry-based learning, in contemporary educational settings. In addition, we analysed its possibilities, advantages, and challenges in the environment of nontraditional learning. In this paper, an overview of the features of inquiry-based learning, as well as the changes and benefits it brings for both students and teachers, is provided. We analysed studies related to the inquiry approach in teaching conducted in the last decade, with a particular focus on the following three questions:

1. What are the main characteristics of inquiry-based learning?
2. How does inquiry-based learning impact students?
3. What are the advantages of inquiry-based learning?

We searched the following scientific databases: EBSCOhost, ERIC, Google Scholar, J-Store, SAGE, and ScienceDirect. In the first phase, initial keywords were identified on the basis of researchers' knowledge in that area. This includes: teacher, inquiry-based learning, the benefits of the inquiry-based approach in teaching and critical thinking skills. The free application Zotero (<https://www.zotero.org/>) was used for storing selected literature. For the selection of studies to be used in this review, the free web application Rayyan (Ouzzani et al., 2016) was utilized. In the next phase, both authors independently selected a relevant list of literature. Their acceptability was assessed via the following criteria for studies included in their samples: a) publication year from 2013 to 2023; b) research methodologies: quantitative, qualitative, mixed methods, systematic literature review, and review articles; c) studies conducted in schools; d) studies in the English language. Thirty-one articles were selected for in-depth analysis. The literature on the inquiry-based teaching approach was organized into two dimensions relevant to the research aim: characteristics of inquiry-based learning and inquiry-based teaching (Table 1).

Table 1.

Dimensions of educational practice

Dimensions of educational practice	References
Features of inquiry-based learning	Aghazadeh (2020) Andrini (2016) Attard, Berger & Mackenzie (2021) Duran & Dökme (2016) Gholam (2019) Hofer & Lembens (2019) Kang & Keinonen (2016) Khalaf & Zin (2018) Loizou & Lee (2020) Prayogi & Wasis (2018) Şen, Ay & Güler (2021) Serafin et al. (2015) Shamsudin, Abdullah & Yaamat (2013) Smallhorn, Young, Hunter & da Silva (2015) Susilowati, Sajidan & Ramli (2018) Wheatley (2018) Vieira, Flores, da Silva, Almeida & Vilaça (2021)

Table 1. (continued)

Dimensions of educational practice	References
Inquiry-based teaching	Abdi (2014)
	Bailey (2018)
	Bayram, Oskay, Erdem, Özgür & Şen (2013)
	Boğar (2019)
	Fan & Ye (2022)
	Friesen & Scott (2013)
	Kuklok (2016)
	LePage-Kljajic (2019)
	Rubio & Conesa (2022)
	Sotiriou, Lazoudis & Bogner (2020)
	Suduc, Bizoi & Gorghiu (2015)
	Thaiposri & Wannapiroon (2015)
Wang, Wu, Yu & Lin (2015)	
Wilson (2020)	

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this section, we critically discuss the literature on inquiry-based learning on the basis of the identified dimensions, that is, the features of inquiry-based learning and inquiry teaching. The review provides a summary of the content of inquiry-based learning, which includes a relevant description of the inquiry approach in teaching as well as its overall perspective, argument, or purpose.

FEATURES OF INQUIRY-BASED LEARNING

Inquiry-based learning is primarily a way of thinking. Therefore, a profound change in values grounded in education is needed. Representing much more than a teaching technique, it cultivates individuals capable of critical thinking, problem-solving, and making well-reasoned decisions in social and personal life (Aghazadeh, 2020). Inquiry-based learning has not only been shown to be effective in improving students' critical thinking skills (Prayogi & Wasis, 2018; Susilowati et al., 2018), but also to contribute to the development of students' autonomy, encouraging them to take responsibility for their own learning. Fostering the development of autonomy in students involves providing opportunities for formulating and investigating questions based on evidence. On the basis of the principles of the scientific method, students observe a phenomenon, synthesize research questions, test those questions in a replicable manner, and finally analyse and communicate their findings (Smallhorn et al., 2015). Similarly, Duran and Dökme (2016) conclude that this approach has a more positive effect on students' level of critical thinking and that traditional

teaching, which is reduced to textbook learning, does not result in significant improvement in students' critical thinking. Active student participation in class through engaging in instructional activities and responding to questions within and between group discussions positively contributes to the development of their critical thinking. Furthermore, the research findings conducted by Şen et al. (2021) demonstrate that the implementation of inquiry-based learning leads to students making progress in reasoning skills and explanations, as well as in the development and generalization of operational strategies. Students arrive at solutions to real-life problems via various strategies in the process of inquiry-based learning through deductive and inductive reasoning based on their existing knowledge and experiences.

Khalaf and Zin (2018) identified key deficiencies of traditional learning models and inquiry learning models that impact their effectiveness through a systematic literature review. While the traditional learning model has encountered deficiencies in student knowledge, skills, competences, and outcomes, the inquiry learning model faces serious shortcomings in terms of its application and function. The drawbacks of inquiry-based learning during its implementation are associated with the functioning of the educational system, the curriculum, the role of the teacher, the students' ability to apply technology in learning, and the ability to regulate learning activities. Vieira et al. (2021) examining the advantages and disadvantages of the inquiry-based learning model determine how it promotes the development of research competences, multiple knowledges, and personal visions of education based on humanistic and democratic values, which can enhance teachers' professional practice. In a study conducted by Loizou and Lee (2020), teachers, students, and parents expressed positive opinions and agreed that interaction during teaching through inquiry-based learning is crucial for understanding the purpose of educational activities. Compared with traditional teaching, students and teachers believed that the activities were more interesting, motivating, and engaging, especially when technology was used.

Teachers encounter a lack of autonomy and time in preparing and implementing inquiry-based learning activities, as well as insufficient and inadequate professional development related to this topic (Kang & Keinonen, 2016). Hofer and Lembens (2019) reported that a carefully designed professional development program changes teachers' beliefs and attitudes about inquiry-based learning and its application in teaching. Research results show that support for teachers in planning, implementing, and reflecting on inquiry-based learning enables familiarity with the processes of inquiry and the implementation of inquiry-based learning as an effective approach to teaching. Attard, Berger, and Mackenzie (2021) conducted a study on the observed impacts of inquiry-based learning on student engagement, facilitated by teachers' professional learning within the context of two main infrastructure programs.

The research results show the impact of a professional learning program on teachers' understanding of designing and implementing inquiry-based learning within STEM disciplines. This has resulted in significant shifts in relation to existing practices, which subsequently led to observed changes in student engagement within the operational, cognitive, and affective developmental areas. It seems that perceived increases in engagement influence their ability to apply previously learned knowledge within a relevant and interesting context.

Students learn better when they can choose between activities and when they can adapt those activities to their own learning styles. Specifically, inquiry-based learning allows teachers to adjust the level of student autonomy, enabling them to guide students in the learning process (Wheatley, 2018). The teacher's role is purely facilitative, assisting students in learning and utilizing skills in their own process to acquire a higher level of knowledge. It is necessary for the teacher to have a comprehensive picture of how the teaching and learning process unfolds and what steps are needed to successfully execute tasks and achieve expected outcomes. Teaching and learning strategies outline the actions needed to achieve set objectives (Andrini, 2016). Serafin et al. (2015) mainly focused on the teachers' thinking about teaching practices. Evidently, they emphasize inertia and the adoption of previously acquired passive teaching styles in education which are difficult to change into progressive teaching approaches. This leads to an increased need for the development of specific competences in the areas of specific didactic disciplines.

The application of inquiry-based learning by an enthusiastic and motivated teacher who is willing to continuously question and reshape thinking patterns enables students to engage in a classroom culture that enhances collaboration, problem-solving, reflection, differentiation, motivation, and above all, the application of knowledge and skills in facing new challenges (Gholam, 2019). Kang and Keinonen (2016) highlight collaboration among teachers and their confidence in their own teaching as common and strong predictors for the implementation of inquiry-based learning due to its positive impact on students' achievement and motivation. The use of communication, collaborative and thinking skills is key in the teaching process (Şen et al., 2021). Shamsudin et al. (2013) claimed that all teachers were satisfied with the choice of this teaching approach. Not only did they feel somewhat successful in terms of the educational content they intended to teach, but they were also satisfied with the students' reactions, especially with the intention to ask questions and the working atmosphere in which the discussion and exchange of information took place.

INQUIRY-BASED TEACHING

Bognar and Matijević (2005) define inquiry-based teaching as the type of teaching in which students independently gain new insights through research.

Certainly, the internet has accelerated and facilitated the flow of information, making it more accessible to students. Access to databases and digitized sources such as historical archives, virtual museums, and virtual atlases support the research process as students can develop disciplinary research skills through observation, interpretation, and analysis of data from these sources (Aghazadeh, 2020). Research findings (Thaiposri & Wannapiroon, 2015) demonstrate that information and communication technologies play a significant role in fostering student learning in the 21st century. In addition, they indicate that improving critical thinking skills through inquiry-based learning activities using social networks helps students develop the knowledge and skills they will need to succeed in the technologically advanced era. Utilizing digital platforms in inquiry-based learning enables effective assessment of students' learning progress, monitoring their reactions, fostering student interest, and gaining insight into problem-solving processes. In deep learning, which involves long-term, sustainable, and successfully acquired cognitive knowledge, all the steps that students take to solve a problem are important (understanding and characterizing the problem, presenting the problem, solving the problem, and reflecting on and communicating the solution) (Sotiriou et al., 2020).

The majority of students are more passive, timid, or shy in expressing their opinions, which can disrupt uninterrupted learning and creativity in student learning (Andrini, 2016). They most often acquire information without questioning and internalizing, and due to the passive position they hold, they cannot learn how to learn (Božar, 2019). Inquiry-based learning involves a departure from traditional teaching, which is characterized mainly by direct and one-sided instruction, or factual knowledge that students must become acquainted with and blindly accept. In addition, this approach fosters students' interest, requires them to solve problems through logical reasoning and evidence-based arguments, encourages them to further study in order to develop more detailed explanations, and emphasizes the importance of explanations based on evidence (Abdi, 2014).

Several studies below discuss the positive impact of inquiry-based learning on student achievement. Research results conducted by Abdi (2014) indicate that there is a significant difference in the levels of achievement between students taught using inquiry-based learning and students educated via traditional teaching methods. In other words, students who utilized inquiry-based learning became more successful than students who applied traditional teaching methods. Diverse and extensive research in a systematic literature review (Friesen & Scott, 2013) indicates that various approaches to inquiry-based learning positively impact students' ability to comprehend fundamental concepts and procedures and create a more engaging learning environment. It is necessary to promote a range of strategies to maximize the effectiveness of inquiry-based learning, such as developmental activities, formative feedback,

and inquiry methods crucial to the learning process. The research conducted by LePage-Kljajic (2019) also confirms that inquiry-based learning has a positive effect on student achievement, particularly due to the group dynamics and communication aspects involved in the research. Inquiry activities motivate students to construct, argue, and evaluate their own explanations and represent an effective way to confront misconceptions. In addition, they develop critical thinking skills that they will further transfer in many aspects of life after primary and secondary education.

The results of the study (Wang et al., 2015) show that the implementation of inquiry-based learning in teaching has a positive impact on students' motivation and interest in learning and confirm the importance of the school environment context with respect to the effectiveness of teaching implementation. In other words, different environments have different effects on the outcomes of implementing inquiry-based learning in teaching. Similar results are also reported by Wheatley (2018), who concludes that compared with traditional teaching, inquiry-based learning leads to better student engagement during lessons, improved critical thinking, enhanced achievements, better attitudes toward learning, and better understanding of knowledge, as well as their overall satisfaction. Furthermore, research conducted by Wilson (2020) shows that the implementation of inquiry-based learning has a positive and direct relationship with student achievements. Students can gain deeper understanding through practical and experiential learning, which has an overall positive impact on memory recall and knowledge retention. Suduc et al. (2015) also demonstrated that the application of inquiry-based learning in teaching various aspects is more relevant for students than conventional instruction is. In addition, they show that it is important for elementary school students not only to participate in instructional hours that are interesting, but also to understand the subject matter and participate in activities that are useful to them in everyday life.

Similar results are also reported by Bailey (2018), who determined that inquiry-based learning is successful in improving students' academic achievement. In this way, students are provided with more time for questions and discussions on the topic with peers and the teacher. They are more engaged in collaborative activities that enable them to think critically. Students are more eager to participate in activities and more successful in carrying out activities when they have others who support and guide them through the inquiry process. Based on the research results of Rubio and Conesa (2022), the best way of learning is through research. The high level of enjoyment and interest of the majority of students in this research, as well as their grades which were excellent or very good, come to the forefront. In this way, students are enabled to learn more intensively, allowing them to use and apply that knowledge to a specific topic in a different situation. In addition to fostering motivation and activity among students and improving their attitudes towards learning, well-structured

problem questions within the framework of inquiry-based learning contribute to the development of learning with understanding (Bayram et al., 2013). The results of the study (Fan & Ye, 2022) show that students positively evaluate this learning model because it helps them improve their self-confidence in research as well as problem-solving (Kuklok, 2016).

CONCLUSION

Traditional learning models are increasingly encountering certain shortcomings that subsequently affect students' knowledge acquisition and learning outcomes. This has certainly favor the implementation of new learning models that contribute to changes in learning styles and approaches by directing them toward the student, rather than the teacher. One of those models is certainly the model of inquiry-based learning. It is undeniable that the implementation of effective inquiry-based learning activities is quite a challenging task considering that students often lack greater cognitive skills. It is important to note that increasing the scope of educational content challenges and complicates the organization of the teaching process, which is centered around inquiry-based learning. However, various teaching methods and techniques are currently being applied in schools with the aim of obtaining a deeper understanding and application of concepts to improve the teaching process. Such an approach to teaching develops research skills and attitudes that are applicable to students in everyday situations.

A high level of student engagement in solving research tasks should be preceded by their readiness for it as well as thorough preparation by teachers, their understanding of the implementation of the inquiry-based learning method, and the availability of classroom/school teaching materials. Therefore, it is important that this teaching approach is designed and implemented in a way that encourages the development of students' research skills and attitudes that they will be able to apply in everyday life. The abilities of critical thinking, asking questions, analysing, making connections, and drawing conclusions are just some of the potentials that can be developed in students through the implementation of inquiry-based learning. Therefore, inquiry learning methods can stimulate the development of organized and self-regulated learning abilities so that students become increasingly independent in the learning process and learn how to overcome difficulties. Their contribution to quality teaching practices is reflected in the continuous examination of the relationships among students' knowledge development, learning models, and the teacher's role in instruction.

The results of the study emphasize the need for contemporary teaching strategies that promote meaningful connections, deepen understanding, critical thinking, problem-solving, and student engagement in the classroom.

Accordingly, teachers should focus on questions that strengthen innovative educational methods and approaches in teaching, enabling students to participate in activities that encourage self-regulated learning and the construction of their own knowledge. Consequently, it is necessary to design professional development programs for teachers that encourage them to implement and integrate this approach into their teaching practices. This approach clearly requires continuous investment and dedication from teachers by allocating significant time and effort to implement this design and providing ongoing feedback. However, if we want students to receive the best and highest quality education, these constraints must be overcome. This study points to the responsibility of educational policies towards ensuring professional development and support for teachers in the practical implementation of inquiry-based learning to increase their knowledge and skills in pedagogical content. Ensuring appropriate support for school administration and educational policies, as well as adapting activities to students' developmental opportunities, enhances teaching practices through the implementation of inquiry-based learning, which appears to be an achievable educational goal. Future research could examine students' perceptions of the impact of inquiry-based learning on their motivation and interest in learning.

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RAZVOJ LJUDSKOG I DRUŠTVENOG KAPITALA U KONTEKSTU VOLONTERSTVA¹

*„Dok se nitko ne pita zašto netko može preuzeti plaćen posao, mnogi se pitaju zašto bi netko volontirao.“
(Hustinx i sur., 2010, str.15).*

Sažetak: U radu se raspravlja o mogućnostima stjecanja ljudskog i društvenog kapitala sudjelovanjem u volonterskim aktivnostima. Posebno se promatra sa stajališta Bourdieuova poimanja kapitala kada se volonterski sektor shvaća kao društveno polje i smješta u širi društveni kontekst. Osim pojmovnih određenja civilnog društva i volonterstva te ljudskog i društvenog kapitala, daje se pregled temeljnih koncepata i pristupa istraživanju ljudskog i društvenog kapitala te se naglašava učinak volontiranja na njihovo stjecanje. Prilike se volonterstva, osim s cjeloživotnim neformalnim učenjem, povezuju i s informalnim učenjem, koje u svojoj rasprostranjenosti tijekom volonterskih aktivnosti obogaćuje slobodno vrijeme i razvija životne stilove volontera, odnosno njihove kapacitete za život u zajednici. U lepezi dobrobiti za volontere i zajednicu, koje se smještaju unutar razvijanja ljudskog i društvenog kapitala, u radu se naglašava razvijanje kompetencija za zapošljivost, kojoj prethodi poticanje spremnosti za usvajanje znanja i vještina potrebnih društvu znanja, što se volontiranjem razvija.

Ključne riječi: civilno društvo, ishodi volontiranja, obrazovanje, perspektive volonterstva

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UVOD

Kako se ističe u Europskoj povelji o volonterstvu (Volunteering Charter, 2012), volonterstvo se općenito definira kao neprofitna aktivnost koja se obavlja unutar okvira pružatelja volontiranja ili kroz vlastitu inicijativu volontera, a u sklopu nizanja karaktera volonterskog rada naglašava se da je riječ o aktivnosti koja potiče razvoj ljudskih potencijala kroz poticaj samoorganiziranja ljudi pri rješavanju problema, odnosno koja poboljšava kvalitetu življenja na osnovi razvoja partnerskih odnosa između aktera države blagostanja. Upravo su navedene izdvojene karakteristike volonterstva kontekst u koji postavljamo ovu raspravu kako bismo naglasili njegov doprinos razvoju ljudskog i društvenog kapitala. Što se tiče ljudskog kapitala, tu se prije svega misli na njegovu referiranje prema znanju, vještinama i iskustvu formiranim kroz ulaganje u obrazovanje i izobrazbu (Goldin, 2016). Kada se govori o društvenom kapitalu, polazi se od njegove opće definicije kao međuljudske mreže koja se formira ulaganjem u odnose (Ehsan i sur., 2019). Izvedenica definicije društvenog kapitala naglašava društvene veze pojedinaca i mreže koje one čine kao nešto više od pukog odnosa (Stukas i sur., 2005), kao prostor komunikacije u kojem se volontiranjem neformalno i informalno uči. Nadalje, bit teorije društvenog kapitala odnosi se na povezivanje pojedinaca i izvan nekog specifičnog djelovanja prema nizu suradnika, prijatelja i udaljenijih članova mreže koji dijele povjerenje, reciprocitet i poštovanje zajedničkih normi. Društveni kapital može biti privatno i javno dobro (Putnam i sur., 2003). Navedeni karakteri ukazuju na veliki potencijal stvaranja odnosno širenja društvenog kapitala. Volonterstvo u djelovanju organizacija civilnog društva obuhvaća sve navedene karakteristike te, između ostalog, predstavlja proces stvaranja ljudskog i društvenog kapitala, kao i njihovih mogućih približavanja i razdvajanja u prostoru ovog sektora. Također se u radu nužno prepoznaje prostor koji nije samo direktno povezan sa stjecanjem ljudskog i društvenog kapitala za volontere, već volonterskom radu pripisuje i neke dodane vrijednosti. U tom smislu ima se u vidu posebnost volonterstva kao mreže koja svoje niti plete u brojnim aktivnostima civilnog društva, povezujući i volontere i udruge. Posebice se naglašava poveznica s Bourdieuovim shvaćanjem kapitala, odnosno volonterskog sektora kao društvenog polja u širem društvenom prostoru gdje se odvija društveno djelovanje ili praksa, kako to u najnovijoj raspravi o kapitalu, nejednakosti i volontiranju tumači Eimhjellen (2022).

VOLONTERSTVOM DO LJUDSKOG I DRUŠTVENOG KAPITALA

Među brojnim definicijama volonterstva izdvajamo onu koja navodi da je riječ o složenom fenomenu koji nije jasno ocrtan i obuhvaća širok raspon vrsta aktivnosti, organizacija i sektora, a za istraživače predstavlja izazov pogleda

na „hibridnu mapu za složene fenomene“² (Hustinx i sur., 2010, str. 413). Navođenje ovog pristupa postavljamo upravo sa svrhom naglašavanja širine djelovanja volonterstva, iako, s obzirom na ovu raspravu o značaju razvijanja ljudskog i društvenog kapitala, podrazumijevamo djelovanje organiziranog volontiranja u organizacijama civilnog društva ili njihovim posredovanjem, posebice u odnosu na očekivane ishode volontiranja kojima za stjecanje navedenih kapitala prethode programi za volontiranje kao organizirani odgovor na potrebe zajednice. Volonterstvu se stoga pripisuju karakteristike neobveznog i neplaćenog rada koji se odvija u organiziranom kontekstu i provodi se (i) za dobrobit drugih, društva kao cijele ili određene organizacije (Govaart i sur., 2001, str. 16), uz evidentnu činjenicu da u praksi postoji i neformalno volontiranje.

Općenito, u širokom mapiranju mogućnosti volontiranja razvija se osjećaj odgovornosti i poboljšava život zajednice, s naglašenom intrinzičnom motivacijom za osobni razvoj, rješavanje konkretnih problema i društveni razvoj (Begović, 2006, str. 7–10). U odnosu na suvremeno viđenje volonterstva, Govaart i suradnici (2001) smještaju ga u tri forme djelovanja – uzajamna podrška, davanje usluga i aktivno uključivanje u društvo, u okviru kojih se razvija ljudski i društveni kapital. Ovaj sažeti presjek djelovanja koja pripadaju volonterstvu daje i okvir za definiciju civilnog društva. U tom smislu civilno se društvo, između ostalog, definira kao područje koje obuhvaća institucije, organizacije, mreže i pojedince (i njihove vrednote) koji su smješteni između obitelji, države i tržišta, povezani nizom civilnih pravila koja dijele, a u koje se ljudi dobrovoljno udružuju radi zagovaranja općih interesa (Bežovan, 2003, str. 3). S obzirom na tumačenje kako bi se na volonterstvo moglo gledati i kao na temeljni element civilnog društva (Dekker, 2015, str. 32), u kontekstu ove rasprave tako ga i pozicioniramo.

Uvođenja u rasprave pojmova ljudskog i društvenog kapitala započela su krajem 60-ih godina prošlog stoljeća pod utjecajem teorija o ljudskom razvoju, napuštajući često poistovjećivanje kapitala s njegovom materijaliziranom formom, zanemarujući društvene odnose koji sa nalaze u pozadini svih društvenih procesa, odnosno činjenicu da je sam kapital određena društvena praksa (Afrić, 2009, str. 12). Kapital se pojavljuje u trima temeljnim oblicima:

² U proučavanju volonterstva autori nude integriranu teoriju – hibridni okvir („hibridna teorijska strategija“) koji se temelji na tri identificirana sloja složenosti i pruža inovativan konceptualni sustav navigacije za mapiranje, usporedbu i adekvatniju integraciju postojećih teorija: 1. složenost fenomena volonterstva koji ima propusne granice i obuhvaća širok raspon aktivnosti, organizacija i sektora, 2. različite discipline volontiranju pripisuju različita značenja i funkcije i 3. postojeći teorijski prikazi pristrani su prema prikriivanju „zakona volontiranja“ i imaju snažan empirijski višak, a „dobra teorija“, kako ističu, višedimenzionalna je i traži uključivanje drugih pogleda na teoriju (Hustinx i sur., 2010, str. 411), odnosno prihvaćanje sugestije da su mnoge od najboljih teorija hibridi (DiMaggio, 1995, str. 392).

„kao ekonomski kapital koji se može pretvoriti u novac i institucionalizirani u obliku vlasničkih prava, kao kulturni kapital institucionaliziran u obliku obrazovnih kvalifikacija i kao društveni kapital sastavljen od društvenih obveza (povezanosti)“ (Bourdieu, 1986, str. 281). Za potrebe naše rasprave osobito je značajno promatrati procese i učinke te nastojanja i djelovanja za razvijanjem individualnog (ljudskog) kapitala koji se pojavljuje kao stečevina društvenog povezivanja, a njegovo vlasništvo tako dijele i pojedinac i društvo. Naime, upravo je Coleman u navedenim kapitalima prepoznao aspekt javnog dobra jer koristi svima i stvara se unutar svih društvenih struktura u kojima ti oblici funkcioniraju kao kapital društvenih odnosa (Coleman 1988, str. 116). Tako se ono uvelike odnosi i na dobrovoljni rad, odnosno volonterstvo definirano kao dugoročno, prosocijalno ponašanje za dobrobit drugih (stranaca) i javlja se u organiziranom okruženju, s višestrukim dobrobitima za korisnike i zajednicu, a volonteri su intrinzično nagrađeni osjećajem pomaganja drugima te imaju priliku za razvijanje i usavršavanje raznih vještina (Snyder i Omoto, 2009, prema Juzbašić i Vukasović, 2015). Postavljati volonterstvo u kontekst ljudskog i društvenog kapitala podrazumijeva promatrati ga kao prostor djelovanja i učenja koja nužno vode bavljenju njegovim učincima ili posljedicama, ali i iskustvima, odnosno stjecanju ovih kapitala i njihove razmjene u zajednici. Stoga se stjecanje društvenog kapitala može definirati kao proces koji se odvija između pojedinaca, grupa, zajednica i organizacija koje potencijalno utječu na obostranu društvenu korist (Guenther i Falk, 2000, str. 67). Osim toga, ova vrsta kapitala ima potencijal stalnog obnavljanja održavajući život udruge i komunalne prakse (Trenz, 2011). Svi se navedeni aspekti pripisuju procesu razvijanja i ljudskog i socijalnog kapitala u području volonterstva.

U odnosu na sociodemografska obilježja volontera u istraživanja se uključuju brojne karakteristike kao što su rod, rasa, obrazovanje, socijalni status i prihodi, a kada je riječ o konsekvencama, ističu se dimenzije socioekonomske dobrobiti volontiranja za pojedinca i zajednicu (Wilson, 2012). Kada se volonterstvo i njegovi ishodi postavljaju u kontekst stvaranja ljudskog kapitala, nezaobilazna je poveznica s obrazovanjem, za što se, između ostaloga, upotrebljava teza ekonomista Beckera i Shultza prema kojoj se pojedinci obrazuju kako bi sebi priskrbili što više ekonomske koristi (Šuljug, 2009, str. 55), a u suvremenom društvu znanja snažno se povezuje s ulaganjem u obrazovanje i sudjelovanjem u cjeloživotnom učenju.

U pojmovnom određenju načela teorije kapitala – zalihe vještina i produktivnog znanja utjelovljene u ljudima – prvo je proširio na ljudski kapital Becker, dok je kulturni i društveni kapital konceptualizirao i promovirao Bourdieu dajući mu sadržaj sastavljen od društvenih veza, a Coleman je svim navedenim vrstama kapitala označio aspekt javnog dobra, što znači da koriste svima koji su dio društvene strukture u kojoj ti oblici kapitala funkcioniraju (Enjolras, 2021, str. 1191). Sažetijim detektiranjem premisa volonterskog

rada kaže se da se ono temelji na: 1. produktivnom radu koji zahtijeva ljudski kapital, 2. kolektivnom ponašanju koje zahtijeva društveni kapital i 3. etički vođenom radu koji zahtijeva kulturni kapital (Wilson i Musick, 1997). Ono što se, također, istražuje i naglašava različiti su društveni konteksti u odnosu na mogućnosti stvaranja društvenog kapitala, odnosno uvjeti za formalno ili neformalno volontiranje te tradicija, stupanj razvijenosti, obrasci ponašanja i socijalizacije u zajednici, društvene navike, norme, vrijednosti, s posebnim osvrtima na zemlje u tranziciji (Barić i Dobrić, 2012; Damian, 2018; Deacon i Stubbs, 2007; Enjorlas, 2021; Gil-Lacruz i Marcuello-Servos, 2013; Putnam i sur., 2003; Salamon, i Anheier, 1998; Štulhofer, 2003; Tomić-Koludrović, 2007; Tonković i sur., 2023; Wu i sur., 2018). Posebice se ističe istraživanje Benensona i Stagga (2016) u kojem se ispituju četiri nefinancijske imovine – društveni kapital, ljudski kapital, kulturni kapital i politički kapital – gdje se ilustrira kako pristup temeljen na imovini nudi priliku za istraživanje načina na koje pojedinci s niskim primanjima mogu izgraditi i iskoristiti imovinu kroz volontiranje. Na temelju ovih iskustava zaključuje se da društveni kapital – pored ekonomskog i ljudskog (kao oblika individualnog) kapitala, kao i kontekstualnih značajki u ekonomskom, političkom, kulturnom i društvenom području koje se odnose na različitu institucionalnu skrb države i režim civilnog društva – može uvjetovati pojedinčevu sposobnost za uključivanje u volontiranje (Enjorlas, 2021, str. 1192). Karakter volontiranja tako se ponajviše smješta u odnosu na sociokulturne uvjete za volontiranje i izbor volonterstva, odnosno motivacije za volontiranjem, što se propituje unutar sektora civilnog društva koje se pozicionira kao ključna poluga razvoja društvenog kapitala (Štulhofer, 2005).

U odnosu na mogućnost stjecanja ljudskog kapitala, volonteri se smatraju okosnicom društva, kako je to naglasio bivši tajnik Ujedinjenih naroda u govoru na 54. godišnjoj konferenciji Odjela za informiranje javnosti i nevladinih organizacija 2001. godine (Annan, 2001) povodom Međunarodne godine volontera (International Year of Volunteers). Nekoliko je godina kasnije, govoreći o globalno dogovorenim ciljevima koji se bore s mnoštvom socioekonomskih bolesti, naglasio kako se na volonterstvo sve više gleda kao na pomoć u napretku društava prema postizanju Milenijskih razvojnih ciljeva (Millenium Development Goals) (Annan, 2005). Upravo se u ovim izrekama jasno prepoznaje snaga ljudi, odnosno ljudskog kapitala, koji dobrovoljnim radom, ponekad neprimijećeno, u sektoru civilnih akcija i inicijativa djeluju u korist zajednice. Ljudski kapital nerazdvojiv je od osoba, a predstavlja sve vještine i sve fizičke karakteristike koje posjeduje neka osoba kao što su investicije u zdravlje, snagu i izdržljivost ili investicije u vještine i edukaciju, poput stjecanja kompetencija koje se mogu promatrati kao izgradnja ljudskog ili individualnog kapitala, a najčešće se operacionaliziraju kroz 1. individualno

znanje, 2. postignuti nivo formalnog obrazovanja u zajednici i 3. postignuti nivo kompetencija ili individualnih vještina (Afrić, 2009, str. 18).

Ovdje se fokusiramo na učinke u stjecanju ljudskog kapitala kroz obrazovanje, izobrazbu i druge vrste volonterskog angažiranja koje, između ostalog, omogućava i građanski angažman, uključujući organizirani civilni sektor te predstavljaju „najvažniju investiciju u ljudski kapital“ (Becker, 1993, str. 18). Poticanje ovakvoga ulaganja u ljudski kapital pojedinca očituje se u volonterskom iskustvu i stečenim kompetencijama koje mogu pomoći pojedincima da pronađu posao, a javni, privatni i neprofitni sektori nalaze i dodatni poticaj za podršku volonterskom radu kroz mogućnosti izmjene postojećih sustava vezanih uz zapošljavanje (Benenson i Stagg, 2015). Ovakav ciklus koji zaokružuje početak građanskog angažmana i razvijanje ljudskog kapitala pojedinaca s ishodima u stjecanju znanja, vještina i kompetencija za zapošljivost i stalni impuls za vlastitim razvojem predstavlja jednu od značajnih putanja u djelovanju i razvijanju svakog volontera.

Općenito se smatra kako je pojam civilno društvo u uskoj vezi s pojmom društvenog kapitala, kao i da društveni kapital predstavlja osnovu civilnog društva neke države (Barić i Dobrić, 2012, str. 887). Također ga poveznica s djelovanjem u neprofitnim organizacijama, odnosno udrugama, definira kroz dvije perspektive, a odnose se na to: da je društveni kapital povjerenje, norme i uključenost u udruge koji čine široki pokazatelj građanskog zdravlja (kognitivni društveni kapital) te da je društveni kapital povezan s resursima (kao što su informacije, ideje, potpora) dobivenima na temelju odnosa i mreža s drugima (Bixler i Springer, 2018, str. 2). Upravo se na umrežavanju projicira daljnji razvoj koncepta društvenog kapitala za neprofitne organizacije, gdje se osim pojedinaca povezanih s organizacijama razvijaju trajne mreže temeljene na povjerenju, tj. povezivanje organizacijskog društvenog kapitala, što pridonosi učenju i jačanju trećeg sektora (Schneider, 2009, str. 209). Drugim riječima, među pokazateljima ljudskog kapitala jest obrazovanje, odnosno ishodi učenja, a društvenog kapitala učestalost kontakata s prijateljima i drugima, nepoznatima, u zajednici (Enjolras, 2021, str. 1203). U tom se smislu može, kako je već istaknuto, izvući jasna slika doprinosa volonterstva ljudskom kapitalu. Paralelno, osim ljudskoga kapitala riječ je o, kako je već istaknuto, prostoru unutar volonterstva koje doprinosi društvenom kapitalu, što se također može povezati s prilikama i izazovima za nastavak obrazovanja ili izobrazbe.

Od ljudskog kapitala očekuje se da povećća dobrotvorno davanje, odražava sposobnost davanja jer, kao i financijski, pripada individui i mjeri se obrazovnim postignućem, što su potvrdila i istraživanja (Day i Devlin, 1998; Enjolras, 2021; Wang i Graddy, 2008). S druge strane, udružen s društvenim kapitalom kod pojedinaca povećava šanse za dobivanje poslova (Lin, 2001). Stoga volonterstvo dobiva obilježja prostora djelovanja u kojem se isprepleću mogućnosti za stjecanje ljudskog i društvenog kapitala, a koje se prepoznaju u raznim područjima angažmana pojedinaca koja komuniciraju s potrebama

zajednice i samih volontera. Posebice se pojavljuju u angažiranju mladih u volonterstvu, kako zbog potreba u njihovoj životnoj dobi za samoobrazovanjem, tako i zbog potreba društva na koje mladi mogu odgovoriti. Tako se u potrebama i vrijednostima koje sadrži i izgrađuje volonterstvo prepoznaje i vitalizam civilnog društva, a koji se velikim dijelom izražava razinama organiziranog volonterstva.

PERSPEKTIVE VOLONTERSTVA – ULAGANJA U BUDUĆNOST

Volonterski rad kao ulaganje u ljudski kapital osobito je od značaja i izazovan za istraživanje kada je riječ o mladima kao volonterima, i to prije svega u stjecanju ljudskog kapitala kroz obrazovanje i izobrazbu u volonterskim programima, kao i paralelno društvenog. U kontekstu potencijalne dobiti ističe se studija Beckera (1993), u kojem autor obrazlaže utjecaj ulaganja u ljudski kapital na potencijalnu zaradu i psihički prihod pojedinca, a istraživanjem pokazuje da su ekonomske zarade u pozitivnoj korelaciji s obrazovanjem i razinom vještina, kao i potvrđenu obrnutu korelaciju između obrazovanja i zaposlenosti. To da volonterski rad može poslužiti za poboljšanje budućih izgleda za zapošljavanje ogleda se i u činjenici da većina volontera navodi razloge volontiranja poput profesionalnog usavršavanja ili značajne dodane vrijednosti pri traženju posla³ (Day i Devlin, 1998; Europski portal, 2021; Greve i sur., 2010). Dakle, nije riječ samo o mogućnostima za povećavanjem budućih prihoda, već i o isplativosti koja se projicira kao ulaganje u ljudski kapital koji nužno poboljšava kvalitetu života pojedinaca i zajednice. Kroz organizirano volonterstvo, osim sudjelovanja u direktnim programskim aktivnostima u nekom području, dobiva se dionica znanja i vještina iz područja volonterskog menadžmenta, kao i niz drugih izobrazbi koje se volonterima nude. Riječ je o dijelu organiziranih i definiranih programskih aktivnosti za volontere u području djelovanja organizacija koje angažiraju volontere, kao što su brojni projekti u području djelovanja civilnog društva. To mogu biti izobrazbe koje se odnose na konkretan i planiran volonterski rad ili volonterski doprinos projektnim aktivnostima, koje uključuju planirane programe izobrazbe, često i kao vrsta naknade volonterima za vrijeme provedeno u neplaćenom radu. Ovakve stavke u praksi nerijetko predstavljaju financijsko sudjelovanje organizacije u proračunu projekta kroz dijeljenje troškova donatora i lokalne zajednice. Programi koji pružaju ovakve mogućnosti neformalnog obrazovanja usmjereni su, primjerice, na razvijanje komunikacijskih i organizacijskih vještina i socijalne infrastrukture, što volonterskim iskustvima često pridodaje kompetencije za dobivanje plaćenih

³ Prema *Europassu*, volonterske aktivnosti, plaćeno ili neplaćeno stažiranje ili pripravništvo trebalo bi uvrstiti u odjeljak „Radno iskustvo”. Kompetencije koje se steknu prilikom volontiranja mogu se upisati u odjeljak „Osobne vještine”, kao što je već prisutna praksa (Europski portal za mlade, 2021).

poslova u budućnosti. Zbog toga je, između ostalog, kao jedan od ključnih elemenata u strategiji razvoja cjeloživotnog učenja u Europskoj uniji istaknuta važnost i relevantnost neformalnog i informalnog učenja kroz volonterski rad (Council Recommendation, 2018, Proposal 17)⁴. Upravo se u ovom kontekstu ističe i uloga neprofitnih organizacija u društvu gdje se brojne rasprave usredotočuju na ekonomsku ulogu neprofitnih organizacija s fokusom na doprinos bruto društvenom prihodu (Foster i sur., 2003, str. 2). Tako se stvara model ljudskog kapitala kao prirodan okvir za proučavanje povrata ulaganja u volontiranje, koji potvrđuje da je glavna determinanta zarade u bilo kojem trenutku zaliha ljudskog kapitala, koja je opet funkcija obrazovanja (Day i Devlin, 1998). Nadalje, prepoznaje se značaj karaktera društvenog kapitala povezan s izgradnjom socijalnog povjerenja koje se, umreženim komuniciranjem unutar volonterstva, stvara i znanjima o drugima, odnosno obrazovanjem. To je upravo na tragu definicije Putnama (1995, str. 68) koja prepoznaje kako se društveni kapital sastoji od onih značajki društvenog života (mreža, normi i povjerenja) koje omogućuju sudionicima da djeluju zajedno učinkovitije kako bi slijedili zajedničke ciljeve. Stoga se društveni kapital može smatrati i nenamjernom kolektivnom dobrobiti volonterskog udruživanja (Dekker, 2015).

Primijećeno je kako ovakvi karakteri i očekivanja od volonterstvom stečenih ljudskog i društvenog kapitala nisu bili prepoznati ni vidljivi u postkomunističkim tranzicijskim zemljama, kao i činjenica da su u ovim zemljama bile relativno niske stope društvene nejednakosti, a bilježe i nižu motiviranost za organiziranim dobrovoljnim radom⁵. Ipak, tijekom devedesetih godina prošlog stoljeća, u vrijeme početne tranzicije i poslijeratnog razdoblja, kada u Hrvatskoj počinje intenzivniji razvoj civilnog društva i organiziranog volonterstva, osnivaju se volonterski centri (Kezić, 2024, str. 103), kao institucijski oblici volontiranja.⁶ Dulje se vrijeme, međutim, nije prepoznavala prilika za sudjelovanjem u formalnom i neformalnom cjeloživotnom

⁴ Radi se o naglašavanju neformalnog i informalnog učenja koje, kako se ističe u ovom dokumentu, igra važnu ulogu u podržavanju bitnih međuljudskih, komunikacijskih i kognitivnih vještina kao što su: kritičko mišljenje, analitičke vještine, kreativnost, rješavanje problema i otpornosti koji mladima, između ostalog, olakšavaju prijelaz u odraslu dob, aktivno građanstvo i radni život.

⁵ U većini postkomunističkih zemalja stope društvene nejednakosti relativno su niske, ali nedostaje socijalnog povjerenja kao rezultat desetljeća diktature, što objašnjava niske stope volontera (Enjolras, 2021).

⁶ Volonterski centar Zagreb, osnovan 1997., nastao je u okviru Antiratne kampanje Hrvatske, a nakon toga uslijedilo je osnivanje centara i u drugim gradovima.

obrazovanju,⁷ a upravo je volonterstvo jedno od ključnih sektora za stjecanje cjeloživotnih obrazovnih postignuća kao značajnog dijela ljudskog kapitala. To naglašava i definicija prema kojoj je „neformalno obrazovanje tip obrazovnog procesa koji podrazumijeva izvaninstitucijske obrazovne aktivnosti kojima se stječu određena znanja i vještine, a sudjelovanje je u takvim aktivnostima dobrovoljno (Kuka, 2011, str. 198). Isticanje dobrovoljnosti ga usko veže uz organizacije civilnog društva, a u tom kontekstu se može odvijati i informalno učenje kao slučajno ili spontano stjecanje znanja. Ono se može otkriti u neispunjenim potencijalima formalnog i neformalnog obrazovanja, a temeljene odrednice su mu, osim dobrovoljnosti, i doživotnost i intrinzična motiviranost (Lazić i Saveski, 2012, str. 136).

Budući da su i neformalni i informalni putevi stjecanja znanja i vještina kao dijelovi cjeloživotnog obrazovanja inkorporirani u volonterstvu, ono se često preporučuje i nudi mladima kao perspektiva koja pomaže u snalaženju i spremnosti za prilagodbu društvu znanja u kojem živimo, osobito zbog evidentnog dobitka od volontiranja kroz pripadanje društvenoj organizaciji i mogućnosti korištenja mreža, normi i povjerenja koji olakšavaju koordinaciju i suradnju na obostranu korist, jer društveni kapital koristi ulaganjima u fizički i ljudski kapital (Putnam, 1993, str. 36). Što se tiče prednosti društvenoga umrežavanja, navedeno se posebice odnosi i na još jednu vrstu učenja (osim formalnog i neformalnog), a to je već spomenuto – informalno, čije prisustvo raste volontiranjem kao dio obogaćivanja životnih iskustava. Ona se također usmjeravaju povećanju motivacije za obrazovanim postignućima, za što se odavno smatra da je više od znanja o predmetu učenja. To, drugim riječima, podrazumijeva bogatiju svakodnevicu, sadržajnije slobodno vrijeme i razvijanje bogatijih životnih stilova i suživota u zajednici, posebice za mlade. Ovo su ujedno i mogući ishodi participiranja u organizacijama civilnog društva. Tako se zaključuje i da ove organizacije ne povezuju samo pojedince istih i sličnih interesa, već imaju potencijal povezati i razne društvene grupe putem članstva u više organizacija te tako omogućiti pojedincima stvaranje veza koje pojačavaju širenje socijalnog povjerenja (Gvozdanović, 2015), što je očekivana zajednička vrijednost i volonterstva. Socijalno povjerenje, nadalje,

⁷ Niske razine sudjelovanja odraslih građana Hrvatske u cjeloživotnom obrazovanju ističu se u brojnim dokumentima, između ostalog u Izvještaju za Hrvatsku o ocjeni napretka u provedbi strukturnih reformi te sprječavanju i uklanjanju makroekonomskih neravnoteža i rezultatima detaljnih preispitivanja u skladu s Uredbom (EU) br. 1176/2011 (*European Semester Country Report Croatia 2020*), kao i u Preporuci Vijeća o ključnim kompetencijama za cjeloživotno učenje Europske komisije iz 2008. godine. Također se u posljednjem Strateškom okviru za promicanje cjeloživotnog učenja u Republici Hrvatskoj 2017. – 2022. iznosi podatak od svega 3,2 % odraslih osoba koje su u 2016. sudjelovale u obrazovanju i osposobljavanju, a u 2022. sudjelovanje je naraslo na 4,4 %, dok je prosjek u cijeloj Europskoj uniji bio 11,9 %, prema podacima Eurostata.

nužno proizvodi „povjerenje u institucije” koje se smatra glavnim generatorom društvenog kapitala (Barić i Dobrić, 2012, str. 888).

Perspektiva volontiranja, u kontekstu rasprava o društvenom kapitalu mladih, posebice se razmatra u odnosu na mogućnosti njegova vezivanja i premošćivanja (*bonding and bridging*), prema građanskoj i političkoj participaciji, odnosno političkom kapitalu, posebice kada se zna da su, na primjer, stope volontiranja mladih više od njihove izlaznosti na izbore (Nunn, 2020, str. 125). Vezujući društveni kapital opisuje se kroz postojanje jakih odnosa koji se razvijaju između ljudi sličnog porijekla i interesa (obično uključuju obitelj i prijatelje), a premošćujući je rezultat umrežavanja, povezuje ljude preko rascjepa koji obično dijeli društvo (kao što je rasa, klasa ili religija) te su upravo udruge ‘most’ između zajednica, grupa ili organizacija (Claridge, 2018, str. 3), tj. one koje premošćuju. Putnam smatra da premošćujući oblik društvenog kapitala funkcionira kao društveno mazivo, djeluje kao socijalna poluga i ključan je za društveno napredovanje (Putnam, 2000). U novijem istraživanju o ulozi vrijednosti i političke participacije u objašnjenju volonterske motivacije na uzorku mladih volontera iz cijele Hrvatske indeks političke participacije nije se pokazao relevantnim čimbenikom u objašnjavanju volonterske motivacije, dok se motiv društvenih odnosa pokazao značajnim (Tonković i sur., 2023, str. 389-390). U tom smislu godinama se nije ništa značajno promijenilo jer su i dvadesetak godina ranije volonteri najmanje sudjelovali u aktivnostima koji su bili vezani za participaciju u politici ili rad za političku stranku (Ledić, 2007). Jednako je iz perspektive volonterstva zanimljiv rezultat istraživanja o motivima za volontiranje koji se povezuje s karijernim namjerama, a koji je posebno izražen kod mladih (Juzbašić i Vukasović Hlupić, 2015, str. 292). Također, izdvajaju se istraživanja o volontiranju studenata, gdje se ističe povezanost volonterskih aktivnosti s područjem studiranja u smjeru osnaživanja kompetencija za zapošljivost i općenito rad u struci (Kotlar i sur., 2016). To se naprimjer odnosi i na studentsko volonterstvo budućih odgajatelja i učitelja, koji razvijaju svoje životne vještine i profesionalna znanja i vještine u radu s djecom i mladima s posebnim odgojno-obrazovnim potrebama (Skočić i sur., 2011), kao i na volontiranje srednjoškolaca kojima aktivno djelovanje u školskoj i lokalnoj zajednici omogućuje razvijanje njihovih potencijala i kompetencija. (Malogorski, 2019).

Sagledavajući ove osnovne karaktere društvenog kapitala iz perspektive njegovih prepoznatljivih karakteristika, kroz njemu imanentne procese vezivanja unutar grupe i premošćivanja prema drugim grupama, otkrivaju se i šire ključni procesi unutar volonterstva koji mogu predstavljati snažne impulse povezivanja u zajednici. To se jednako može odnositi i na pojave volonterskih aktivnosti na individualnoj osnovi (jedan na jedan). Riječ je o volontiranju, ne putem grupa, kao prevladavajućem obliku među siromašnim i marginaliziranim stanovništvom i o potrebi da se pristup tzv. „trećeg (nevladinog/civilnog)

sektora“ nadopuni i „četvrtim sektorom“ koji se, za razliku od formalnih volonterskih grupa, samoorganizira (Williams, 2002). Ovaj istraživački izazov također doprinosi navedenoj potrebi za mapiranjem povećane fragmentacije istraživanja o volonterstvu koje četvrtim sektorom dobiva još jedan prostor kao mogućnost za razvijanje ljudskog i društvenog kapitala. To se prije svega odnosi na činjenicu da je suvremeni volonterski rad otvoreniji, odnosno nije vezan samo za udruge i uslužne institucije socijalne države. Pružajući nove temelje za volontiranje kroz prilike za razvoj izvan institucionalnog građanskog angažmana, traži se redefiniranje sustava volontiranja koji uključuje aktivno članstvo i građanstvo (Dekker, 2015, str. 47).

U okviru toga nezanemariv je izazov za istraživanja i postavljanje pitanja koja se odnose na pronalaženje obrazaca nejednakosti u područjima i praksama volontiranja, odnosno nejednakih šansi za stjecanje ljudskog i socijalnog kapitala kroz volonterstvo u odnosu na to tko, koliko i gdje volontira (Chambre i Einolf, 2011; Eimhjellen, 2022), osobito u kontekstu mogućnosti lakšeg premošćivanja, odnosno iskoraka iz (samo) vezujućeg karaktera društvenog kapitala kada se ograničava stvaranje mreža izvan izoliranih grupa poznatih samo pojedincima koji ih čine. Time se ograničava razvijanje značajnog karaktera premošćujućeg oblika društvenog kapitala koji širim umrežavanjem otvara prilike za razvijanjem novih životnih stilova, što je značajno za spomenute socijalno izolirane skupine volontera. Jednako se u ovim uvjetima postavlja pitanje o mogućoj ograničenosti razvijanja ljudskog kapitala, u kontekstu o kojem je u ovom radu raspravljano. Upravo se nadilaženje ovog ograničenja otvara kao jedan od značajnih izazova u vezi s perspektivom volonterstva za razvijanje ljudskog i socijalnog kapitala. U tom se smislu unutar praćenja razvoja i istraživanja volonterstva otvaraju pitanja o nerealiziranosti prilike za stvaranjem premošćujućeg društvenog kapitala, odnosno moćne volonterske razmjene u kojoj se evidentira recipročna priroda volonterskog iskustva (Nunn, 2000).

ZAKLJUČAK

Mogućnosti stjecanja ljudskog i društvenog kapitala, u lepezi dobroti za volontere i zajednicu, očituju se u nekoliko ključnih ishoda ili kompetencija. Otvaranjem prostora za neformalnim i informalnim učenjem kroz volonterstvo, odnosno povećanjem obrazovnih postignuća, razvijaju se kompetencije za zapošljivost kao konkretnoj koristi, kao i prostora neograničenih mogućnosti sudjelovanja u cjeloživotnom obrazovanju. Međutim, ne možemo promicati ni promatrati volonterstvo i razvijanje ljudskog kapitala samo u kontekstu osiguravanja perspektive nečije zapošljivosti, poboljšanja profesionalne karijere ili općenito povećane razine uvjeta socijalne sigurnosti. Ono što se jednako prepoznaje prilike su i procesi koji prate volonterstvo, a odnose se

prije svega na njegov potencijal za okupljanjem zajednice i premošćivanjem društvenih podjela. U ovom se kontekstu ističe evidentna činjenica da razvijanje primjerice društvenog kapitala u obliku normi uzajamnosti i mreže građanskog angažmana olakšava suradnju u društvu (Putnam, 2003, str. 197). S tim u vezi je od posebnog značaja volonterstvo mladih, što se odnosi na aktivno djelovanje u lokalnoj zajednici koje se tiče niza kompetencija koje nisu samo usmjerene profesionalnoj karijeri kao učinku ljudskog kapitala već i na motivaciju volontera za razvijanjem društvenih odnosa, tj. društvenog kapitala. Perspektive volonterstva i njegovih učinaka na stjecanje ljudskog i društvenog kapitala izazovne su po pitanju volonterstva mladih i za stjecanje kompetencija i vještina za političku participaciju, koja je kao izraz građanskog aktivizma naglašeno manjkava. U tom segmentu, koji obilježava usmjeravanje stečevina ljudskog i društvenog kapitala prema stvaranju političkog kapitala, i u Hrvatskoj i u svijetu, nedostaje motivacije za vezivanjem i premošćivanjem društvenog kapitala, tj. razvijanjem snažnijih veza među zainteresiranim skupinama kod mladih. Tu se prije svega misli na zainteresiranost i motiviranost mladih da naprimjer, stečene odnose i mreže dobrovoljnim radom u zajednici kanaliziraju prema snažnijem povezivanju nadilazeći društvene podjele kako bi nadogradili učinke volonterstva kroz političku participaciju, radeći za vlastiti i napredak zajednice. U tom smislu Nunn (2000) smatra da ostaje izazov za poboljšanjem sustava podrške i produbljivanja volonterskog iskustva, odnosno usmjeravanja i poticanja volontera kako bi se osigurala stalna uzlazna putanja razvoja društvenog kapitala.

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HUMAN AND SOCIAL CAPITAL DEVELOPMENT IN THE CONTEXT OF VOLUNTEERING¹

“While no one questions why someone may assume gainful employment, many ask why one would volunteer.”
(Hustinx et al., 2010, p. 15)

Abstract: *This paper discusses the possibility of acquiring human and social capital by participating in volunteer activities. Volunteering is especially observed from the point of view of Bourdieu’s understanding of capital, whereby the voluntary sector is understood as a social field and placed in a wider social context. After the conceptual determinations of civil society, volunteering and human and social capital are presented, an overview of the basic concepts and approaches to the research of human and social capital is given, and the effect of volunteering on their acquisition is emphasized. In particular, opportunities for volunteering, in addition to lifelong informal learning, are also associated with informal learning, the prevalence of which during volunteer activities enriches free time and develops volunteers’ lifestyles, i.e., their capacities for community life. Given the array of benefits for volunteers and the community, which are located within the development of human and social capital, this paper emphasizes the development of competencies for employability, which is preceded by the readiness to acquire the knowledge and skills necessary for the knowledge society, which is developed through volunteering.*

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Keywords: *civil society, outcomes of volunteering, education, perspectives of volunteering*

INTRODUCTION

As noted by the European Volunteering Charter (2012), volunteering is generally defined as a nonprofit activity that is carried out within the framework of a volunteering provider or through the volunteer's own initiative, and in the description of the nature of volunteer work, volunteering is an activity that encourages the development of human potential through the encouragement of self-organization of people in solving problems; that is, volunteering improves the quality of life on the basis of the development of partnership relations between members of the welfare state. The specific characteristics of volunteering are the context in which we present this discussion, thus emphasizing the contribution of volunteering to the development of human and social capital. With respect to human capital, this concept is primarily related to the knowledge, skills and experience formed through investment in education and training (Goldin, 2016). The discussion of social capital starts from its general definition as an interpersonal network that is formed by investing in relationships (Ehsan et al., 2019). The latter derivative of the definition of social capital emphasizes the social ties of individuals and the network they form as something more than a mere relationship (Stukas, Daly & Cowling, 2005), as a space of communication in which volunteering enables nonformal and informal learning. Furthermore, the essence of the theory of social capital refers to the connection of individuals beyond any specific action toward a series of associates, friends and more distant members of the network who share trust, reciprocity and respect for common norms, and social capital can be a private good and a public good (Putnam, 2003). The abovementioned characteristics indicate great potential for the creation and expansion of social capital. Volunteering in the activities of civil society organizations encompasses all the abovementioned characteristics and, among other things, represents the process of creating human and social capital, as well as their possible convergence and separation in the space of this sector. The paper also recognizes the space that is not only directly related to the acquisition of human and social capital for volunteers but also attributes some added value to volunteer work. In this sense, the uniqueness of volunteering as a network that weaves its threads in numerous activities of civil society, connecting both volunteers and associations, is taken into account. A special emphasis is on the connection with Bourdieu's understanding of capital, i.e., the voluntary sector as a social field in a wider social space for social action or practice, as interpreted by Eimhjellen (2022) in the latest discussion on capital, inequality and volunteering.

THROUGH VOLUNTEERING TOWARDS HUMAN AND SOCIAL CAPITAL

Among the many definitions of volunteering, we single out the one that considers volunteering a complex phenomenon that is not clearly delineated and includes a wide range of types of activities, organizations and sectors; for researchers, it is a challenge to look at the “hybrid map for complex phenomena” (Hustinx et al., 2010, p. 413)². We present this approach precisely with the purpose of emphasizing the breadth of volunteering, although, with regard to the importance of developing human and social capital, we have in mind the activity of organized volunteering in civil society organizations or through their mediation. In particular, the expected outcomes of volunteering are preceded by volunteering programs as an organized response to the community’s needs to acquire the aforementioned capital. Volunteering is therefore attributed to the characteristics of optional and unpaid work that takes place in an organized context and is carried out (also) for the benefit of others, society as a whole or a specific organization (Govaart et al., 2001, p. 16), with the evident fact that practice also includes nonformal volunteering.

In general, a broad mapping of volunteering opportunities develops a sense of responsibility and improves the life of the community, with an emphasis on intrinsic motivation for personal development, solving concrete problems and social development (Begović, 2006, pp. 7–10). In relation to the contemporary view of volunteering, Govaart et al. (2001) place it in three forms of activity—mutual support, provision of services and active inclusion in society—within which human and social capital is developed. This summary of volunteering activities also provides a framework for the definition of civil society. In this sense, civil society is defined, among other things, as an area that includes institutions, organizations, networks and individuals (and their values) that are located between the family, the state and the market; connected by a series of civil rules that they share; and which people voluntarily join to advocate general interests (Bežovan, 2003, p. 3). Considering the interpretation that volunteering could be seen as a fundamental element of civil society (Dekker, 2015, p. 32), in the context of this discussion, we position it that way.

² In the study of volunteering, the authors offer an integrated theory - a hybrid framework (“hybrid theoretical strategy”) that is based on three identified layers of complexity and provides an innovative conceptual navigation system for mapping, comparing and more adequately integrating existing theories: 1) the complexity of the phenomenon of volunteering that has permeable borders and encompasses a wide range of activities, organizations and sectors, 2) different disciplines attribute different meanings and functions to volunteering and 3) existing theoretical accounts are biased toward obscuring the ‘law of volunteering’ and have a strong empirical surplus, and ‘good theory’, as point out, it is multidimensional and requires the inclusion of other views on the theory (Hustinx et al., 2010, p. 411), i.e., accepting the suggestion that many of the best theories are hybrids (DiMaggio, 1995, p. 392)

The concepts of human capital and social capital were introduced into discussions at the end of the 1960s under the influence of theories about human development, abandoning the frequent identification of capital with its materialized form and ignoring the social relations that are in the background of all social processes, i.e., that capital itself is a certain social practice (Afrić, 2009, p. 12). Capital appears in three basic forms: “as economic capital that can be converted into money and institutionalized in the form of property rights, as cultural capital institutionalized in the form of educational qualifications, and as social capital composed of social obligations (connections)” (Bourdieu, 1986, p. 281). For the purposes of our discussion, it is particularly important to observe the processes and effects and efforts and actions to develop individual (human) capital, which appears as an asset of social connection, and its ownership is thus shared by both the individual and society. Specifically, Coleman recognized the aspect of public good in the aforementioned capitals because it benefits everyone and is created within all social structures in which these forms function as capital of social relations (Coleman 1988, 116). Thus, public good largely refers to voluntary work, i.e., volunteering, defined as long-term, prosocial behavior for the benefit of others (strangers) occurring in an organized environment, with multiple benefits for users and the community, and volunteers are intrinsically rewarded with the feeling of helping others and having the opportunity to develop and improve various skills (Snyder & Omoto, 2009, ctd. in Juzbašić & Vukasović, 2015). Placing volunteering in the context of human and social capital means viewing it as a space for action and learning that necessarily leads not only to address its effects or consequences but also to experience, that is, the acquisition of this capital and its exchange in the community. Therefore, the acquisition of social capital can be defined as a process that takes place between individuals, groups, communities and organizations that potentially influences mutual social benefits (Guenther & Falk, 2000, p. 67). In addition, this type of capital has the potential for constant renewal, sustaining the life of the association and communal practice (Trenz, 2011). All of these aspects are attributed to the process of developing both human capital and social capital in the field of volunteering.

In relation to the sociodemographic characteristics of volunteers, numerous characteristics, such as gender, race, education, social status and income, are included in the research, and in regard to consequences, the dimensions of the socioeconomic benefit of volunteering for the individual and the community are highlighted (Wilson, 2012). When volunteering and its outcomes are placed in the context of creating human capital, there is an inevitable link with education. In this context, among other things, the thesis of economists Becker and Shultz is helpful, according to which individuals are educated to provide themselves with as much economic benefit as possible (Šuljug, 2009, p. 55). Therefore, in a

modern knowledge society, volunteering is strongly associated with investment in education and participation in lifelong learning.

In terms of conceptual determination, the principles of capital theory—the stock of skills and productive knowledge embodied in people—were first extended to human capital by Becker, whereas cultural capital and social capital were conceptualized and promoted by Bourdieu by giving them content composed of social ties. Coleman assigned the aspect of public good to all the mentioned types of capital, which means that they benefit everyone who is part of the social structure in which these forms of capital function (Enjolras, 2021, p. 1191). A more succinct detection of the premises of volunteer work shows how volunteering is based on (1) productive work that requires human capital, (2) collective behavior that requires social capital, and (3) ethically driven work that requires cultural capital (Wilson & Musick, 1997). What is also investigated and emphasized are different social contexts in relation to the possibilities of creating social capital, i.e., the conditions for formal or nonformal volunteering, as well as tradition, level of development, patterns of behavior and socialization in the community, social habits, norms, and values, with special reference to countries in transition (Barić & Stubbs, 2007; Enjolras, 2021; Gil-Lacruz & Marcuello-Servos, 2013; Putnam et al., 2003; Salamon & Anheier, 1998; Štulhofer, 2003; Tomić-Koludrović, 2008; Tonković et al., 2023; Wu et al., 2018). Notably, Benenson and Stagg's (2016) study examining four nonfinancial assets—social capital, human capital, cultural capital, and political capital—illustrated how an asset-based approach offers an opportunity to explore ways in which low-income individuals can build and use assets through volunteering. On the basis of these experiences, it is concluded that social capital, in addition to economic capital and human capital (as forms of individual capital) and contextual features in the economic, political, cultural and social areas related to the different institutional care of the state and the regime of civil society, can condition an individual's ability to engage in volunteering (Enjolras, 2021, p. 1192). The character of volunteering is therefore mostly rooted in the sociocultural conditions for volunteering and the choice of volunteering, that is, the motivation for volunteering, which is questioned within the civil society sector and positioned as a key lever for the development of social capital (Štulhofer, 2005).

In relation to the acquisition of human capital, volunteers are considered the backbone of society, as emphasized by the former Secretary of the United Nations in his speech at the 54th annual conference of the Department of Public Information and Non-Governmental Organizations in 2001 (Annan, 2001) on the occasion of the International Year of Volunteers. A few years later, speaking about the globally agreed-upon goals that fight against a multitude of socioeconomic diseases, he emphasized that volunteering is increasingly seen as an aid in the progress of societies toward the achievement of the Millennium

Development Goals (Annan, 2005). These claims recognize the power of people, that is, human capital, who work for the benefit of the community through voluntary work, sometimes unnoticed, in the sector of civil actions and initiatives. Human capital is inseparable from people and represents all the skills and all the physical characteristics that a person possesses, such as investments in health, strength and endurance or investments in skills and education, including the acquisition of competencies that can be seen as building human or individual capital, and they are most often operationalized through (1) individual knowledge, (2) the achieved level of formal education in the community and (3) the achieved level of competence or individual skills (Afrić, 2009, p. 18).

Here, we focus on the effects of acquiring human capital through education, training and other types of volunteer engagement, which, among other things, enable civic engagement, including the organized civil sector, and represent “the most important investment in human capital” (Becker, 1993, p. 18). Encouraging this kind of investment in the individual’s human capital is manifested in volunteer experience and acquired competencies that can help individuals find a job, and the public, private and nonprofit sectors also find an additional incentive to support volunteer work through the possibility of changing existing systems related to employment (Benenson & Stagg, 2015). This cycle, which rounds off the beginning of civic engagement and the development of the human capital of individuals with outcomes in the acquisition of knowledge, skills and competencies for employability and a constant impulse for personal development, represents one of the significant paths in the action and development of every volunteer.

The term civil society is generally considered to be closely related to the term social capital, as social capital represents the basis of the civil society of a country (Barić & Dobrić, 2012, p. 887). Social capital is also defined by its link with activities in nonprofit organizations, i.e., associations, through two perspectives, which refer to the following: social capital is trust, norms and involvement in associations that form a broad indicator of civic health (cognitive social capital), and social capital is associated with resources (such as information, ideas, support) obtained through relationships and networks with others (Bixler & Springer, 2018, p. 2). In networking, the further development of the concept of social capital for nonprofit organizations is projected, where in addition to individuals connected to organizations, permanent networks based on trust are developed, i.e., connecting organizational social capital, which contributes to learning and strengthening the third sector (Schneider, 2009, p. 209). In other words, an indicator of human capital is education, that is, learning outcomes, and an indicator of social capital is the frequency of contact with friends and others, strangers, in the community (Enjolras, 2021, p. 1203). In this sense, as already noted, a clear picture of the contribution of

volunteering to human capital can be obtained. In parallel, in addition to human capital, there is, as already noted, space within volunteering that contributes to social capital, which can also be connected to opportunities and challenges for continuing education or training.

Human capital is expected to increase charitable giving, reflecting the ability to give because, like financial capital, it belongs to the individual and is measured by educational achievement, as confirmed by research (Day & Devlin, 1998; Enjolras, 2021; Wang & Graddy, 2008). On the other hand, social capital increases individuals' chances of obtaining jobs (Lin, 2001). Therefore, volunteering acquires the characteristics of a space of activity in which opportunities for acquiring human and social capital are intertwined and recognized in various areas of individual engagement that communicate with the needs of the community and the volunteers themselves. They especially appear in the engagement of young people in volunteering, both because of the need for self-education at their age and because of the needs of society to which young people can respond. Thus, given the needs and values that volunteering contains and builds, the vitalism of civil society is also recognized, which is largely expressed in the levels of organized volunteering.

PERSPECTIVES OF VOLUNTEERING – INVESTMENTS IN THE FUTURE

Voluntary work as an investment in human capital is particularly important and challenging for research concerning young people as volunteers, primarily related to the acquisition of human capital through education and training in volunteer programs, as well as social capital. In the context of potential profit, it is worth mentioning Becker (1993) who explains the impact of investment in human capital on the potential earnings and psychological income of an individual, and the research shows that economic earnings are positively correlated with education and skill level, and confirms inverse correlation between education and employment. The fact that volunteer work can serve to improve future prospects for employment is also reflected in the fact that for most volunteers reasons for volunteering include professional development or significant added value when looking for a job³ (Day & Devlin, 1998; European Portal, 2021; Greve et al., 2010). Therefore, this is not only a matter of possibility for increasing future income, but also of profitability, which is projected as an investment in human capital, which necessarily improves the quality of life of individuals and the community. Through organized volunteering, in addition to participating in direct program activities in a certain area, a share

³ According to Europass, voluntary activities, paid or unpaid internships or traineeships should be included in the "Work experience" section. Competences acquired during volunteering can be entered in the "Personal skills" section, as is already the practice (European Youth Portal, 2021).

of knowledge and skills in the field of volunteer management is obtained, as well as a number of other trainings that are offered to volunteers. These are organized and defined program activities for volunteers in the field of activities of organizations that engage volunteers, such as numerous projects related to civil society activities. They can be training related to concrete and planned volunteer work or volunteer contributions to project activities, which include planned training programs, often as a kind of compensation to volunteers for the time spent in unpaid work. In practice, these types of items often represent the financial participation of the organization in the project budget through sharing the costs of sponsors and the local community. Programs that provide such nonformal education opportunities are focused, for example, on developing communication and organizational skills and social infrastructure, which often adds competences for obtaining paid jobs in the future to volunteer experiences. For this reason, among other things, the importance and relevance of nonformal and informal learning through volunteer work have been highlighted as some of the key elements in the strategy for the development of lifelong learning in the European Union (Council Recommendation, 2018, Proposal 17)⁴. In this context, the role of nonprofit organizations in society is emphasized, where numerous discussions focus on the economic role of nonprofit organizations with a focus on the contribution to gross social income (Foster et al., 2003, p. 2). Thus, the human capital model is created as a natural framework for studying the return on investment in volunteering, which confirms that the main determinant of profit gain at any given time is the stock of human capital, which is again a function of education (Day & Devlin, 1998). In the same way, the importance of the character of social capital is recognized in connection with building social trust, which, through volunteers' networked communication, is also created through knowledge about others, that is, through education. This precisely follows Putnam's (1995, p. 68) definition, which recognizes that social capital consists of those features of social life (networks, norms and trust) that enable participants to act together more effectively to pursue common goals. Therefore, social capital can also be considered as an unintentional collective benefit of voluntary association (Dekker, 2015).

These characteristics and expectations of the human and social capital acquired through volunteering were not recognized or visible in postcommunist transition countries, and these countries presented relatively low rates of social inequality and lower motivation for organized volunteer work⁵. However, during

⁴ It is about emphasizing nonformal and informal learning, which, as highlighted in this document, plays an important role in supporting essential interpersonal, communication and cognitive skills such as: critical thinking, analytical skills, creativity, problem solving and resilience that young people, among other things, , facilitate the transition to adulthood, active citizenship and working life.

⁵ In most postcommunist countries, rates of social inequality are relatively low, but social trust is lacking as a result of decades of dictatorship, which explains low volunteer rates (Enjolras, 2021).

the 1990s, at the time of the initial transition and the postwar period, when the more intensive development of civil society and organized volunteerism began in Croatia, volunteer centers were founded (Kezić, 2024, p. 103) as institutional forms of volunteering⁶. For a long time, however, the chance to participate in formal and informal lifelong education was not recognized⁷, and volunteering was one of the key sectors for acquiring lifelong educational achievements as a significant part of human capital. This is emphasized by the definition according to which “informal education is a type of educational process that includes noninstitutional educational activities that acquire certain knowledge and skills, and participation in such activities is voluntary” (Kuka, 2011, p. 198). This is emphasized by the definition according to which “informal education is a type of educational process that includes noninstitutional educational activities that acquire certain knowledge and skills, and participation in such activities is voluntary” (Kuka, 2011, p. 198). Emphasis on voluntariness ties it closely to civil society organizations, and in this context, informal learning can take place as an accidental or spontaneous acquisition of knowledge. It can be discovered in the unfulfilled potential of formal and informal education, and its basic determinants are, in addition to voluntariness, lifelongness and intrinsic motivation (Lazić & Saveski, 2012, p. 136).

As informal ways of acquiring knowledge and skills as parts of lifelong education are incorporated into volunteering, they are often recommended and offered to young people as a perspective that helps them cope with and prepare for adaptation to the knowledge society in which we live. This is especially because of the obvious gain from volunteering through belonging to a social organization and the possibility of using networks, norms and trust that facilitate coordination and cooperation for mutual benefit because social capital uses investments in physical and human capital (Putnam, 1993, p. 36). For the advantages of social networking, the above applies in particular to another type of learning (in addition to formal and nonformal), namely, the already mentioned informal type, the presence of which increases through volunteering as part of enriching life experiences. They are also aimed at increasing motivation for educational achievement, which has long been considered to be

⁶ The Volunteer Center Zagreb, founded in 1997, was created within the framework of the Croatian Anti-War Campaign, and centers were subsequently established in other cities as well.

⁷ Low levels of participation of Croatian adult citizens in lifelong education are highlighted in numerous documents, among others in the Report for Croatia on the Assessment of Progress on Structural Reforms and the Prevention and Correction of Macroeconomic Imbalances and Results of In-depth Reviews under Regulation (EU) No 1176/2011 (*European Semester Country Report Croatia 2020*), as well as in the Recommendation of the Council on Key Competences for Lifelong Learning of the European Commission from 2008. Additionally, in the latest Strategic Framework for the Promotion of Lifelong Learning in the Republic of Croatia 2017 – 2022, it is reported that only 3.2% of adults participated in education and training in 2016, and in 2022, the participation increased to 4.4% while the EU average was 11.9%, according to the Eurostat data.

more than knowledge of the learning material. This, in other words, implies a richer everyday life, more meaningful free time and the development of richer lifestyles and coexistence in the community, especially for young people. These are also possible outcomes of participation in civil society organizations. Thus, these organizations not only connect individuals with the same and similar interests but also have the potential to connect various social groups through membership in several organizations and thus enable individuals to create connections that strengthen the spread of social trust (Gvozdanović, 2015), which is the expected value of volunteering. Moreover, social trust necessarily produces “trust in institutions”, which is considered the main generator of social capital (Barić & Dobrić, 2012, p. 888).

The perspective of volunteering, in the context of discussions about the social capital of young people, is especially important in relation to the possibilities of bonding and bridging toward civic and political participation, i.e., political capital, especially when it is known that, for example, the rates of volunteering among young people are higher than their voter turnout (Nunn, 2020, p. 125). Bonding social capital is described through the existence of strong relationships that develop between people of similar backgrounds and interests (usually involving family and friends), and bridging social capital is the result of networking and connects people across cleavages that typically divide society (such as race, class, or religion). Associations are precisely the ‘bridge’ between communities, groups or organizations (Claridge, 2018, p. 3), i.e., those that bridge. Putnam claims that the bridging form of social capital functions as a social lubricant, acts as a social lever and is crucial for social advancement (Putnam, 2000). Although, in a recent study on the role of values and political participation in explaining volunteer motivation in a sample of young volunteers from all over Croatia, the index of political participation did not prove to be a relevant factor in explaining volunteer motivation, whereas the motive of social relations turned out to be significant (Tonković et al., 2023, pp. 389–390). In this sense, nothing significant has changed over the years because even twenty years ago, volunteers were the least likely to participate in activities related to participation in politics or work for a political party (Ledić, 2007). Equally interesting, from the perspective of volunteering, is the result of research on the motives for volunteering, which are connected with career intentions and are especially pronounced among young people (Juzbašić and Vukasović Hlupić, 2015, p. 292). Likewise, studies on student volunteering stand out, where the connection of volunteer activities with the field of study is highlighted in the direction of strengthening competencies for employability and work in the profession in general (Kotlar et al., 2016). This applies, for example, to student volunteering by future educators and teachers, who develop their life skills and professional knowledge and skills in working with children and young people with special educational needs (Skočić et al., 2011), as well as

to volunteering high school students who are actively involved in the school and local community to develop their potential and competences. (Malogorski, 2019).

Looking at these basic characteristics of social capital from the point of view of its recognizable characteristics, through its immanent processes of bonding within a group and bridging toward other groups, key processes related to volunteering that represent strong impulses of connection in the community are revealed and spread. This can equally apply to volunteer activities on an individual basis (one-on-one). This is volunteering, not through groups, as the predominant form among the poor and marginalized population, owing to the need to complement access to the so-called “third (nongovernmental/civil) sector” by the “fourth sector”, which, unlike formal volunteer groups, is self-organized (Williams, 2002). This research challenge also contributes to the need to map the increased fragmentation of research on volunteering, with the fourth sector gaining another space as an opportunity to develop human and social capital. This phenomenon primarily refers to the fact that modern volunteer work is more open, i.e., it is tied not only to associations but also to the service institutions of the welfare state. Providing new foundations for volunteering through opportunities to develop beyond institutional civic engagement calls for a redefinition of the system of volunteering that includes active membership and citizenship (Dekker, 2015, p. 47).

Within this framework, one cannot neglect the challenge for research and ask questions related to finding patterns of inequality in the fields and practices of volunteering, i.e., unequal chances for acquiring human and social capital through volunteering, in relation to who volunteers are, how much and where (Chambre & Einolf, 2011; Eimhjellen, 2022). This is especially the context of the possibility of easier bridging, that is, stepping out of (only) the binding character of social capital, which limits the creation of networks outside of isolated groups known only to the individuals who make them. This limits the development of the significant character of the bridging form of social capital, which, through wider networking, opens up opportunities for developing new lifestyles, which is significant for the aforementioned socially isolated groups of volunteers. Equally, under these conditions, the question arises about the possible limitations of human capital development in the context discussed in this paper. Precisely overcoming this limitation is one of the significant challenges regarding the perspective of volunteering for the development of both human capital and social capital. In this sense, within the monitoring of the development and research of volunteering, questions are raised about the unrealized opportunity to create bridging social capital, that is, a powerful volunteer exchange in which the reciprocal nature of the volunteer experience is recorded (Nunn, 2000).

CONCLUSION

The possibilities of acquiring human and social capital, in the array of benefits for volunteers and the community, are manifested by several key outcomes or competencies. By opening space for nonformal and informal learning through volunteering, i.e., increasing educational achievements, competences for employability are developed as a concrete benefit, as well as space for unlimited opportunities to participate in lifelong education. However, we cannot promote or view volunteerism and the development of human capital only in the context of ensuring one's employability perspective, improving one's professional career or generally increasing the level of social security. What is equally recognized are the opportunities and processes that accompany volunteering, and above all, they relate to its potential for community gathering and bridging social divisions. In this context, the development of, for example, social capital in the form of norms of reciprocity and a network of civic engagement facilitates cooperation in society (Putnam, 2003, p. 197). In this context, youth volunteerism is particularly important and refers to activism in the local community that involves a series of competencies that are aimed not only at a professional career as an effect of human capital but also at the motivation of volunteers to develop social relations, i.e., social capital. The perspectives of volunteerism and its effects on the acquisition of human and social capital are challenging with respect to youth volunteerism and the acquisition of competencies and skills for political participation, which, as an expression of civic activism, is markedly deficient. In that segment, which is characterized by directing the acquisition of human capital and social capital toward the creation of political capital, both in Croatia and in the world, there is a lack of motivation for bonding and bridging social capital, i.e., developing stronger ties between interested groups among young people. This primarily refers to the interest and motivation of young people to, for example, channel the relationships and networks acquired through voluntary work in the community toward stronger connections, overcoming social divisions to build on the effects of volunteerism through political participation, working for their own and the community's progress. In this sense, Nunn (2000) considers that the challenge remains to improve the support system and deepen the volunteer experience, that is, to guide and encourage volunteers to ensure a constant upward trajectory of social capital development.

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TRAGOVI PEDAGOŠKIH IDEJA FRIEDRICHA FRÖBELA U DJELU *UKOVOD ZA ZABAVIŠTE ANTONIJE CVIJIĆ (1895.)¹*

Sažetak: Pedagoška koncepcija Friedricha Fröbela (1782. – 1852.) prva je koncepcija institucijskog odgoja u ranom djetinjstvu. Ostavila je veliki trag u povijesti institucijskoga ranog i predškolskog odgoja u svjetskim okvirima. Friedrich Fröbel svoju je pedagošku koncepciju razradio tijekom dužega vremenskog razdoblja. Temeljna načela i pristupe svoje koncepcije detaljno je obrazložio u djelu *Die Menschenerziehung (O odgoju čovjeka)*. Široka pedagoška javnost s oduševljenjem je prihvatila otvaranja dječjih vrtića. Njegove pedagoške ideje naišle su na „plodno tlo“ i kod domaćih pedagoga. Među domaćim pedagogima posebno se ističe Antonija Cvijić ud. Kassowitz (1865. – 1936.), koja je na osnovi vlastite prakse u zagrebačkom dječjem zabavištu te pod utjecajem pedagoških ideja Friedricha Fröbela napisala knjigu *Rukovod za zabavišta (1895.)*, koja se smatra kapitalnim djelom hrvatske pedagogije druge polovine 19. stoljeća.

Ključne riječi: Hrvatska, institucijski odgoj, odgajatelj, predškolska dob, predškolske ustanove

UVOD

Počeci teorijske pedagogije u Hrvatskoj vezani su za drugu polovinu 19. stoljeća. Tijekom tog razdoblja došlo je do izdvajanja pedagogije iz korpusa filozofije te njezina konstituiranja kao samostalne znanosti. I neki

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drugi događaji tijekom navedenog razdoblja također su značajni za razvoj pedagogije. Uvedena je obvezno školsko obrazovanje, u školama se počinje izvoditi nastava na hrvatskom (materinskom) jeziku, otvara se Učiteljska škola u Zagrebu, objavljuje se udžbenik za pedagošku skupinu predmeta (Stjepan Basariček), otvara se prvo dječje zabavište (dječji vrtić), počinje izlaziti pedagoški časopis Napredak i dr. Posebno je značajno sustavnije objavljivanje knjiga i članaka tematski orijentiranih na različita pitanja pedagogije. Interes domaćih pedagoga primarno se odnosio na školsku tematiku, didaktiku te posebne metodike. Međutim, domaće je pedagoge počela zanimati i problematika dječjih vrtića (Mendeš, 2020) koji su se u to vrijeme nazivali dječjim zabavištima. Među domaćim pedagogima interes za problematiku odgojno-obrazovnog rada u dječjim zabavištima posebno je iskazala Antonija Cvijić udana Kassowitz (1865. – 1936.). Njezini pedagoški pogledi, te pogledi ostalih hrvatskih pedagoga na institucijski rani odgoj, formirani su pod utjecajem pedagoških ideja Friedricha Fröbela (1782. – 1852.). Njegovom zaslugom dječji su vrtići „krenuli u osvajanje svijeta“ (Engelbrecht, 1986).

FRIEDRICH FRÖBEL: OSNOVNI BIOGRAFSKI PODATCI

Friedrich Fröbel rođen je 21. travnja 1782. u Oberweissbachu u Turingiji. Smatra se jednim od najznačajnijih i utjecajnijih pedagoga u 19. stoljeću. Pohađao je djevojačku školu, a naknadno i šumarsku. Nakon šumarske škole upisao je medicinu na Sveučilištu u Jeni. Godine 1801. vratio se u svoj obiteljski dom. Došen-Dobud (2019) navodi da je u djevojačkoj školi Fröbel dobio pozornost koju nije mogao dobiti u vlastitoj obitelji te da je ta škola bila kvalitetnija od one koju su pohađali ostali dječaci njegovih godina. Išao je u djevojačku školu te u svojoj autobiografiji piše kako je briljirao u vjeronauku i matematici (Fröbel i sur., 1889). S petnaest godina krenuo je u šumarsku školu. Fröbel je priznao da je drveće bilo njegov prvi učitelj te da nikada neće zaboraviti što ga je sve naučilo (Došen-Dobud, 2019). Fröbel je sa samo devet mjeseci ostao bez majke, o čemu je kasnije i pisao: „Ovaj gubitak predstavljao je težak udarac za mene i utjecao na cjelokupni razvitak moga bića; smatram da je smrt moje majke odlučila manje-više vanjski položaj moga cjelokupnog života“ (Fröbel, prema Zaninović, 1988, str. 169). Kad je imao četiri godine, otac mu se ponovo oženio i dobio dijete.

Družio se s pedagogom Antonom Grünerom te zahvaljujući njemu dobio mjesto učitelja u oglednoj školi u Frankfurtu iako prije nije obavljao nikakav sličan posao. Fröbel je bio oduševljen pedagoškim zvanjem te je u pismu bratu rekao da mu se činilo kako je od prvog trenutka otkako je došao raditi u školu znao da je to njegov životni poziv (Zaninović, 1988). Grüner je bio

učenik Johanna Heinricha Pestalozzija, u to vrijeme najpoznatijeg pedagoga, pa se tako Fröbel zainteresirao za pedagošku problematiku i uspio stupiti u kontakt s Pestalozzijem te je na kratko vrijeme otišao kod njega u Švicarsku (Mendeš, 2020). Pestalozzi je u to vrijeme radio u Iverdonu te Fröbel s njim provodi dva tjedna 1805. godine. Posjet je bio kratak, ali Pestalozzi je na njega ostavio snažan dojam. Došen-Dobud (2019) navodi kako je Fröbel odlučio, kad za to bude prilike, ponovo ga posjetiti. Zaninović (1988) piše da je Fröbel nakon godinu dana napustio oglednu školu u kojoj je radio te postaje kućni učitelj. Ponovo odlazi kod Pestalozzija i u njega ostaje čak dvije godine kao njegov suradnik, a sa sobom je poveo i svoja tri učenika. Bio je očaran Pestalozzijem, a ponajviše ga je oduševila njegova igra na otvorenom te je smatra okreppljujućom duševnom kupkom (Seidel, 1883, prema Zaninović, 1988). Vraća se u Njemačku s dvadeset devet godina i tamo se upisuje na Sveučilište u Göttingenu. Nakon samo godinu dana prešao je na Sveučilište u Berlinu, gdje je proučavao prirodne znanosti. Isti autor navodi kako se Fröbelu opetovano vraćala želja za pedagoškim radom te se on 1816. godine definitivno odlučuje posvetiti odgajanju omladine. Sljedeće godine otvara školu za dječake u Keilhauu po ugledu na Pestalozzijevu školu u Iverdonu. U to vrijeme u Europi je došlo do zaključivanja Svete alijanse te Fröbel školu ostavlja svojim bliskim suradnicima i odlazi voditi pedagoške ustanove u Švicarsku. Godine 1836. nakon smirivanja situacije opet dolazi u Njemačku da bi posvetio život odgajanju djece predškolske dobi. Mendeš (2020) navodi kako je Fröbel 1837. godine osnovao prvu predškolsku ustanovu pod nazivom „Ustanova za razvoj stvaralačkih motiva djelatnosti kod djece i mladih“. Ovaj se naziv Fröbelu činio neprihvatljivim te mijenja naziv u „dječji vrtić“. Zaninović (1988) obrazlaže kako je naziv „dječji vrtić“ nastao kao plod njegove mašte jer je smatrao da je dijete kao biljka, škola predstavlja vrt, a učitelj vrtlara. Friedrich Fröbel oženio se Henriettom Wilkelminom Hoffmeister, kćerkom jednog od članova Berlinskoga ratnog vijeća, 1817. godine. Prema pisanjima Fröbela i suradnika (1889), Fröbel je vidio Henriettu prvi put u muzeju te se na prvi pogled oduševio njom. Ona nakon kratkotrajne bolesti umire u svibnju 1839. godine.

Fröbel je za života objavio mnoge tekstove i djela. Njegov prvi tekst bio je *Kratak opis Pestalozzijevih principa odgoja i poučavanja* (Heiland, 1999). U tom djelu Friedrich, iako zadivljen Pestalozzijevim idejama, shvaća kako je njegov sustav nedovršen te želi naučiti što više teorije kako bi nastavio Pestalozzijeve ideje. Jedno od najvažnijih djela koje je objavio za života svakako je „Odgoj čovjeka“. Fröbel je izdao i zbornik pjesmica i raznih igara za majke i djecu te *Nedjeljni list* s parolom „Živimo za našu djecu“. U Njemačkoj otvara velik broj dječjih vrtića te se ženi drugi put, i to sa svojom učenicom Luise Levin u srpnju 1851. godine. Ona nakon njegove smrti nastavlja njegov rad prema metodama vrtića u Keilhauu (Fröbel i sur., 1889). Umire 21. lipnja 1852. godine u sedamdesetoj godini života. Došen-Dobud (2019) navodi kako

se Fröbelu u Blankenburgu, na mjestu na kojem se nalazio prvi „Kindergarten“, podignuo spomenik. Na njegovu nadgrobnom spomeniku nalaze se kocka, kugla i valjak koji su neizostavni dio njegove koncepcije te natpis na kojem piše „Dajte da živimo za našu djecu!“.

PEDAGOŠKA KONCEPCIJA FRIEDRICHA FRÖBELA

Mendeš (2020) navodi da je vodeća ideja Friedricha Fröbela da je čovjek po prirodi dobar. Fröbel također smatra da je čovjek posljednji i najsavršeniji proizvod evolucije. U njemu se pravilnim odgojem otkriva božansko načelo. Smatra da kao što se u biljci skriva snaga koja upravlja njezinim rastom, tako i u čovjeku postoji neka snaga koja omogućava njegov razvitak. Takvo shvaćanje ljudskog bića važan je dio Fröbelovih filozofskih shvaćanja. Polazi od ideje da se dijete rađa dobro i da u njemu ne postoji zlo. Ako dođe do zla, kriv je nepravilan odgoj (Zaninović, 1988). Takav stav prvi je razradio Jean Jacques Rousseau. Rousseauove su ideje dječjega spontanog razvoja zaintrigirale Fröbela te ih je naveo kao svoj pedagoški konceptijski element. Smatrao je da dijete ima pravo i treba biti tretirano kao dijete. Rousseau smatra da postupno uspostavljanje ravnoteže između onoga što je moguće i onoga što dijete želi osigurava djetetu zadovoljenje njegovih potreba (Došen-Dobud, 2019).

Fröbel je svoju koncepciju utemeljio i na Pestalozzijevim idejama i njemačkoj idealističkoj filozofiji. Zaintrigirala ga je i filozofija Friedricha Wilhelma Schellinga i njegova objašnjenja o odnosu između prirode i duha, između spiritualnog i materijalnog. Veliki značaj za Fröbela bilo je i njegovo zanimanje za znanost. Bavio se proučavanjem fizike, matematike, mineralogije, botanike i lingvistike. Zaninović (1988) navodi kako je Fröbel unatoč mnogim idealima ipak bio samostalan duh. Polazeći od navedenog, Fröbel je stvorio osnovu za njegovo shvaćanje čovjeka, prirode i odgoja. U tome leži ideja traganja za općim zakonom fizičkog i moralnog jedinstva, univerzalnog jedinstva i božanskim načelom koje vlada materijom i duhom (Kamenov, 1987). Fröbelova glavna odrednica odgoja naslanja se na dvije filozofske ideje, a to su ideja sveopćeg jedinstva i ideja evolucije. Na taj način objašnjava odgoj i cilj odgoja kojemu pridaje religiozno-mistično značenje. Za razliku od Komenskog, Pestalozzija i Rousseaua, Fröbel prvi naglašava socijalnu komponentu odgoja djeteta. Smatra da dijete prelazi iz animalnog stadija u ljudski tek onda kad stupa u odnos s drugim bićima i kad može surađivati s drugima na zajedničkim ciljevima. S obzirom na to, važno je da odgoj započne u najranijoj dobi djeteta i da bude pravilno usmjeravano. Isti autor navodi kako je Fröbel odgajanje shvatio kao sredstvo kojim se čovjek upućuje kao razumno, inteligentno i svjesno biće da vježba, razvija i oslobodi životni element koji ima. Odgoj treba biti povezan s prirodom jer je ona djetetu omogućila instinkte i nagone. Zbog

toga rani razvitak djeteta ide spontano pa je bolje ne uplitati se kako ne bismo sputavali prirodan tijek razvitka djeteta (Zaninović, 1988).

Fröbel je u svojoj koncepciji zagovarao i određena načela. Autor Zaninović (1988) dijeli ih na prilagođavanje prirodi, samorad, svestranost, jedinstvo nastave i dinamično shvaćanje djeteta. Njegovo shvaćanje o prilagođavanju prirodi zasniva se na njegovim idealističkim i mističnim pogledima. Kamenov (1987) navodi da dijete od prvog dana kad se rodi mora biti shvaćeno, usmjeravano i stavljano u situacije u skladu sa svojom prirodom. Na taj način dijete može svestrano upotrebljavati svoje snage. Nešto suvremeniju podjelu Fröbelovih načela, koje i danas koristimo, opisala je autorica Tovey (2020), a dijeli ih na: slobodu s usmjeravanjem, jedinstvo, povezanost i zajedništvo, usklađenost s prirodom, učenje kroz samoaktivnost i samorefleksiju, značaj igre, kreativnost i snagu simbola, obrazovane i brižne odgajateljce. Sloboda za dijete predstavlja mogućnost samostalnog razmišljanja i emancipaciju. Fröbel naglašava da sloboda ne znači da djeca rade apsolutno sve što žele, nego da moraju biti odgovorna prema drugima i prema prirodi. Važno je naglasiti i Fröbelov stav o jedinstvu. On smatra da učenje uvelike treba biti povezano s dječjim životima i sagledavati se u cjelini.

PEDAGOŠKI SUSTAV ANTONIJE CVIJIĆ

Antonija Cvijić rođena je 16. siječnja 1865. u Zagrebu. Istaknuta je hrvatska pedagoginja druge polovice 19. st. (Došen-Dobud, 2019). Njezina obitelj bila je u rodu s obitelji Fuchs-Lisinski. Obrazovanje je započela u pučkoj školi u Zagrebu. Nakon toga dodatno se obrazovala u Beču (Jerand, 1942). Njezina majka Antonija Cvijić Lukšić bila je osnivačica i vlasnica prvog dječjeg zabavišta osnovanog 1869. godine (Došen-Dobud, 2019). Osnivanje zabavišta bilo je popraćeno u 233. broju „Agramer Zeintuga“. Riječ je bila o privatnom vrtiću koji je otvoren po uzoru na neke slične institucije koje su se iz Njemačke proširile i na ostale zemlje. Objavljeno je kako će u tom vrtiću djeca imati priliku u svojoj dobi zabavljati se i graditi na primjeren način te slagati štapiće i krugove, šivati, plesti i ostalo (Batinić, 2013). Nakon uspješnog rada majka Lukšić imenovala je kćer Antoniju ravnateljicom i tu je funkciju uspješno obavljala čak trinaest godina. Mendeš (2020) navodi kako se nakon udaje morala umiroviti prema tadašnjoj praksi. Nakon nekog vremena suprug joj je obolio te se ona odlučila posvetiti književnom radu. Organizirala je vlastitu knjižaru koju je sama vodila osam godina, a od 1909. aktivno se posvetila književno-kulturnom radu za koji se zanimala sve do kraja života (Maroshi, 2023).

Ubrzo je počela surađivati s časopisima *Smilje*, *Bršljan* i *Napredak*. Svoju prvu knjigu izdala je 1889., a ubrzo nakon toga, točnije 1895., Hrvatski pedagoški zbor poziva je da napiše *Rukovođ za zabavište*. Iste godine pozvana je i izabrana biti dopisna članica Hrvatskoga pedagoško-književnog zbora.

Njezino djelo poslano je i na međunarodnu izložbu u Pariz. *Rukovođ* postaje kapitalno djelo predškolske pedagoške misli u Hrvatskoj (Mendeš, 2020). Iz tog razdoblja postojao je još jedan sličan priručnik naziva *Teorija zabavišta*, ali autor, godina izdanja i nakladnik do današnjeg dana nisu poznati (Došen-Dobud, 2019). Nakon 1908. godine za *Jutarnji list* i *Narodne novine* pisala je kulturno-povijesne članke, eseje, književne ocjene i drugo (Jerand, 1942). Surađivala je i s *Kazališnim listom*, gdje je prevodila opere i operete. Njezine predstave *Krasuljica* i *Demetru u pohode* izvodile su se u hrvatskom kazalištu 1911. i 1912. godine. Istraživački interes bio joj je ilirizam i zagrebačko kazalište. Napisala je više od dvjesto članaka na hrvatskom i njemačkom jeziku u kojima je opisivala zagrebački kazališni, glazbeni i književni život. Maroshi (2023) navodi kako se Cvijić smatra začetnicom romansirane biografije i monografskih izdanja o glumcima. U svom autobiografskom članku naziva *Moja ispovijest* Kassowitz Cvijić istakla je kako joj je tadašnji redatelj Aleksandar Freudenreich namijenio ulogu kazališne konferensijenke. To je značilo da je Cvijić najavljivala ili vodila program tijekom kazališne izvedbe. Sva njezina scenska djela mogu se uvrstiti u žanr prigodnica. To su kratki kazališni dijelovi pisani s namjerom da se obilježi neki važan događaj ili datum nekog pisca, umjetnika ili glumca. Isti autor navodi kako se Cvijić koristila kajkavštinom u svojim scenskim djelima, nastavljajući se tako na ilirce koji su se i dalje pridržavali kajkavštine. Smatra se „posljednjom poilirskom romantičarkom“ (Kassowitz-Cvijić, 1934, prema Morashi 2023). Nastojala je u svojim prigodnicama prenijeti hrvatski domoljubni zanos i duh ilirskog doba. Umrkla je 18. prosinca 1936. u Zagrebu.

ZNAČAJ DJELA RUKOVOĐ ZA ZABAVIŠTE ANTONIJE CVIJIĆ (1895.)

Antonija Cvijić obogatila je hrvatsku pedagogiju svojim djelom *Rukovođ za zabavište*. Napisala ga je na nagovor Hrvatskog pedagoškog književnog zbora u Zagrebu 1895. Cvijić je navela izvore koji su joj poslužili da napiše navedeno djelo, a smatra da su to upravo njezina dugogodišnja praksa u zabavištu i Fischrov *Volkskindergarten*. Njezino iskustvo uistinu je bogato s obzirom na to da ju je majka Antonija Cvijić Lukšić postavila na mjesto ravnateljice odnosno predstojnice zabavišta koje je osnovala 1869. godine. *Rukovođ za zabavište* Antonija Cvijić namijenila je svima onima koji rade u zabavištu, ali i onima koji se pripremaju za taj poziv. Njezina želja bila je da se *Rukovođem* postavi temelj zabavišnoj literaturi u Hrvatskoj. U razdoblju od 1874. do 1899. završilo je u učiteljskoj školi 212 učiteljica za zabavište. Navela je zašto je i sama imala potrebu da napiše ovakvu knjigu.

„Na to me je nukala, prije svega spoznaja da u mnogim zemljama zabavišta brojem i ugledom rastu s toga, što mnogobrojni misionari i misionarke perom šire ideje te čovjekoljubive institucije i time joj

krče put tako, da je zabavište prema želji čuvenog pedagoga Adolfa Disterwega donekle postalo potrebnim faktorom narodnog uzgoja“ (Cvijić, 1895, str. V).

Priručnik je izdan u Zagrebu jer je u to doba predškolski odgoj ondje najviše bio razvijen. Franković (1958) navodi da je tada u Hrvatskoj bilo samo šesnaest zabavišta i sedam čuvališta. U svim navedenim ustanovama bilo je 1541 dijete. Antonija Cvijić ponosila se činjenicom da je prošlo samo četrdeset dvije godine od prvog Kindergartena u Blankenburku do prvoga zagrebačkog gradskog zabavišta. Kao što je navedeno, sačuvana je iz tog vremena još jedna knjiga imena *Teorija zabavišta*, kojoj do današnjeg dana ne znamo autora, izdavača ni godinu izdanja. Među istaknutim pedagogima iz tog doba ističe se i Antun Čuvaj. On je također u to vrijeme obogatio hrvatsku pedagogiju djelom *Rieč o zabavištih*, napisanim 1880. Autor je knjigu razradio kroz devet točaka (Zabavišta u obće, Postanak i razvoj zabavišta, Bitnost zabavišta, Znamenovanje i vrijednost zabavišta, Zadaća zabavišta, Rieč dvie ob odgojnih sredstvih u obće, Odgojna sredstva zabavišta napose, Odnosaj zabavišta prema obitelji te Odnosaj zabavišta prema školi) te je kroz njih obrađena osnovna koncepcija odgojnog rada u zabavištu. Čuvaj definira zabavište kao odgajalište djece koja su napunila treću godinu, ali nisu prešla sedmu godinu života (Mendeš, 2015). Serdar (2013) navodi kako je ova knjižica, iako mala opsegom, namijenjena svim roditeljima i prijateljima hrvatske mladeži. Ista autorica (2017) smatra kako i dalje ostaje nepoznanica zašto sama Antonija Kassowitz Cvijić nigdje ne spominje djela Antuna Čuvaja. *Rukovođ za zabaviše* fröbelovskog je smjera. Cvijić u to vrijeme nije ni imala nikojeg drugog uzora. Svi značajni pedagozi tog vremena, primjerice Diesterwage, zalagali su se za Fröbelove ideje, pa prema tome ni Antonija Cvijić nije mogla misliti drukčije (Došen-Dobud, 2019). *Rukovođ* se dijeli na tri velika poglavlja, a to su:

- Povijest uzgojnih zavoda za malu djecu – prvi odsjek
- Teorija zabavišta – drugi odsjek
- Uređenje zabavišta – treći odsjek.

U prvom odsjeku Cvijić (1895) opisuje cijelu povijest ustanova za malu djecu od generacije Jana Amosa Komenskoga. Budući da je uzor za Antoniju Cvijić bio Komenski, opisuje i Serdar (2013) koja navodi kako temeljne ideje *Materinske škole* Jana Komenskog prepoznajemo u njezinu *Rukovođu za zabavište*. I u njezinu djelu *Ilustrovani ABC* može se vidjeti kako je neke ideje preuzela iz djela *Orbis sensualium pictus* iz 1654., koje je napisao upravo Komenski. U ostatku prvog odsjeka Cvijić (1895) dalje navodi četiri vrste zavoda za malu djecu: pjestovalište, čuvalište, zabavište i pučko ili kombinirano zabavište.

U drugom odsjeku Antonija Cvijić razmatra teoriju odgojno-obrazovnog procesa u dječjim zabavištima. Ona opisuje uzgojnu zadaću zabavišta, igru i igračke, sustav vježbi, „zabavice“, odnosno sustav raznolikih dječjih aktivnosti kao što su pletenje, risanje, građenje, izrezivanje i spajanje, pjevanje i ostalo

(Mendeš, 2020). U ovom poglavlju dolazi do izražaja odgojni sustav Friedricha Fröbela.

U zadnjem odsjeku Cvijić (1895) detaljno je opisala uređenje zabavišta, od unutarnjeg i vanjskog uređenja pa sve do rasporeda sati, uprave zabavišta, božićnih i zaključnih svečanosti.

ELEMENTI PEDAGOŠKE KONCEPCIJE FRIEDRICHA FRÖBELA U DJELU ANTONIJE CVIJIĆ *RUKOVOĐ ZA ZABAVIŠTE*

Friedrich Fröbel promijenio je način gledanja na rani odgoj i obrazovanje. Prepoznao je jedinstvo svih djetetovih potencijala i mogućih sposobnosti, nadarenosti i kreativnosti (Santos, 2012). Smatrao je da svatko tko prepoznaje jedinstvenost, sposobnosti i potencijal svakog djeteta ima pogled na cjelokupan djetetov razvoj. Usprkos mnogim kritikama ostao je važan pedagog koji je bio usmjeren na dijete te su nakon njega mnogi bili nadahnuti i nastavili njegov rad. Jedan od primjera je i Antonija Cvijić, čije je djelo *Rukovođ za zabavište* prožeto Fröbelovim idejama. Fröbel u svojim djelima zahtjeva gledati na dijete kao na biće u razvoju (Zaninović, 1988). Nastavlja kako je puno važnije utjecati na volju djeteta nego na njegov intelekt. Navodi da je prvi najvažniji plan odgoja formiranje karaktera i volje jer je to cilj odgoja. Jedna od važnijih stvari koje ističe jest prilagođavanje djeteta prirodi i njezinim zakonima. To je i jedno od načela koje naglašava te se na njemu razvija njegova pedagoška koncepcija.

Kod samog prilagođavanja prirodi, Fröbel smatra kako bi trebalo oprezno ići za nagonima te piše o četirima nagonima: religijski nagon, umjetnički, nagon rada i nagon spoznavanja. U svakog je djeteta potrebno naglasiti sve fizičke i umne sposobnosti, pa tako i fizički odgoj (Zaninović, 1988). Obrazlaže kako se dijete ne bi smjelo gledati kao odvojeno biće, izolirano za sebe, nego bi se trebalo promatrati kao član društva. Jedino se priroda mora promatrati kao cjelina jer jedino tako dijete može shvatiti da su svi predmeti iz prirode zapravo dijelovi organske cjeline. Na taj način dijete se uči promatranju, razlikovanju boja, imenovanju i slično. I u svojoj autobiografiji Fröbel i suradnici (1889) navode kako se proučavanje prirode mora događati u samoj prirodi, a ne u zatvorenim prostorijama. Iz toga se vidi koliki mu je uzor bio i sami Rousseau jer se on također zalagao za promatranje prirode vani. Navodi kako u svake majke postoji određen istinski nagon koji joj je priroda dala. U vremenu sve brže industrijalizacije smatra kako majka nije imala dovoljno vremena ni znanja da kvalitetno odgoji svoju djecu. Iz tog razloga on se odlučuje na premještanje središta odgoja iz obitelji u dječje ustanove.

Antonija Cvijić imala je slične stavove kao i Fröbel. I ona u *Rukovođu za zabavište* ističe skeptičnost prema tome da roditelji mogu kvalitetno posvetiti vrijeme svojoj djeci koliko to mogu zabavišne učiteljice, pa se i ona zalaže da

se odgoj premjesti u specijalizirane ustanove. Vjeruje da djeca u zabavištima mogu steći puno veću količinu znanja i iskustva nego ako su stalno kući. Ni ona ne spominje individualni razvoj djeteta, već ga promatra u cjelini s drugom djecom. Iako smo danas svjesni nedostatka načina rada u kojem nisu zadovoljene individualne potrebe djeteta, uz nepoštivanje djetetovih prava i nepoštivanje osobnosti djeteta, u ono vrijeme Antonija Cvijić pratila je tadašnja najnovija shvaćanja djeteta i veliki je utjecaj uzela upravo od Friedricha Fröbela. Ne smije se zanemariti da je u to doba ideal bio: davanje, prenošenje znanja i usvajanje znanja reprodukcijom (Došen-Dobud, 2019).

Za razliku od Fröbela, koji je smatrao da je cilj odgoja formiranje volje i karaktera čovjeka, Cvijić (1895) navodi kako je za nju cilj odgoja „da privede dijete što bliže idealu čovjeka, bića, koje na sebi i u sebi sjedinjuje sve vrline, što mogu po našem mnijenju resiti smrtno biće“. Naglašava važnost igre, smatrajući je djetetovim „ozbiljnim radom“. Cvijić (1895) također smatra da djetetova neiskusna duša ne poznaje razlike između dobra i zla te kako slobodna igra može negativno utjecati na dječji tjelesni razvitak. Time se ponovno javlja oprečnost, s obzirom na to da se Cvijić po pisanjima zalagala za rađanje slobode, zadovoljstva i radosti kod djece. Tako se nameće pitanje kako bi se drukčije ostvarile navedene vrijednosti bez slobodne igre (Došen-Dobud, 1979). Antonija Cvijić također se slaže s Fröbelom po pitanju odgoja djeteta i prirode. Ona u *Rukovođu* navodi kako je obavezno da djeca koriste vrt kraj zabavišta i da često idu u šetnje, barem jednom na tjedan (Cvijić, 1895). Tako navodi:

„Ovakovu djecu treba što više voditi u lijepu božju prirodu, i to ako je ikako moguće svake nedjelje barem jedamput. Šetnje su od neprocjenjive uzgojne vrijednosti. Glavno je da se djeca slobodno kreću... pa im se time jačaju pluća i osvježe čitavo tijelo.“
(Cvijić, 1895, str. 228).

U Fröbelovu Kindertagenu djeca su bila podijeljena u tri skupine, a to su:

- mlađa skupina od dvije do četiri godine
- srednja skupina od četiri do šest godina
- najstarija skupina u kojoj su obitavala djeca od šest do osam godina (Došen-Dobud, 2019).

Antonija Cvijić u *Rukovođu* se zalagala za osnivanje više tipova zavoda za malu djecu te ih je podijelila u četiri kategorije:

- pjestovališta,
- čuvališta
- zabavišta i
- pučka ili kombinirana zabavišta (Došen-Dobud, 1979).

Za razliku od Fröbelova Kindertagenu u kojem je najmlađa skupina djece imala dvije do četiri godine, Antonija Cvijić mislila je i na djecu mlađe dobi, pa su u njezino pjestovalište mogla ići djeca s navršениh tek četrnaest dana.

Tamo bi obitavala sve do navršene treće godine života. Mendeš (2013) navodi kako su pjestovališta skloništa za djecu do treće godine života. Još neki od naziva za njega su „dadilišta“, a kasnije se rabio i naziv „kolijevka“. Ideju za pjestovalište Antonija Cvijić preuzela je od Firmina Marbeaua, koji je u Parizu u to doba osnovao „Crech jaslice“. Taj naziv potječe od toga što nas podsjeća na Isusa koji je svoj život započeo u jaslicama na slami (Cvijić, 1895). Prvo su pjestovalište u gradu Zagrebu osnovale 1855. Sestre milosrdnice točno šest godina nakon osnutka prve takve ustanove u Beču (Došen-Dobud, 1995). Cvijić navodi kako su se katoličke crkve i katolički svećenici najviše zauzimali da u pjestovališta smjeste djecu koja su iz siromašnih slojeva društva. U to doba postojale su već 144 takve ustanove u Francuskoj, a u Beču je prvo pjestovalište osnovano 1849. Nakon toga u Zagrebu se osniva pjestovalište na inicijativu Juraja Haulika, tadašnjeg kardinala (Došen-Dobud, 2019). Antonija Cvijić bila je puna senzibiliteta za društvene promjene koje su često osiromašivale obitelji te im je organiziranjem pjestovališta nastojala pomoći u njihovoj situaciji.

Čuvališta su također bila namijenjena cjelodnevnom boravku djece, kako Cvijić (1895) navodi, od sedam sati ujutro pa sve do šest ili sedam sati navečer. U njemu su obitavala djeca od navršene treće godine pa sve do polaska u školu. Čuvalište je radilo svakim danom osim zapovjednim blagdanom i nedjeljom. Došen-Dobud (1979) navodi kako su djeca tu primala neznatnu naknadu, dobivala su hranu, učila pjevati, moliti se i igrati se narodnih igara. Cvijić navodi kako su se djeca tu čuvala od pogubnog utjecaja te da su „velika olakšica za radnički stalež jer rješava majku brige nad djetetom“ (Cvijić, 1895, str. 15). Iz navedenog se vidi kako su čuvališta, za razliku od pjestovališta, imala nekakav odgojno-obrazovni rad.

Zabavišta nisu bila ustanove socijalnog značaja, već su ih pohađala djeca koja su se tamo odgajala po Fröbelovoj metodi odgoja, a to je tjelesno i duševno (Cvijić, 1895). Zabavišta nisu bila otvorena cijeli dan, već su radila do tri ili četiri sata prije popodne i dva do tri sata poslijepodne. Cvijić naglašava kako su bila namijenjeni djeci od navršene treće godine pa sve do polaska u školu, isto kao i kod čuvališta. Djeca bi tu provodila nekoliko sati dnevno, ali ne bi se moglo primiti više od dvadeset djece kako bi im bilo omogućeno što bolje kretanje. Bila su namijenjena svim slojevima pučanstva. Došen-Dobud (1979) navodi kako je Antonija Cvijić bila svjesna da svim slojevima društva nije lako koristiti se zabavištem te ona spominje još jednu vrstu predškolske ustanove koju naziva pučko ili kombinirano zabavište. Zabavišta su bila pod upravom općine, države ili društvene zaklade. Čak su tada i mnogi tvorničari počeli osnivati zabavišta kako bi njihovi radnici mogli tu ostaviti svoju djecu (Došen-Dobud, 2019).

U pučkom ili kombiniranom zabavištu djeca su boravila cijeli dan kao i kod čuvališta. Došen-Dobud (2019) piše da su se djeca u takvim zabavištima obučavala pet ili šest sati dnevno te je tako bio zastupljen pedagoški aspekt.

Djeca su tu dobivala tjelesnu njegu i hranu od školovanih učiteljica u zabavištu. Ista autorica navodi kako smatra da će doći vrijeme kada će čuvališta u potpunosti nestati, a umjesto njih otvorit će se pučka zabavišta.

USPOREDNI PRIKAZ PEDAGOŠKIH IDEJA FRIEDRICHA FRÖBELA I ANTONIJE CVIJIĆ

IGRA

Fröbel je prepoznao jedinstvenost djetetovih sposobnosti i potencijala, njegovu kreativnost i nadarenost te ključnu ulogu igre u njegovu razvoju i učenju. U svojoj knjizi *Odgov djeteta* Fröbel navodi da igra izravno utječe na obrazovanje djece te tako otkriva svoju unutarnju moć. Tijekom igre dijete je u mogućnosti otkrivanja svojih potencijala i učinaka ovisno o vlastitoj volji. U doba kad su djeca s navršenih sedam godina smatrana odraslima, Fröbel je osmislio dječje vrtiće (Santos, 2012). Retter (1979, prema Bognar, 1986) grupirao je Fröbelove igre u tri različite vrste:

- majčinsko pjevanje i milovanje
- igre predmetima i
- igre kretanjem.

Za igre s kretanjem Fröbel je napravio i zbirku igara s glazbom. Cvijić u *Rukovođu* (1895) opisuje drukčiju podjelu Fröbelovih igara, a dijeli ih na:

- tjelesne vježbe
- koračnice s pjevanjem i bez njega
- igre rukama i prstima i
- pokretne igre.

Tjelesne vježbe Cvijić (1895) opisuje kao postupak kojim se poboljšava normalni razvoj tijela. Navodi kako dijete u zabavište dolazi slabog i osjetljivog tijela. Prema tome, u zabavištu se rade odabrane vježbe svaki dan, i to „rano ujutro, zatim poslije duševnog rada, kada su djeca pol sata sjedjela“ (Cvijić, 1895, str. 38). U Fröbelovu vrtiću vježbe se također izvode svaki dan, ujutro i popodne, ali ne više od pola sata. Tjelesne vježbe izvodile su se u klupama u položajima: stajanja, hodanja, skakutanja, trčanja, skakanja i obraćanja. Isto tako, izvodile su se vježbe glavom, trupom, ramenima, laktovima, rukama, prstima i nogama.

Koračnice s pjevanjem i bez pjevanja bile su vježbe koje su omogućavale djeci da jačaju mišiće i poboljšavaju hodanje. Cvijić (1895) navodi i da su ove vježbe imale ulogu i u skladu među djecom u zabavištu, kao i da se među njima pobudi osjećaj za takt. Tako i Fröbel smatra da su ove vježbe iznimno važne za jačanje socijalne integracije (Pounder, 2019). Cvijić je također smatrala da djecu prvo treba osposobiti za pravilno hodanje, a tek onda se igra koračnica može koristiti.

Igre rukama i prstima upotrebljavale su se i kod Antonije Cvijić te Friedricha Fröbela. On je uvrstio ove igre u vrtiće kad se još nije pričalo o tjelovježbi ni u školama. U ovim vježbama vidi se i Fröbelovo nastojanje da se djeca harmonično uzgajaju. Na taj se način kod djece promiče jakost, gipkost te okretnost svih dijelova ruke. Vježbe se može izvoditi laktom, prstima, rukom, noktima, zglobovima i jagodicama te se pritom pjeva i nekakva kratka pjesmica (Cvijić, 1895). Heiland (1999) navodi kako je Fröbel 1844. objavio zbirku pjesama koja se sastoji od pedesetak igara za majke, igara prstićima i raznih pjesmica. Majka bi trebala igrati igru prstima i onda od djeteta tražiti da je ponovi i tako ponavljati dok dijete ne usvoji igru. U Fröbelovoj zbirci *Majka i njezine pjesme o nježnosti* prikazane su mnoge pjesme sličnih riječi i taktova kao što je i Antonija Cvijić opisivala u *Rukovođu*. Iz toga se može zaključiti koliko se ona zapravo oslanjala na Fröbelovu koncepciju.

Pokretna igra počinje u najranijoj dobi djeteta. Mendeš (2020) navodi kako bi i najmanja djeca trebala imati neki predmet uz sebe kako bi njime mogla neometano manipulirati. Cvijić (1895) tako smatra da pokretne igre započinju u najmlađem djetinjstvu te da nagon za društvene pokretne igre nikad ne prolazi. U svakog naroda ima onoliko pokretnih igara da se po njima može prepoznati i karakter pojedinog naroda. U zabavištu su se upotrebljavale pokretne igre:

- hvatanje – u ovim je igrama bitno da dijete što spretnije može skakati i bježati te vježbati što oštromnije traženje. Cvijić navodi kako su se često igrale igre lovice.
- pogađanje – djeca su tijekom igre morala pogađati razne stvari. Tako su mogla njegovati osjetila i biti osjetljivija u prosuđivanju.
- podražavanje – kod ovih igara podražava se dječje kretanje. Započinju nekakvim poučnim razgovorom ili pripovijetkom. Bitno je ponavljati priču sve dok je djeca u potpunosti ne razumiju. Djeca su oponašala predmete, životinje i ljude.
- kolo – svaki narod ima svoj tradicionalni ples pa su tako i djeca uz najjednostavnije pjesme i pravilno kretanje lijevo i desno plesala kolo. Kolo se dijelilo na jednostavno kolo, sastavljeno kolo i lanac (Cvijić, 1895).

Uz pokretne igre, djeca su često pjevala kratke pjesme prilagođene igri. Taktove pjesme trebalo je usavršiti pa je tako i tekst trebao biti kratak i jasan, a melodija pjesme treba biti prema značenju igre (Cvijić, 1895, str. 54).

Ona je također u svom *Rukovođu za zabavište* dala jasna pravila za izvođenje bilo koje dječje igre, a koja su utemeljena na Fröbelovoj pedagoškoj koncepciji. Pravila je namijenila zabavišnim učiteljicama i onima koje će to tek postati.

- „Nemoj zapovijedati dječjom igrom poput gospodara, već je dijeli sa djetetom kao savjetujući drug“ – to se odnosilo na to da zabavišna učiteljica ne bi trebala miješati se u dječju igru.
- „Budi oprezna u izboru igre“ – svaka igra nije primjerena za svaku dob djeteta, spol ili tjelesnu kondiciju.

- „Pripravi pomno svaku igru“ – smatra da je najbolja „priprava“ za dječju igru upravo pripovijest. U njoj se dijete može upoznati sa svim likovima i dijelovima igre te tako usavršuje igru.
- „Igra neka se češće ponavlja“ – Cvijić navodi kako djeca više uživaju u igri tek onda kad su je dobro naučila i usavršila. Zadatak je učiteljice da igru češće ponavlja, a prije igre priča o igri da vidi jesu li je djeca razumjela.
- „Neka u igrama bude promjene“ – ne smiju se raditi velike promjene jer velike i česte promjene označavaju površnost i nestalnost. Promjene bi trebale biti odmjerene i malene.
- „Katkada neka djeca sama izvode naučene igre“ – zabavište želi djecu učiniti samostalnim. S vremena na vrijeme učiteljica može izabrati neko dijete koje će voditi igru, a ostala se djeca igraju onako kako su je zapamtila.

DAROVI

Cvijić (1895) u *Rukovođu* piše kako je svaka igračka djetetu draga na određeni način jer njome može zadovoljiti nagon za radom. Iako se dijete uvijek rado igra s prijateljima, igračka ga veseli jer se s njom isto zabavlja. Fröbel je u vrtiću dao djeci bazične i jeftine igračke koje se zbog jednostavnog oblika mogu dugo i često upotrebljavati te tako zabavljati djecu. Te igračke odnosno darovi jesu:

- lopta i
- kruglja, valjak i kocka.

Zaninović (1988) drukčije imenuje Fröbelove darove i smatra kako postoji čak šest darova, ali samo su tri osnovna oblika: kugla, valjak i kocka. Postoje razne podjele Fröbelovih darova, pa tako i Došen-Dobud (2019) navodi kako Fröbel razlikuje darove:

- lopta
- loptica
- kugla
- kocka i
- valjak.

Cvijić (1895) smatra kako je lopta tradicionalna igračka. Fröbel već malom djetetu u kolijevci pridaje loptu. Smatra da je lopta ugodna za dijete i svojim oblikom i izgledom. Uz pojedinačne velike i mekane lopte, bilo je povezano po šest mekih loptica u duginim bojama. Njima se prikazivalo micanje lopte u raznim smjerovima te su tako djeca mogla poimati smjerove (Došen-Dobud, 2019). Fröbel smatra da lopta predstavlja simbol čovjekova jedinstva sa svim božanstvima. Došen-Dobud (2019) obrazlaže kako se Fröbel držao Pestalozzijeva uporišta jer je koristio geometrijske oblike darova. Cvijić

(1895) navodi kako su djeca u zabavištima koristila dvije vrste lopte, a to su: vunena i prosta lopta. Ona također smatra da djeca loptom mogu učiti o raznim smjerovima: lijevo, desno, gore, dolje i ostalo. Postoje razne igre koje se igraju vunenom loptom, a uz njih se pjevaju vrlo kratke pjesmice jednostavnog teksta. Djeca su se loptom igrala zajedno ili po dvoje djece, dobacivanjem ili ciljanjem u stalak (Cvijić, 1895, str. 35).

Drugi su darovi kugle, kocke i valjci. Kugle Fröbelu simboliziraju tvrdoću i kretanje. Cvijić (1895) smatra da kugle djeci pobliže približavaju svemir. Fröbelovo je mišljenje kako kocke predstavljaju ideju stabilnosti pa su i one jedne od izabranih darova. Kocke predstavljaju cjelovitost, mir i mnogoznačne su sa svojim vrhovima, plohamama i bridovima (Došen-Dobud, 2013).

Friedrich Fröbel bio je začetnik svog didaktičkog materijala, ali ga nije sam konstruirao. Ista autorica navodi kako su svoj doprinos njemu dali i: Hermann Goldmann, Franz Schmidt, Luisa Fröbel i ostali. Kocke su bile sastavljene tako da se mogu rastaviti na svoje sastavnice i kasnije ih možemo vratiti u prvobitni položaj. Valjak je također jedan od darova te i njemu pripada određeni simbolički značaj. On predstavlja pozicije i kugle i kocke, odnosno ideju kretanja i stabilnosti (Došen-Dobud, 2013). Ovo nikako nije sav didaktički materijal koji se upotrebljavao, pa uz ova tri geometrijska oblika ubrajamo i kutije sa štapićima, crte, navoje, ogradice, piljke, grašak, kuglice-perle, obručice i papir za preplitanje. Antonija Cvijić (1895) u svom *Rukovođu* detaljno opisuje sva sredstva za rad i način korištenja u zabavištu. Ona navodi kako su ova tri geometrijska tijela u kutiji sa stalkom. „U njoj je složen mali stalak, na koji se mogu tjelesa objesiti, zato ima svako tijelo školjicu, da se može pričvrstiti vrpca i zataknuti štapić“ (Cvijić, 1895, str. 37).

ZABAVICE

Fröbel je smatrao da sve ono što dijete može primijetiti svojim osjetilima, neka mu je omogućeno da i rukama prikazuje. Najznamenitije sredstvo za prikazivanje upravo su ruke. Fröbel dijeli zabavice na zabavice u sastavljanju te zabavice u stvaranju (Cvijić, 1895). Zabavice u sastavljanju one su gdje se djetetu daje gotovo gradivo. Gradivo je obično od tvrde tvari tako da ga dijete može često upotrebljavati bez bojazni da ga uništi. Zabavice u stvaranju one su gdje se djetetu daju stvari koje će igranjem promijeniti oblik, veličinu i obujam tako da se više nikada ne mogu vratiti u prvobitni položaj. Mendeš (2020) daje detaljnu podjelu zabavica:

a) zabavice u sastavljanju

1. skupina tjelesa: građenje
2. skupina ploha: pločice
3. skupina tjelesa: štapići, letvice i kolutići
4. skupina tjelesa: kamenčići, sjemenje

b) zabavice u stvaranju

1. skupina točaka: izbadanja
2. skupina crta: navođenje lančića, risanje, prošivanje, pomicanje niti
3. skupina ploha: prigibanje papira, prepletanje, izrezivanje, slikanje
4. skupina tjelesa: pletenje košarica, spajanje štapića s graškom, modeliranje

Cvijić (1895) navodi kako su se tako pripremljene zabavice upotrebljavale u zabavištu do 1892. nepromijenjeno. Dodaje da bi se nekada nešto trebalo promijeniti jer su primjerice liječnici nekad prigovarali da određene zabavice djeci kvare vid, pa su se mijenjale. Lascardies i Hinitz (2000) objašnjavaju razliku između darova i zabavica. Darovi su bili namijenjeni djeci kako bi učila sve o vanjskom svijetu te je takvo učenje prilagođeno dječjem razvoju. Zabavice su bili unaprijed pripremljeni materijali kako bi djeca vježbala određenu vještinu. Svakakvi predmeti mogu biti zabavice, ali je materijal prikladan djeci i prilagođen je njihovim mogućnostima da ga neometano koriste. Detaljno o zabavicama i njihovoj uporabi napisano je u *Rukovođu za zabavište*. Iz ovog poglavlja primjećujemo kako Cvijić cijeli odgojno obrazovni rad u zabavištima bazira na Fröbelu. Tako dolazi do izražaja odgojni sustav Friedricha Fröbela (Mendeš, 2020).

ZAKLJUČNA RAZMATRANJA

U 19. stoljeću događaju se velike promjene na području ranog i predškolskog odgoja. Nove spoznaje počinju se usredotočivati na to koliko je zapravo rano djetinjstvo važno za dijete. Danas smo navikli na to da većina djece rane i predškolske dobi boravi u vrtićima zbog zaposlenosti roditelja. U vrijeme Friedricha Fröbela specijalizirane ustanove tek su počele s otvaranjem 1837. naziva „Ustanova za razvoj stvaralačkih motiva djelatnosti kod djece i mladih“. Za nju je bio zaslužan sam Fröbel. Naziv mu se nije učinio korektnim pa ga je nakon nekog vremena ispravio u Kindergarten te je tako došlo do naziva koji upotrebljavamo i danas – dječji vrtić. Za svoj rad primio je brojne kritike, ali unatoč tomu naišao je i na mnogo pedagoga koji su se nastavili na njegovu koncepciju. Jedna od njih bila je i poznata hrvatska pedagoginja 19. stoljeća Antonija Cvijić, koja je 1895. izdala djelo *Rukovođ za zabavište* u izdanju Hrvatskoga pedagoško-književnog zbora. Za usmjerenost na predškolski odgoj zaslužna je njezina majka Antonija Cvijić Lukšić, koja je osnovala prvo dječje zabavište 1869. godine u Hrvatskoj. Iz djela *Rukovođ za zabavište* zaključuje se koliko je Antonija Cvijić podupirala Fröbelove ideje te svoju koncepciju skoro u cijelosti bazirala na njegovoj. Došen-Dobud (2019) navela je jednostavno objašnjenje za to. U to vrijeme brojni poznati pedagozi cijenili su Fröbela i zalagali se za fröbelovštinu, prema tome, ni ona nije mogla misliti nikako drukčije. Iako je *Rukovođ za zabavište*

napisan prije više od stotinu godina, neizostavno je djelo hrvatske pedagogije. Njihove pedagoške ideje i danas se mogu primijeniti u predškolskom odgoju. Iz toga se može zaključiti koliko su važne za pedagogiju predškolskog odgoja kroz povijest.

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TRACES OF FRIEDRICH FRÖBEL'S PEDAGOGICAL IDEAS IN ANTONIJA CVIJIĆ'S WORK *RUKOVOĐ ZA ZABAVIŠTE* (KINDERGARTEN HANDBOOK) (1895)¹

Abstract: The pedagogical concept of Friedrich Fröbel (1782 – 1852) was the first concept of institutional early childhood education. This has left a significant mark on the history of institutional early and preschool education on a global scale. Friedrich Fröbel developed his pedagogical concept over an extended period. He thoroughly explained the fundamental principles and approaches of his concept in the work *Die Menschenerziehung* (*The Education of Man*). The broader pedagogical community enthusiastically accepted the opening of kindergartens. His pedagogical ideas also found “fertile ground” among domestic educators. Antonija Cvijić, (married name Kassowitz) (1865 – 1936) stands out among domestic educators. Based on her own practice in the Zagreb children's kindergarten and under the influence of Friedrich Fröbel's pedagogical ideas, she wrote *Rukovođ za zabavište* (1895), which is considered a seminal work of Croatian pedagogy in the second half of the 19th century.

Keywords: Croatia, institutional education, educator, preschool age, preschool institutions

INTRODUCTION

The beginnings of theoretical pedagogy in Croatia are associated with the second half of the 19th century. During this period, pedagogy began to separate from the corpus of philosophy and establish itself as an independent science.

¹ The paper is extracted from the master's thesis of Marta Dujmović.

Other events during this period were also significant for the development of pedagogy. Compulsory school education was introduced, teaching in schools began to be conducted in Croatia (the mother tongue), the Teacher's School in Zagreb was founded, textbooks for the pedagogical group of subjects (Stjepan Basariček) were published, the first children's playhouse (kindergarten) was opened, the pedagogical journal *Napredak* began to be published, etc. Particularly significant was the more systematic publication of books and articles thematically related to various pedagogical issues. The interest of domestic pedagogues was focused primarily on school topics, didactics, and special methodologies. However, domestic pedagogues also began to be interested in the topic of kindergartens (Mendeš, 2020), which at that time were called children's playhouses. Among domestic pedagogues, Antonija Cvijić, who married Kassowitz (1865-1936) particularly expressed an interest in the issues of educational work in children's playhouses. Her pedagogical views, and the views of other Croatian pedagogues on institutional early education, were formed under the influence of the pedagogical ideas of Friedrich Fröbel (1782 – 1852). Owing to his efforts, kindergartens “started to conquer the world” (Engelbrecht, 1986).

FRIEDRICH FRÖBEL: BASIC BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

Friedrich Fröbel was born on April 21, 1782, in Oberweissbach, Thuringia. He is considered one of the most significant and influential educators of the 19th century. He attended a girls' school and subsequently a forestry school. After forestry school, he enrolled in the School of Medicine at the University of Jena. In 1801, he returned to his family home. Došen-Dobud (2019) noted that in the girls' school, Fröbel received the attention that he could not get in his own family and that this school was of higher quality than the one attended by other boys his age. He went to a girls' school and in his autobiography, he writes how he excelled in religious studies and mathematics (Fröbel et al., 1889). At the age of fifteen, he started forestry school. Fröbel admitted that trees were his first teacher and that he would never forget what they taught him (Došen-Dobud, 2019). Fröbel lost his mother when he was only nine months old, which he later wrote about: “This loss represented a heavy blow for me and influenced the entire development of my being; I consider that the death of my mother determined more or less the outward position of my entire life” (Fröbel, according to Zaninović, 1988, p. 169). When he was four years old, his father remarried and had a child.

He associated with educator Anton Grüner and, owing to him, obtained a position as a teacher in a model school in Frankfurt, even though he had not previously performed any similar job. Fröbel was enthusiastic about the

teaching profession and wrote to his brother that from the first moment he came to work at school, he knew it was his life call (Zaninović, 1988). Grüner was a student of Johann Heinrich Pestalozzi, the most famous educator at that time, which sparked Fröbel's interest in pedagogical issues. He managed to contact Pestalozzi and briefly went to Switzerland to visit him (Mendeš, 2020). Pestalozzi worked in Yverdon at that time, and Fröbel spent two weeks with him in 1805. The visit was short, but Pestalozzi left a strong impression on him. Došen-Dobud (2019) stated that Fröbel decided to visit him again when the opportunity arose. Zaninović (1988) writes that after a year, Fröbel left the model school where he worked and became a private tutor. He goes back to Pestalozzi and stays with him for two years as his associate, bringing along his three students. He was enchanted by Pestalozzi, and was especially thrilled by his outdoor play, which he considered a refreshing bath for the soul (Seidel, 1883, according to Zaninović, 1988). He returns to Germany at the age of twenty-nine and enrolls at the University of Göttingen. After just a year, he transferred to the University of Berlin, where he studied natural sciences. The same author states that Fröbel repeatedly felt the desire to return to pedagogical work, and in 1816, he definitively decided to devote himself to educating youth. The following year, he opened a school for boys in Keilhau, model after Pestalozzi's school in Yverdon. During this time in Europe, the Holy Alliance was being formed, so Fröbel left the school to his close associates and went to run educational institutions in Switzerland. In 1836, after the situation calmed down, he returned to Germany with the intention of dedicating his life to the education of preschool children. Mendeš (2020) notes that in 1837, Fröbel founded the first preschool institution called "Institution for the development of creative activity motives in children and youth". This name seemed unacceptable to Fröbel, so he changed it to "kindergarten". Zaninović (1988) explained that the term "kindergarten" was a product of his imagination because he believed that a child is like a plant, the school represents a garden, and the teacher is the gardener. Friedrich Fröbel married Henrietta Wilhelmine Hoffmeister, the daughter of a member of the Berlin War Council, in 1817. According to the writings of Fröbel and colleagues (1889), Fröbel first saw Henrietta in a museum and was instantly captivated by her. She died in May 1839 after a short illness.

During his lifetime, Fröbel published many texts and works. His first text was *A Brief Description of Pestalozzi's Principles of Education and Teaching* (Heiland, 1999). In this work, although impressed by Pestalozzi's ideas, Friedrich realized that his system was unfinished and wanted to learn as much theory as possible to continue Pestalozzi's ideas. One of the most important works he published during his lifetime was certainly *The Education of Man*. Fröbel also published a collection of songs and various games for mothers and children, and *The Sunday Paper*, which used the motto "We live for our

children". He opened many kindergartens in Germany and married his second wife, his student Luise Levin, in July 1851. After his death, she continued his work according to the methods of the kindergarten in Keilhau (Fröbel et al., 1889). He died on June 21, 1852, at the age of seventy. Došen-Dobud (2019) notes that a monument was erected in Fröbel's honour in Blankenburg, at the site of the first "Kindergarten". His gravestone features a cube, a sphere, and a cylinder, which are indispensable parts of his concept, and an inscription that says: "Let us live for our children!"

FRIEDRICH FRÖBEL'S PEDAGOGICAL CONCEPT

Mendeš (2020) stated that Friedrich Fröbel's leading idea is that humans are inherently good. Fröbel also believes that humans are the final and most perfect product of evolution. Through proper education, the divine principle within them is revealed. He believes that just as a plant contains a force that governs its growth, there is also a force within humans that enables its development. This understanding of the human being is an important part of Fröbel's philosophical views. He starts from the idea that a child is born good and that there is no evil in them. If evil occurs, it is due to improper upbringing (Zaninović, 1988). This stance was first developed by Jean Jacques Rousseau. Rousseau's ideas of a child's spontaneous development intrigued Fröbel, who adopted them as a conceptual element of his pedagogy. He believed that a child has the right and needs to be treated as a child. Rousseau argues that the gradual establishment of a balance between what is possible and what the child desires ensures that the child's needs are met (Došen-Dobud, 2019).

Fröbel also based his concept on Pestalozzi's ideas and German idealistic philosophy. He was intrigued by the philosophy of Friedrich Wilhelm Schelling and his explanations of the relationship between nature and spirit, i.e., between the spiritual and the material. Fröbel's interest in science was also highly important. He has studied physics, mathematics, mineralogy, botany, and linguistics. Zaninović (1988) noted that despite many ideals, Fröbel was still an independent spirit. On this basis, Fröbel created the foundation for his understanding of humans, nature, and education. Here lies the idea of seeking a general law of physical and moral unity, universal unity, and the divine principle that governs matter and spirit (Kamenov, 1987). Fröbel's main determinant of education rests on two philosophical ideas: the idea of universal unity and the idea of evolution. In this way, he explains education and its goal, to which he gives a religious-mystical meaning. Unlike Comenius, Pestalozzi, and Rousseau, Fröbel was the first to emphasize the social component of child education. He believes that a child transitions from an animal stage to a human stage only when they enter into relationships with other beings and when they can cooperate with others on common goals. Therefore, it is important that

education starts in early childhood and is properly directed. The same author noted that Fröbel understood education as a means by which a person, as a rational, intelligent, and conscious being, is guided to exercise, develop, and liberate the life element they possess. Education should be connected with nature because it has provided the child with instincts and drives. Therefore, the early development of a child proceeds spontaneously, and it is better not to interfere to avoid hindering the natural course of the child's development (Zaninović, 1988).

Fröbel advocated certain principles in his concept. Zaninović (1988) divides them into adaptations to nature, self-activity, versatility, the unity of teaching, and a dynamic understanding of the child. His understanding of adaptation to nature is based on his idealistic and mystical views. Kamenov (1987) stated that from the first day a child is born, they must be understood, guided, and placed in situations in accordance with their nature. In this way, the child can fully utilize their strengths. A more contemporary division of Fröbel's principles, which are still used today, was described by the author Tovey (2020), who divides them into the following: freedom with guidance; unity, connection and community; harmony with nature; learning through self-activity and self-reflection; and the importance of play, creativity and the power of symbols; and educated and caring educators. The ability to think independently and emancipation represents freedom for the child. Fröbel emphasized that freedom does not mean that children do absolutely everything they want but that they must be responsible to others and to nature. It is also important to emphasize Fröbel's view of unity. He believes that learning should be strongly connected with children's lives and viewed as a whole.

ANTONIJA CVIJIĆ'S PEDAGOGICAL SYSTEM

Antonija Cvijić was born on January 16, 1865, in Zagreb. She was a prominent Croatian educator in the second half of the 19th century (Došen-Dobud, 2019). Her family was related to the Fuchs–Lisinski family. She began her education at a public school in Zagreb and later continued her studies in Vienna (Jerand, 1942). Her mother, Antonija Cvijić Lukšić, was the founder and owner of the first children's kindergarten established in 1869 (Došen-Dobud, 2019). The founding of the kindergarten was reported in issue 233 of *Agramer Zeitung*. It was a private kindergarten modeled after similar institutions that had spread from Germany to other countries. It was announced that in this kindergarten, children would have the opportunity to engage and develop appropriately for their age by arranging sticks and circles, sewing, knitting, and more (Batinić, 2013). After successful operation, her mother, Lukšić, appointed her daughter Antonija as the director, a role that she successfully performed for thirteen years. Mendeš (2020) noted that after marrying, she had to retire

according to the practice of the time. After some time, her husband fell ill, and she decided to dedicate herself to literary work. She organized her own bookstore, which she ran by herself for eight years, and from 1909, she actively engaged in literary and cultural work, which she pursued until the end of her life (Maroshi, 2023).

She soon began collaborating with the magazines *Smilje*, *Bršljan* and *Napredak*. She published her first book in 1889, and shortly after, in 1895, the Croatian Pedagogical Association invited her to write *Rukovođ za zabavište* (Kindergarten handbook). The same year, she was invited and chosen to be a corresponding member of the Croatian Pedagogical Literary Association. Her work was also sent to an international exhibition in Paris. *Rukovođ* became a seminal work in Croatian preschool pedagogical thought (Mendeš, 2020). From that period, there was another similar manual called *Teorija zabavišta* (Theory of Kindergarten), but the author, year of publication, and publisher are still unknown (Došen-Dobud, 2019). After 1908, she wrote cultural-historical articles, essays, literary reviews, and more for *Jutarnji list* and *Narodne novine* (Jerand, 1942). She also collaborated with the *Kazališni list* (*Theatre Gazette*), where she translated operas and operettas. Her plays *Krasuljica* and *Demetru u pohode* were performed at the Croatian theatre in 1911 and 1912. Her research interests were Illyrism and the Zagreb theatre. She wrote over two hundred articles in Croatia and German, describing the theatrical, musical, and literary life of Zagreb. Maroshi (2023) noted that Cvijić is considered a pioneer of romanticized biography and monographic editions of actors. In her autobiographical article titled *My Confession*, Kassowitz Cvijić highlighted that the then director Aleksandar Freudenreich assigned her the role of a theatre presenter. This meant that Cvijić announced or led the program during theatre performances. All her stage works can be classified as occasional pieces. These are short theatrical parts written to commemorate an important event or the date of a writer, artist, or actor. The same author noted that Cvijić used the Kajkavian dialect in her stage of work, continuing the tradition of the Illyrians who still adhered to the Kajkavian dialect. She is considered the “last Illyrian romantic” (Kassowitz-Cvijić 1934, according to Morashi 2023). She aimed to convey Croatian patriotic enthusiasm and the spirit of the Illyrian era in her occasional pieces. She died on December 18, 1936, in Zagreb.

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE WORK *RUKOVOĐ ZA ZABAVIŠTE* BY ANTONIJA CVIJIĆ (1895)

Antonija Cvijić enriched Croatian pedagogy with her work *Rukovođ za zabavište* (Kindergarten handbook), written at the behest of the Croatian Pedagogical Literary Association in Zagreb in 1895. Cvijić cited sources that inspired her work, attributing her long-term practice in kindergarten and

Fischer's "volkskindergarten" as primary influences. Her experience was extensive, given that her mother, Antonija Cvijić Lukšić, appointed her as the director of a kindergarten that Lukšić had established in 1869. Antonija Cvijić intended *Rukovođ za zabavište* for all kindergarten workers and those preparing for such a vocation. Her wish was to lay the foundation for kindergarten literature in Croatia with this handbook. From 1874 to 1899, 212 kindergarten teachers graduated from the teacher training school. Cvijić explained her motivation for writing such a book:

"I was compelled to do so primarily by the realization that in many countries, kindergartens are growing in number and reputation because numerous missionaries spread the ideas of this humanitarian institution with their writings, thereby paving the way for kindergartens to become, as desired by the renowned pedagogue Adolf Diesterweg, an essential factor in public education" (Cvijić, 1895, p. V).

The manual was published in Zagreb since, at the time, the development of preschool education was most prominent there. Franković (1958) noted that there were only sixteen kindergartens and seven days of care in Croatia at the time, with a total of 1541 children attending them. Antonija Cvijić took pride in the fact that only forty-two years had passed from the first kindergarten in Blankenburg to the first city kindergarten in Zagreb. As mentioned, another book from that time, *Teorija zabavišta (Theory of Kindergarten)*, whose author, publisher, and year of publication remain unknown, has been preserved. Among the notable pedagogues of that time were Antun Čuvaj, who also enriched Croatian pedagogy with his work *Rieč o zabavištih (A Word on Kindergartens)*, written in 1880. The book includes nine points (kindergartens in general, the origin and development of kindergartens, the essence of kindergartens, the significance and value of kindergartens, the task of kindergartens, a word or two about educational means in general, the educational means of kindergartens in particular, the relationship of kindergartens to the family, and the relationship of kindergartens to schools).

Through these points, the basic concept of educational work in kindergartens was addressed. Čuvaj defined kindergartens as institutions for children who have reached the age of three but have not yet turned seven (Mendeš, 2015). Serdar (2013) noted that this booklet, though small in scope, was intended for all parents and friends of Croatian youth. The same author (2017) considers it still unknown why Antonija Kassowitz Cvijić never mentioned the works of Antun Čuvaj. *Rukovođ za zabavište* follows the Froebelian approach. Cvijić, at that time, had no other role model. All significant pedagogues of that period, such as Diesterweg, advocated for Froebel's ideas, so Antonija Cvijić could not think otherwise (Došen-Dobud, 2019).

The *Rukovođ* is divided into three main chapters:

- History of Educational Institutions for Young Children – The first section
- Theory of Kindergartens – The second section
- Organization of Kindergartens – The third section

In the first section, Cvijić (1895) describes the entire history of institutions for young children from the generation of John Amos Comenius. Serdar (2013) noted that the fundamental ideas of Comenius's *School of Infancy* are recognizable in Cvijić's *Rukovođ za zabavište*.

Her *Illustrated ABC* also shows influences from Comenius's *Orbis Sensualium Pictus* from 1654. The first section further identifies four types of institutions for young children: nurseries, daycares, kindergartens, and public or combined kindergartens.

In the second section, Antonija Cvijić examines the theory of the educational process in kindergartens. She discusses the educational role of kindergartens, play and toys, exercise systems, and "zabavice" (various children's activities such as knitting, drawing, building, cutting, connecting, singing, etc.) (Mendeš, 2020). This chapter highlights Friedrich Froebel's educational system.

In the final section, Cvijić (1895) provides a detailed description of kindergarten organization, from internal and external arrangements to schedules, administrations, and celebrations such as Christmas and year-end events.

ELEMENTS OF FRIEDRICH FRÖBEL'S PEDAGOGICAL CONCEPT IN ANTONIJA CVIJIĆ'S WORK *UKOVOĐ ZA ZABAVIŠTE*

Friedrich Fröbel changed the perspective of early education and upbringing. He recognized the unity of all a child's potential and possible abilities, talents, and creativity (Santos, 2012). He believed that anyone who recognizes the uniqueness, abilities, and potential of each child has a holistic view of the child's development. Despite many criticisms, he remained an important pedagogue focused on the child, inspiring many who continued his work. One example is Antonija Cvijić, whose work *Rukovođ za zabavište* is infused with Fröbel's ideas. In his works, Fröbel demands that children be seen as beings in development (Zaninović, 1988). He continues by stating that it is much more important to influence a child's will than their intellect. He mentioned that the primary objective of education is the formation of character and will, as this is the goal of education. One of the important aspects he emphasized was adapting the child to nature and its laws. This is one of the principles he highlights, and his pedagogical concept is developed on the basis of it.

Regarding adaptation to nature, Fröbel believes that one should cautiously follow instincts and write about four instincts: the religious instinct, the artistic

instinct, the work instinct, and the instinct of cognition. For each child, it is necessary to emphasize all physical and mental abilities, including physical education (Zaninović, 1988). He explains that a child should not be seen as a separate being, isolated in itself, but should be viewed as a member of society. Nature must be observed as a whole because only in this way can a child understand that all objects in nature are actually parts of an organic whole. In this way, the child learns to observe and differentiate colors, name objects, and similar skills. In his autobiography, Fröbel and his collaborators (1889) state that the study of nature must take place in nature itself, not in enclosed spaces. This shows how much he was influenced by Rousseau, who also advocated for observing nature outdoors. He mentioned that every mother has a certain genuine instinct given to her by nature. In the rapidly industrializing era, he believed that mothers did not have enough time or knowledge to properly raise their children. For this reason, he decided to shift the focus of education from the family itself to children's institutions.

Antonija Cvijić had similar views to those of Fröbel. She also expresses scepticism in *Rukovođ za zabavište* about parents being able to devote as much quality time to their children as kindergarten teachers can, advocating for the transfer of education to specialized institutions. She believes that children in kindergarten can gain much more knowledge and experience than if they are always at home. She also does not mention the individual development of the child but observes it in conjunction with other children. Although we are aware of the shortcomings of this approach, such as not meeting individual children's needs, disrespecting children's rights, and not respecting children's personalities, Antonija Cvijić followed the latest understanding of children and was greatly influenced by Friedrich Fröbel. Notably, the ideal at that time was the transmission and acquisition of knowledge through reproduction (Došen-Dobud, 2019).

Unlike Fröbel, who believed that the goal of education is the formation of will and character, Cvijić (1895) stated that, for her, the goal of education is "to bring the child as close as possible to the ideal of a person, a being that embodies all the virtues that we believe should adorn a mortal being". She emphasized the importance of play, considering it the child's "serious work". Cvijić (1895) also suggested that the inexperienced soul of a child does not know the difference between good and evil and that free play can negatively affect the child's physical development. This again presents a contradiction, considering that Cvijić's writings advocate for the birth of freedom, satisfaction, and joy in children. Thus, the question arises of how these values can be achieved without free play (Došen-Dobud, 1979). Antonija Cvijić also agrees with Fröbel regarding the education of the child and nature. She states in *Rukovođ* that it is mandatory for children to use the kindergarten garden and to walk at least once a week (Cvijić, 1895). She writes:

“Such children should be taken into beautiful God’s nature as often as possible, at least once a week if possible. Walks are of invaluable educational value. The main thing is for children to move freely... thus strengthening their lungs and refreshing their entire body” (Cvijić, 1895, p. 228).

In Fröbel’s Kindergarten, children are divided into three groups:

- The younger group, ranging from two to four years old,
- The middle group, from four-to-six years old,
- The oldest group of children is six to eight years old (Došen-Dobud, 2019).

In *Rukovođ*, Antonija Cvijić advocated the establishment of various types of institutions for young children, dividing them into four categories:

- Nurseries,
- Daycare,
- Kindergartens,
- Public or combined kindergartens (Došen-Dobud, 1979).

Unlike Fröbel’s Kindergarten, where the youngest group consisted of children aged two to four, Antonija Cvijić also considered younger children, with nurseries accommodating children from just fourteen days old. They stayed there until the age of three. Mendeš (2013) noted that nurseries were shelters for children up to three years old. They were also called “nursing homes”, later referred to as cradles. Antonija Cvijić borrowed the idea for nurseries from Firmin Marbeau, who established Crèche nurseries in Paris at the time. The name “crèche” comes from the image of Jesus starting his life in a manger on straw (Cvijić, 1895). The first nursery in Zagreb was established in 1855 by the Sisters of Mercy, exactly six years after the first such institution was founded in Vienna (Došen-Dobud, 1995). Cvijić noted that Catholic churches and priests were the most involved in placing children from poor social backgrounds into nurseries. At that time, there were already 144 such institutions in France, and the first nursery in Vienna was founded in 1849. A nursery was subsequently established in Zagreb at the initiative of Juraj Haulik, followed by a cardinal nursery (Došen-Dobud, 2019). Antonija Cvijić was highly sensitive to social changes that often impoverished families, and by organizing nurseries, she sought to help their situation.

Daycares were also intended for all-day childcare, as Cvijić (1895) stated, from seven in the morning to six or seven in the evening. They housed children from the age of three until they started school. Daycare operates every day except on public holidays and Sundays. Došen-Dobud (1979) noted that children receive minimal compensation and food and learn to sing, pray, and play folk games. Cvijić stated that children were kept away from harmful influences and that daycares were “a great relief for the working class because

they free mothers from the worry over their children” (Cvijić, 189, p. 15). From this, it is evident that, unlike nurseries, daycare had some educational work.

Kindergartens are not social institutions; rather, they are attended by children who are educated there according to Fröbel’s method of education, which encompasses both physical and mental development (Cvijić, 1895). Kindergartens were not open all day but operated three or four hours before noon, with an additional two to three hours in the afternoon. Cvijić emphasized that they were intended for children from the age of three until they started school, just like daycares. The children spent a few hours a day there, but no more than twenty children could be accommodated to ensure better movement. They were intended for all social strata. Došen-Dobud (1979) noted that Antonija Cvijić was aware that it was not easy for all social strata to use kindergartens, and she proposed another type of preschool institution called public or combined kindergartens. Kindergartens were headed by municipalities, the state, or social foundations. Many factory owners have also started establishing kindergartens so that their workers can leave their children there (Došen-Dobud, 2019).

In public or combined kindergartens, children spend the whole day, just like in daycares. Došen-Dobud (2019) noted that children in such kindergartens receive education for five or six hours a day, emphasizing the pedagogical aspect. Children received physical care and food from trained kindergarten teachers. The same author believes that the time when daycare will completely disappear and be replaced by public kindergartens.

COMPARATIVE OVERVIEW OF THE PEDAGOGICAL IDEAS OF FRIEDRICH FRÖBEL AND ANTONIJA CVIJIĆ

PLAY

Fröbel recognized the uniqueness of a child’s abilities and potentials, their creativity and talent, and the crucial role of play in their development and learning. In his book *The Education of Man*, Fröbel states that play directly influences children’s education, revealing their inner power. During play, a child is able to discover their potential and effectiveness depending on their own will. When children were considered adults at the age of seven, Fröbel designed kindergartens (Santos, 2012). Retter (1979), according to Bognar (1986), grouped Fröbel’s games into three different types:

- maternal singing and caressing,
- games with objects, and
- movement games.

For movement games, Fröbel also created a collection of games with music.

Cvijić, in her *Rukovođ* (1895), described a different classification of Fröbel's games, dividing them into the following:

- physical exercises,
- marching games with and without singing,
- hand and finger games, and
- movement games.

Physical exercises, as described by Cvijić (1895), are procedures that improve the normal development of the body. She noted that a child comes to kindergarten with a weak and sensitive body. Therefore, selected exercises are performed every day in the kindergarten, "early in the morning, then after mental work, when the children have been sitting for half an hour" (Cvijić, 1895, p. 38). In Fröbel's kindergarten, exercise is also performed daily, in the morning and afternoon, but not for more than half an hour. Physical exercises were performed in the classroom in positions such as standing, walking, hopping, running, jumping, and turning. Exercises were also performed with the head, torso, shoulders, elbows, arms, fingers, and legs.

Marching games with and without singing were exercises that allowed children to strengthen their muscles and improve their ability to walk. Cvijić (1895) also noted that these exercises play a role in harmony among children in kindergarten, as well as in developing a sense of rhythm. Similarly, Fröbel considered these exercises extremely important for strengthening social integration (Pounder, 2019). Cvijić also believed that children should first be trained to walk properly and that only then could marching games be used.

Hand and finger games were used by both Antonija Cvijić and Friedrich Fröbel. He included these games in kindergartens even before physical exercise was discussed in schools. In these exercises, Fröbel's effort to cultivate children harmoniously is evident. This promotes strength, flexibility, and dexterity in all parts of the hand. These exercises can be performed with the elbow, fingers, hand, nails, joints, and fingertips, accompanied by a short song (Cvijić, 1895). Heiland (1999) noted that in 1844, Fröbel published a collection of songs consisting of fifty games for mothers, finger games, and various songs. The mother should play the finger game and then ask the child to repeat it, continuing until the child masters the game. In Fröbel's collection *Mother-play and Nursery Songs*, many songs with similar words and rhythms are shown, as described by Antonija Cvijić in her *Rukovođ*. This indicates how much she relied on Fröbel's concept.

Movement games begin in the earliest stages of a child's life. Mendeš (2020) stated that even the youngest children should have an object with them to manipulate freely. Cvijić (1895) suggested that movement games start in early childhood and that the instinct for social movement games never fades.

Every nation has movement games that reflect its character. In the kindergarten, movement games included the following:

- *catching*—in these games, it was important for the child to jump and run as skilfully as possible and practice keen observation. Cvijić noted that tag games were often played.
- *guessing* – children had to guess various things during the game. In this way, they can nurture their senses and become more sensitive in judgment.
- *imitation* games—these games imitated children’s movements, starting with some educational conversation or story. It was important to repeat the story until the children fully understood it. The children imitated objects, animals, and people.
- *Circle dance* – Every nation has its traditional dance, so the children danced the circle dance to the simplest songs and with proper movements to the left and right. Circle dances are divided into simple circles, combined circles, and chains (Cvijić, 1895).

Along with movement games, children often sang short songs adapted to the game. The rhythm of the song had to be perfected, so the text had to be short and clear, and the melody should match the meaning of the game (Cvijić, 1895, p. 54).

She also provided clear rules for conducting any children’s game in her *Rukovođ za zabavište*, on the basis of Fröbel’s pedagogical concept. The rules were intended for kindergarten teachers and those who were yet to become them.

- *Do not command children’s play like a master but share it with the child as an advising friend*; this means that the kindergarten teacher should not interfere with the children’s play.
- *Be cautious in choosing games*—not every game is suitable for every age, gender, or physical condition of the child.
- *Carefully preparing each game*—She believed that the best preparation for children’s play was a story. The child could get to know all the characters and parts of the game, thus perfecting the play.
- *Let the game be repeated often* – Cvijić noted that children enjoy a game more once they have learned and perfected it. The teacher’s task is to repeat the game frequently and talk about it before playing to ensure that the children understand it.
- *There should be some variation in games* – significant changes should not be made, as frequent and large changes indicate superficiality and instability. Changes should be measured and small.
- *Sometimes, the children perform the learned games on their own*—the kindergarten aims to make children independent. From time to time,

the teacher can choose a child to lead the game, and the other children play as they remember it.

GIFTS

Cvijić (1895) writes in her *Rukovođ* that every toy is dear to a child in a certain way because it satisfies the work instinct. Although a child always enjoys playing with friends, a toy makes them happy because it also entertains them. Fröbel provided children in kindergarten with basic and inexpensive toys, which, owing to their simple shapes, can be used frequently and for a long time, thus entertaining the children. These toys, or gifts, are as follows:

- ball
- sphere, cylinder, and cube

Zaninović (1988) names Fröbel's gifts differently and believes that there are six gifts, with only three basic shapes: spheres, cylinders, and cubes. There are various classifications of Fröbel's gifts, and Došen-Dobud (2019) mentions that Fröbel distinguishes gifts as follows:

- ball,
- little ball,
- sphere,
- cube, and
- cylinder.

Cvijić (1895) considers the ball a traditional toy. Fröbel gave a ball to a young child in the cradle, believing that the ball was pleasing in shape and appearance. Along with individual large and soft balls, six soft balls in rainbow colors are connected together. These were used to demonstrate ball movement in various directions, helping children understand directions (Došen-Dobud, 2019). Fröbel saw the ball as a symbol of man's unity with all divine things. Došen-Dobud (2019) explained that Fröbel followed Pestalozzi's principle by using geometric shapes as gifts. Cvijić (1895) stated that children in kindergartens use two types of balls: woollen balls and simple balls. She also believes that children can learn about various directions with the ball: left, right, up, down, etc. There are various games played with the woollen ball, accompanied by short songs with simple lyrics. Children play with the ball together or in pairs, tossing or aiming at a stand (Cvijić, 1895, p. 35).

Other gifts include spheres, cubes, and cylinders. For Fröbel, spheres symbolize hardness and movement. Cvijić (1895) suggested that spheres bring the universe closer to children. Fröbel suggested that cubes represent the idea of stability and were among the selected gifts. Cubes symbolize completeness and peace and are versatile with their vertices, faces, and edges (Došen-Dobud, 2013).

Friedrich Fröbel was the pioneer of his didactic material, although he did not construct it himself. The same author noted that contributions came from Hermann Goldmann, Franz Schmidt, Luisa Fröbel, and others. The cubes were disassembled into their components and later returned to their original position. The cylinder is also a type of gift and has a certain symbolic significance. It represents the positions of both the sphere and the cube, indicating the idea of movement and stability (Došen-Dobud, 2013). This is not all the didactic material used; in addition to these three geometric shapes, there were boxes with sticks, lines, threads, fences, pebbles, peas, beads, rings, and weaving paper. In *Rukovođ* Antonija Cvijić (1895) described all the materials and their use in detail. She noted that these three geometric shapes are in a box with a stand. “In it, there is a small stand on which the shapes can be hung; each shape has a small hole, so a ribbon can be attached and a stick inserted” (Cvijić, 1895, p. 37).

ENTERTAINMENTS

Fröbel believed that everything a child can perceive with their senses should be allowed to be represented with their hands. The most significant means of representation are the hands. Fröbel divides entertainments into those involving assembly and those involving creation (Cvijić, 1895). Assembly entertainments are those where the child is given ready-made material. The material is usually made of hard substances so that the child can use it frequently without fear of destroying it. Creation entertainments are those where the child is given materials that will change shape, size, and volume through play and can never return to their original form. Mendeš (2020) provides a detailed classification of entertainments:

- a) Assembly entertainments
 1. Group of bodies: building
 2. Group of planes: tiles
 3. Group of bodies: sticks, slats, and rings
 4. Group of bodies: pebbles, seeds
- b) Creation entertainment:
 1. Group of points: perforating
 2. Group of lines: guiding chains, drawing, stitching, moving threads
 3. Groups of planes: folding paper, weaving, cutting out, painting
 4. Group of bodies: basket weaving, joining sticks with peas, modeling

Cvijić (1895) noted that such prepared entertainments were not used in kindergartens until 1892. Occasionally, something needed to be changed because, for example, doctors sometimes complained that certain entertainments harmed children’s eyesight, leading to modifications. Lascardies and Hinitz (2000) explain the difference between gifts and entertainment. Gifts were intended for children to learn about the external world, and such learning was adapted

to the child's development. Entertainments are materials prepared in advance to help children practice a specific skill. Any objects can be entertainments, but the material should be suitable for children and adapted to their abilities to use it freely. *Rukovođ za zabavište* provides detailed information about the entertainment and its use. From this chapter, we see that Cvijić based the entire educational work in kindergarten on Fröbel. This highlights Friedrich Fröbel's educational system (Mendeš, 2020).

CONCLUDING REMARKS

In the 19th century, significant changes occurred in the field of early childhood and preschool education. New insights have begun to explore the importance of early childhood for a child's development. Today, we are accustomed to most children of early and preschool age attending kindergarten due to parental employment. During Friedrich Fröbel's time, specialized institutions, named Institutions for the development of creative activity motives in children and youth, which were established by Fröbel himself, began opening only in 1837. He found the name incorrect and later changed it to Kindergarten, which is the term we use today. Despite receiving numerous criticisms, Fröbel also found many educators who continued his concept.

One of them was the renowned 19th-century Croatian educator Antonija Cvijić, who published *Rukovođ za zabavište* in 1895 under the Croatian Pedagogical Literary Association.

Her focus on preschool education was influenced by her mother, Antonija Cvijić Lukšić, who founded the first children's kindergarten in Croatia in 1869. From the work *Rukovođ za zabavište*, it is evident how much Antonija Cvijić supported Fröbel's ideas, basing her concept almost entirely on his. Došen-Dobud (2019) provided a simple explanation for this. At that time, many well-known educators valued Fröbel and advocated for Fröbelianism, so she could not have thought otherwise. Although *Rukovođ za zabavište* was written more than 100 years ago, it remains indispensable work in Croatian pedagogy. Their pedagogical ideas can still be applied in preschool education today, highlighting their historical importance for preschool education.

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**KOSINAC, Z. I KARIN, Ž. (2024). KINEZIOLOŠKA
AKTIVNOST – PRESTIŽNA ZNAČAJKA ZDRAVLJA DJECE
I MLADEŽI. MEDICINSKA NAKLADA.**



Postoje publikacije koje djelomično obrađuju pojedino područje tjelesne i zdravstvene kulture i praktičnog izvođenja pojedine tjelesne aktivnosti djece i mladeži. Trenutačno u našoj stručnoj literaturi ne postoji ovako sveobuhvatan prikaz svih aktivnosti i benefita koje svaka od njih donosi poboljšanju i održavanju visoke razine tjelesnog zdravlja mladih naraštaja u našoj populaciji. Ovo je osobito važno kada se ima na umu da spadamo među populacije s najvišim udjelom osoba s prekomjernom tjelesnom težinom (pretilih), što nepovoljno utječe na zdravlje populacije, dodatno opterećuje zdravstveni sustav i utječe negativno na radnu sposobnost.

Autori dr. sc. Zdenko Kosinac, prof. u miru i doc. prim. dr. sc. Željka Karin u djelu, sveučilišnom udžbeniku pod nazivom: *Kineziološka aktivnost – prestižna značajka zdravlja* u

izdanju Medicinske naklade, Zagreb i Kineziološkog fakulteta Sveučilišta u Splitu, nude nam kroz znanstveni i stručni pristup, prikaz, obradu i zaključak za sve ključne pojmove: kineziološka aktivnost, djeca i mladež, zdravlje. Jednostavnim, razumljivim, pristupačnim i lako čitljivim rukopisom, kroz četiri velika poglavlja (336 stranica), opisuju se vrijednosti tjelesne aktivnosti, svakodnevnog vježbanja, pravilnog utjecaja na rast i razvoj, poboljšanje i očuvanje zdravlja, potičući kreativnost i inkluzije različitosti, nadarenosti i kreativnosti svakog djeteta te ih s lakoćom približava čitatelju, prvenstveno roditeljima, odgajateljima, učiteljima/učiteljicama. Obilje pomno biranih slika i crteža upotpunjuje tekst te na taj način čini ovu knjigu posebno vrijednom i zanimljivom. Knjiga je pisana ne samo na temelju bogatog osobnog iskustva već i na temelju

stručne svjetske literature, pa je tim vrjednija.

Djelo je posve originalno i vrlo široko pristupa tjelesnoj aktivnosti djece i mladih osoba u cilju poboljšanja i očuvanja tjelesnog, pa i mentalnog, zdravstvenog stanja. Ovo je značajan doprinos razvoju kineziološke znanosti i praktičnog značaja kineziološke aktivnosti u očuvanju ili poboljšanju tjelesnih sposobnosti djece i mladeži, debljinom osobito ugrožene skupine u našoj populaciji. Stil pisanja, brojne slike i jednostavnost izričaja omogućavaju lako i razumljivo čitanje i savladavanje potrebnih znanja i vještina. Nakon svakog potpoglavlja autori navode pitanja na koja bi čitatelj trebao dati kvalificirani odgovor i pokazati znanje stečeno čitanjem ovog djela.

Objavljivanjem ove knjige može se reći: dobili smo vrijedan i stručni udžbenik – ne samo za edukaciju odgajatelja, učitelja i učitelja kineziologije u osnovnoj školi već je u pitanju i korisno stručno štivo studentima kinezioloških fakulteta, sportskim pedagozima, liječnicima školske i sportske medicine te širem krugu laika koji se bave prevencijom sportskih ozljeda, korekcijom posturalnih i zdravstvenih problema djece i mladeži primjenom kineziološke aktivnosti.

dr. sc. Hicela Ivon, u miru

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AKTIVNOST – PRESTIŽNA ZNAČAJKA ZDRAVLJA DJECE
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There are publications that partially address one particular area of physical and health education and the practical performance of individual physical activities of the children and youth. Nowadays in the Croatian professional literature there has been no such comprehensive overview of all the activities and benefits that each of them brings to the improvement and maintenance of a high level of physical health of young generations in our population. This is especially important when one bears in mind that we are among the populations with the highest proportion of overweight (obese) people, which adversely affects the health of the population, additionally burdens the health system and negatively affects the ability of people to work.

In this publication, the university textbook entitled *Kineziološka aktivnost – prestižna značajka zdravlja djece i mladeži* (*Kinesiological Activity – a prestigious feature of children and*

youth health), published by Medicinska naklada, Zagreb and the Faculty of Kinesiology of the University of Split. The authors Zdenko Kosinac, PhD, retired professor and Željka Karin, MD, PhD, use a scientific and professional approach in offering the presentation, processing and conclusion for the key terms kinesiological activity, children and youth, health. A simple, understandable, accessible and easy-to-read manuscript, comprising four large chapters (336 pages), describes the values of physical activity, daily exercise, proper influence on growth and development, improvement and preservation of health, encouraging creativity and inclusion of diversity, talent and creativity of every child and bringing them easily closer to the readers, primarily parents, educators and teachers. The abundance of carefully selected images and drawings completes the text and thus makes this book especially valuable

and interesting. The book has been written not only on the basis of rich personal experience, but also on the basis of professional world literature, which makes it all the more valuable. The text is completely original and has a very broad approach to the physical activity of children and youth to improve and preserve both their physical, and mental health conditions. This study is a significant contribution to the development of kinesiological science and to the practical significance of kinesiological activity in preserving or improving the physical abilities of children and youth, a particularly vulnerable group in our population. The writing style, numerous images and simplicity of expression enable easy and understandable reading and mastery of the necessary knowledge and skills. After each subsection, the authors list the questions to which the reader should give qualified answers and demonstrate the knowledge gained from reading this work.

With the publication of this book we have received a valuable and professional textbook for the education of educators, teachers and teachers of kinesiology in primary schools. It is also useful professional reading for students of kinesiology faculties, sports educators, school and sports medicine physicians and a wider circle of laypersons dealing with the prevention of sports injuries, correction of postural and health problems of children and youth when carrying out kinesiological activities.

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