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REVIJA ZA ELEMENTARNO IZOBRAŽEVANJE
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USING DIFFERENTIATION STRATEGIES FOR GIFTED PUPILS IN PRIMARY SCHOOL SCIENCE CLASSES

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Abstract/Izvleček The aim of this study was to determine the extent to which gifted pupils receive differentiated instruction in primary school science classes, which of the differentiated instruction strategies are used by teachers and how often. The survey sample included 134 primary school teachers. The results show that teachers frequently use questioning and thinking activities but make only minor modifications in the regular curriculum to meet the needs of gifted pupils. Gifted pupils rarely engage in activities such as providing challenges and choices, differentiated reading and writing assignments, individually set work, activities involving curriculum modification, and enrichment centres.

Uporaba strategij diferenciacije za nadarjene učence pri začetnem poučevanju naravoslovja

Namen raziskave je bil ugotoviti, v kolikšni meri so nadarjeni učenci vključeni v procese diferenciacije v začetnem poučevanju naravoslovja, katere strategije diferenciranega poučevanja učitelji izvajajo in kako pogosto. V raziskavo je bil vključen vzorec 134 učiteljev v osnovni šoli. Rezultati raziskave kažejo, da učitelji najpogosteje uporabljajo zasliševalne postopke za razvijanje študentskega mišljenja, vendar v redni učni načrt vnesejo le manjše spremembe, da bi zadovoljili potrebe znanstveno nadarjenih študentov. Nadarjeni učenci so redko vključeni v dejavnosti, kot so zagotavljanje izzivov in izbire, uporaba različnih bralnih in pisnih nalog, individualno delo, dejavnosti v katerih so vključene spremembe učnega načrta in dejavnosti v obogatitvenih centrov.

Keywords:
gifted pupils, differentiation, primary school science class, development of pupils' competences

Ključne besede:
nadarjeni učenci, diferenciacija, začetno poučevanje naravoslovja, razvoj študentskih kompetenc

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Introduction

Differentiated instruction is a process in which a teacher, having analysed the specific needs of each pupil within a heterogeneous classroom, adapts the curriculum and activities to their individual needs (Tomlinson, 2001). This process involves allowing pupils to learn in several different ways in accordance with their abilities (Munro, 2012). Such an approach to instruction contrasts with traditional teaching methods, in which all activities are adapted to the "average and medium pupil", while ignoring pupils' individual characteristics (Table 1).

Table 1. Comparing traditional and differentiated classrooms

	Traditional classroom	Differentiated classroom
Teaching and learning strategies	Dominance of whole-class instruction.	Multiple teaching and learning strategies are used. Flexible grouping and regrouping of pupils according to instructional objectives and in response to pupils' needs (Munro, 2012).
Learning focus	Learning focus is on mastery of facts and skills out-of-context.	Emphasis on understanding key concepts and application of essential skills in the real-life context (Huebner, 2010).
Learning assignments	Emphasis on using single option assignments.	Emphasis on using multi option assignments. The contrast is in the depth and complexity of tasks (Munro, 2012).
Pupils' interests	Interests are less frequently assessed. Instruction is driven by the curriculum content coverage.	Incorporate pupils' interests to increase their motivation for learning and to maximize individual potential (Tomlinson, 2001).
Assessment and evaluation	Assessment usually takes place at the end of learning to see the results.	Implement multifaceted, continual assessment to guide instructional decisions and focus pupils' learning goals. Provide a variety of opportunities for the pupil to demonstrate knowledge and skills (Hall, Strangman and Mayer, 2007).
Questions	Dominance of convergent questions and development of convergent thinking.	Dominance of open-ended questions and encouragement of divergent thinking (Munro, 2012).
Learning centres	Learning centres are not typically used.	Forming learning centres and multiple activities to learn similar material in a variety of ways (Huebner, 2010).
Gifted pupils	Pupils who have already mastered the learning content wait until the rest of the class catches up.	Pupils who have already mastered the learning content work on "challenge assignments" in order to deepen their understanding (Kim, 2016).

Conversely, differentiated instruction attempts to bring the learning and teaching process closer to pupils with different learning abilities who belong to a single class. The main purpose of this process is to enhance the productivity of each pupil and foster their development and individual success (Hall, Strangman, and Mayer, 2007). Previous research studies have shown that differentiated instruction is usually achieved by adapting both the teaching content and the learning process, as well as the final product, i.e., the manner in which pupils demonstrate the competences they have acquired during the learning process (Huebner, 2010; Tomlinson and Strickland, 2005; Munro, 2012). In the teaching process, differentiated instruction begins with identifying individual differences among pupils. Differentiated instruction also includes focusing on basic knowledge and skills related to the currently taught content; identifying pupils' various learning styles, differences in their prior knowledge, levels of interest, degree of activity, and participation in the teaching process; flexible grouping of pupils according to their interests, topic at hand and possibilities; and continuous monitoring of pupils' progress, as well as adjusting the teaching content, learning and teaching process and learning product to the needs of pupils. It also involves recognizing pupils who are capable of going above and beyond the intended teaching content by means of enrichment activities, i.e., identifying gifted pupils who need an appropriate level of challenge and support to develop their full potential (Wallace, Bernardelli, and Molyneux, 2012).

There is no single definition that can precisely describe giftedness. Different researchers have developed specific definitions of giftedness that include thinking, learning styles and function of the brain, giftedness as a genetic trait, giftedness as the result of creativity, and intrapersonal attributes such as identity development and self-awareness. These definitions try to move away from the traditional definition of giftedness as high intelligence defined by IQ tests, an approach that has been criticized as static. Other definitions are built on a multidimensional understanding of giftedness. Renzulli's (2012) three-ring conception of giftedness postulates three clusters of characteristics in gifted children: above-average ability, creativity, and task commitment. Gagne (2004) distinguishes between gifts (aptitude) and talent (performance), encompassing a wide range of possible areas in which children can demonstrate capability and emphasizing the transition between gifts and talent and environmental influences. Mönks (1992) describes giftedness as a combination of inherent potential and environmental factors.

Schmitt and Goebel explain that the term gifted and talented students, means "those students who give evidence of high achievement capability in areas such as intellectual, creative, artistic, or leadership capacity, or in specific academic fields, and who need services or activities not ordinarily provided by the school in order to fully develop those capabilities" (Schmitt and Goebel, 2015, p. 429). These students are characterized by quicker and more efficient learning and thinking at a higher level than other kids of their age. Morelock (1996) defines giftedness as a form of development and talent – a "multi-level potential for domain-specific creative productivity which can be fostered through appropriate identification and environmental support". Children with exceptional achievement or potential in one or more areas are considered gifted. Gifted pupils "achieve exceptionally high levels of attainment in all or some aspects of the curriculum demands in school science or undertake some science-related tasks at a level of demand well above that required at their current curricular stage" (Taber, 2010, p. 9). They show strong curiosity about things and phenomena around them, and often ask many questions. They are able to handle abstract concepts, enjoy challenging problems and have creative and investigative ideas. They demonstrate high interest in investigating scientific phenomena and show ability to make connections between scientific concepts and observed phenomena. The concepts of gifted and talented are commonly used together, but some definitions show that there is a subtle difference between giftedness and talent, as giftedness talks about potential abilities whereas talent talks about present abilities that can be demonstrated or performed (Da Costa and Lubart, 2016).

The main methods that foster the development of gifted pupils in general include differentiation, extra-curricular amplification - i.e., curriculum enrichment, acceleration, and grouping of gifted pupils. Each of these methods specifically contributes to meeting the needs of gifted pupils and developing their abilities.

Extracurricular amplification and curriculum enrichment refer to an intervention in both the learning content and the learning process which aims to enhance the competences of gifted pupils within regular classes and allow maximum development of their abilities (Southem and Jones, 2004).

Acceleration is most commonly described as an educational intervention model in which pupils progress rapidly through educational programmes at a younger age than usual.

It can be partial, i.e., used for specific subjects only, or complete, which involves an accelerated progression through the educational system based on pupils' specific abilities (Southem and Jones, 2004). The advantages of this approach are that it improves gifted pupils' personal motivation, academic performance and mental habits, and helps meet their emotional needs and reduce their sense of isolation, while the disadvantages include social and emotional difficulties and possible occurrence of gaps in pupils' knowledge and skills (Petrovich, 2005; Rogers, 2002). Despite the observed disadvantages, acceleration is considered the most efficient strategy for enhancing the achievements of gifted pupils and improving their motivation (Colangelo, Assouline and Gross, 2004). Therefore, it is recommended that it be combined with other methods that foster the development of gifted pupils (Davis and Rimm, 2004).

Grouping of pupils according to their specific abilities contributes to academic performance, development of critical thinking and creativity in gifted pupils (Rogers and Span, 1993). One of the advantages of grouping pupils by ability is that it allows teachers to focus on meeting the needs of gifted pupils and on tailoring activities to suit their specific abilities. A possible disadvantage of this method is the emergence of elitism and negative attitudes among other pupils towards such grouping, as well as a loss of self-esteem among pupils who have not been identified as gifted.

Based on all the above, it can be concluded that none of the existing strategies aimed at meeting the needs of gifted pupils is ideal, which is why it is recommended to combine several different methods when working with gifted pupils. Moreover, it is worth mentioning that curriculum enrichment and differentiation are generally considered the most acceptable strategies for fostering the development of gifted pupils, given that both methods can have a positive impact on the development of competences among both gifted pupils and all other pupils in an education system.

Tomlinson and McTighe (2006) emphasize that gifted pupils require alternative forms of work that allow them to develop their knowledge and skills and perform at a higher, more challenging level. Especially convenient for this purpose are tasks that can be solved in several different ways (Tomlinson and Imbeau, 2010), thus supporting different learning styles. High-quality differentiated instruction will allow pupils to showcase their comprehension of the acquired knowledge and abilities that they have developed in different ways during the teaching process.

In terms of the assessment process, this means that the mark a pupil receives should reflect what the pupil knows, understands and is able to do, instead of what he/she is like in comparison with his/her peers.

Research conducted so far has shown that teachers lack sufficient knowledge about gifted pupils (Chan and Yuen, 2015; Cheung and Hui, 2011), and that they usually do not implement differentiated instruction to meet the needs of different pupils (Yuen, Westwood, and Wong, 2005; Wan, 2015). Such results are devastating, considering that a meta-analysis of research dealing with the effects of differentiated instruction in the teaching process has shown that differentiated instruction has a positive impact on academic achievement by talented pupils and on their socio-emotional development (Kim, 2016). Furthermore, research by Stavroula, Leonidas and Mary (2011) shows that pupils who are exposed to differentiated instruction achieve better results than those who learn in traditional classrooms.

Despite that, teachers often resist differentiated instruction because they lack the competences to implement it (Tomlinson, Callahan, Tomchin, Eiss, Imbeau and Landrum, 1997). Sometimes even the content of in-service teacher training programs is deficient in the area of education for gifted and talented pupils (Kukanja Gabrijelčič, 2014).

Although more recent study programmes at teacher education faculties emphasize the need to implement differentiated instruction, they often fail to teach prospective teachers how it should be done. The lack of competences among future teachers to conduct this extremely important process is correlated with practical implementation of differentiated instruction. An analysis of future teachers' lesson plans in the study conducted by Skribe Dimec (2013) showed insufficient presence of elements of differentiated instruction in primary science education, as well as a lack of differentiation elements in the majority of teaching materials for primary-level science.

Although many teachers emphasize the importance of differentiated instruction and advocate the need to implement it, their teaching methods do not coincide with their beliefs. Another problem is that differentiated instruction requires much longer preparation for the teaching process. There is also the misconception that differentiated instruction cannot be implemented because of the traditional methods used to assess pupils' achievements. The biggest challenge for the implementation of differentiated instruction is the teachers' lack of confidence in their own ability to implement it properly (Hawkins, 2009).

Moreover, teachers often raise concerns that differentiated instruction would benefit only some pupils. However, this concern is unjustified, as research shows that properly implemented differentiated instruction benefits all pupils (McQuarrie, McRae and Stack-Cutler, 2008).

There are, however, certain disadvantages to differentiated instruction. The main weakness is the lack of unique guidelines for its implementation (Huebner, 2010), which stems from the differences in structure of each individual school class. Furthermore, differentiated instruction involves additional pressure on teachers to provide support for pupils with special needs, which is usually only provided by experts. In addition, the process cannot take place only once, but needs to be repeated continuously over a lengthy period of time, which requires patience and persistence from teachers (Tomlinson, 2001). Furthermore, some pupils might need much more support than a competent teacher is able to provide during the differentiated instruction process (Tomlinson et al. 1997).

When implementing differentiated instruction for gifted pupils, teachers will develop more complex learning activities for such pupils (Huebner, 2010). The emphasis is placed on inquiry-based learning, during which a pupil can experience the joys and frustrations of creative productivity. Through appropriate differentiated instruction methods, gifted pupils are presented with additional challenges to help maintain their interest and attention, and appropriately develop their abilities. Only by being presented with such challenges can gifted pupils develop persistence, curiosity and intellectual risk taking (Tomlinson, 2001).

When working with gifted pupils in primary school science classes, the goal is to support the development of an advanced level of understanding and knowledge, the development of self-regulated learning, commitment to the task, self-esteem and the sense of creative accomplishment in such children. During the differentiated instruction process, teachers will help pupils understand their abilities, interests and learning styles.

Maker's model (1982) suggests that a curriculum which best supports gifted learners' skills should be differentiated in the key areas of content, process, product and learning environment (Figure 1).

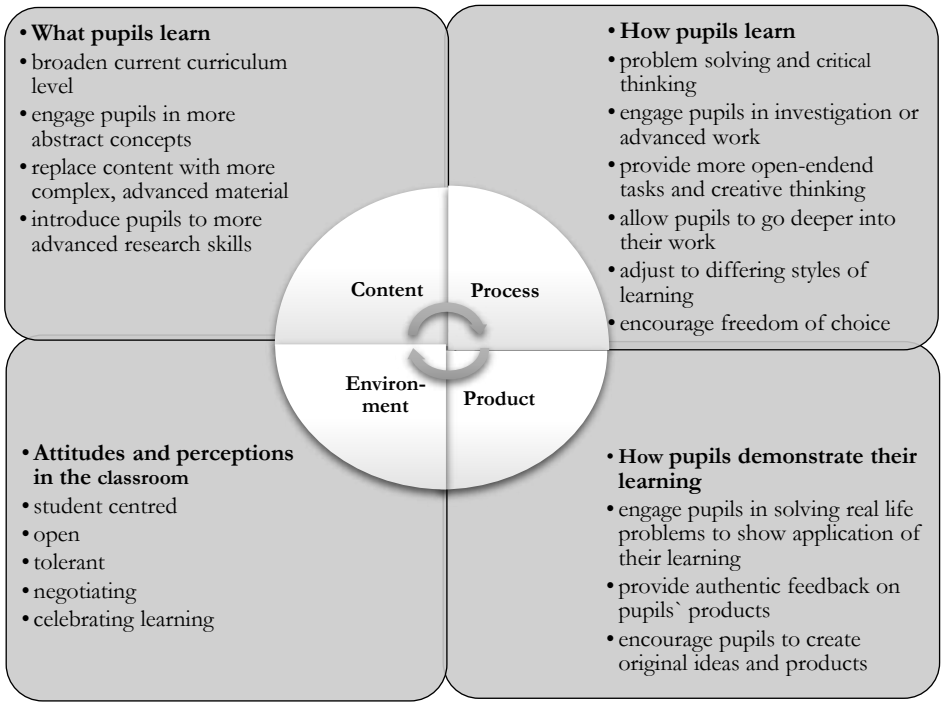

Figure 1. Maker`s (1982) model of the differentiated curriculum for highly able pupils

Research methodology

Research objective

This paper presents the results of a study to determine whether teachers in the first four grades of elementary school implement differentiated instruction for gifted pupils in primary school science classes, which of those differentiated instruction techniques they implement and how frequently.

Hypotheses

H(1) Teachers frequently (once a week) implement all differentiated instruction techniques for pupils who are gifted at natural sciences in primary school science classes.

H(2) Teachers use differentiated instruction techniques more frequently when working with gifted pupils than with other pupils in primary school science classes.

H(3) There is no statistically significant difference in the frequency of implementation of specific differentiated instruction techniques in primary school science classes.

Research instruments, variables and data processing

For the purpose of this research, a questionnaire was developed that was modelled on a similar questionnaire by Archambault et. al. (1993). The statements from this questionnaire were partially modified and adapted to the peculiarities of teaching science in primary school. Before using the instrument, a pilot study was conducted on a smaller, targeted sample for the purpose of testing it. After that, any ambiguities within the instrument were removed, allowing it to be used in research on a larger sample.

The questionnaire consists of three sections. The purpose of the first section was to collect demographic data on respondents and to establish whether they had participated in any courses or professional training during their teaching career that dealt with the topic of working with gifted pupils.

The second part of the questionnaire was aimed at determining how often the respondents implement differentiated instruction when working with gifted pupils and with other pupils in primary school science classes. This section of the questionnaire comprised a scale consisting of 38 items (statements) divided into six subscales related to several different groups of differentiated instruction techniques used to encourage the development of gifted pupils: (1) Asking questions and developing higher-order thinking; (2) Offering challenges and choices; (3) Differentiated tasks, which include reading and writing; (4) Changes in the curriculum; (5) Learning Enrichment Centres; (6) Individual work in pupils' work stations. Teachers provided their own assessments of the frequency of implementation of these techniques using a six-point Likert scale (1=never, 2=very rarely (once or twice a semester), 3=rarely (once a month), 4=occasionally (2 or 3 times a month), 5=often (once a week), 6=always (in every class)). The dependent research variable is the frequency of implementation of differentiated instruction techniques for gifted pupils in primary school science classes. Independent variables are a program concept and the context of learning (lower grades of primary education and primary science classes).

The following statistical measurements and data processing procedures were used: descriptive statistics to determine basic statistical indicators in interpreting research results, a t-test to compare the mean of a continuous variable in two different groups and ANOVA for comparison of mean values of the variable in more than three groups.

Respondents

The study was conducted by means of a survey, and the sample included teachers of lower (first to fourth) grades of elementary school (N=134). The sample predominantly included female respondents (97%), whereas in terms of qualification level there was an equal representation of respondents with graduate level qualifications (56%) and undergraduate level qualifications (44%). In terms of years of service, the respondents were divided into six groups. The first group comprised respondents with 0 to 5 years of service (20.9%); the second group comprised those with 6 to 10 years of service (14.9%); the third group comprised those with 11 to 15 years of service (23.1%); the following group were teachers with 16 to 20 years of service (9.7%), then those with 21 to 25 years of service (19.4%), and finally those with 25 or more years of service (11.9%). For the question whether teachers had participated in any professional development course or training dealing with the topic of instruction for gifted pupils during their teaching career, the respondents were divided into those whose answer to that question was affirmative (30.6%) and those whose answer was negative (69.4%).

Results and discussion

The differentiated instruction methods most frequently used by teachers when working with gifted pupils in primary school science classes, in the group of techniques based on asking questions and developing higher-order thinking, are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Techniques based on asking questions and developing higher-order thinking

Items	*M*	*SD*
I achieve the educational outcomes related to thinking skills which are defined by the curriculum.	**4.51**	1.68
I encourage critical thinking and creative problem solving in science classes.	**4.47**	1.59
I encourage pupils to ask more complex questions in science classes.	**4.01**	1.62
I encourage pupils to discuss the given issue among themselves.	**4.01**	1.45
Total	**4.28**	1.41

The total arithmetic mean of teachers' answers to this group of questions is M=4.28; SD=1.41, which indicates that these differentiated instruction techniques are implemented occasionally (2 or 3 times a month) in science classes. Higher-order questions develop pupils' critical thinking skills and help pupils to apply, analyse, synthesise and evaluate information, instead of simply reproducing facts. Taylor et al. (2003) emphasize that pupils whose teachers use questions at a higher cognitive level reach higher levels of knowledge, while Hus and Legvart claim (2016) that questions and cognition development are strongly connected. Therefore, it is very important to incorporate these instruction techniques into everyday teaching practice, instead of using them only a few times a month.

Educational equality requires providing each pupil with challenges that meet their abilities (Davidson, Davidson, and Vanderkam, 2004). The highest and the lowest arithmetic mean values in the group of differentiated instruction techniques based on offering challenges and choices to gifted pupils are shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Techniques based on offering challenges and choices

Items	*M*	*SD*
I prepare pupils for participation in natural science competitions.	1.82	1.48
I suggest additional sources of knowledge to pupils during science class (journals, encyclopaedias, children's books etc.).	**3.29**	1.34
I suggest that the pupil attend science class in a higher grade.	**1.44**	1.20
I bring additional sources of knowledge (journals, encyclopaedias, children's books etc.) to science class and encourage pupils to use these in their work.	3.37	1.48
Total	**2.68**	**1.04**

The total arithmetic mean of teachers' answers to this group of questions is M=2.68; SD=1.41, which indicates that these differentiated instruction techniques are rarely implemented in science classes. Gifted pupils in primary science are more engaged and can fulfil their potential when teachers set high expectations, along with assignments and activities that challenge them appropriately (Council of Curriculum, Examinations and Assessment [CCEA], 2006). Challenging problems help gifted pupils to "cultivate their high-level thinking skills, while also providing opportunities to advance their metacognitive skills, feelings of ownership, motivation, and engagement levels" (Matsko and Thomas, 2014, p. 160)). Absence of these instruction techniques can have a negative influence on gifted pupils' motivation for learning, which is why they need to be implemented more frequently in practice.
The highest and the lowest arithmetic mean value in the group of differentiated instruction techniques based on task assignments that involve reading and writing are shown in Table 4.

Table 4. Techniques based on task assignments that involve reading and writing

Items	***M***	***SD***
I use more complex texts about certain topics which require higher-order thinking in science classes.	2.90	1.45
I require pupils to write a report on a given topic in science classes.	3.04	1.32
In science classes I give pupils the task of writing a presentation about a book they have read.	1.82	1.02
In science classes the pupil is given the task of writing an essay on a topic assigned by the teacher, in which the pupil needs to present or explain the given topic in a creative manner.	1.94	1.00
Total	**2.44**	**1.02**

The total arithmetic mean of teachers' responses to this group of questions is M=2.44; SD=1.02, which indicates that these differentiated instruction techniques are very rarely implemented in science classes (1 or 2 times a year). Independent reading and writing assignments offer opportunities for developing fluency as well as practice with comprehension strategies and decoding skills (Clay, 1991). At the same time, there should be some opportunity for pupil choice, since pupils can often read materials above their instructional reading level if they are interested in and excited about a specific topic (Ancrum and Bean, 2008).

This is a demanding procedure that requires good reading skills and orientation in written texts, which is not yet fully developed in pupils aged 7 to 10. This is probably why teachers only rarely apply this differentiation technique in their teaching practice.

The highest and lowest arithmetic mean values in the group of differentiated instruction techniques based on changes to the curriculum are shown in Table 5.

Table 5. Techniques based on changes to the curriculum

Items	***M***	***SD***
I use pre-tests to assess pupils' prior knowledge of a specific teaching unit or teaching content and change the curriculum accordingly.	2.31	1.62
I eliminate and do not use the curriculum content that pupils have already mastered well.	1.87	1.09
In science classes we analyse and study teaching content that is more complex and more demanding for pupils.	3.66	1.09
In science classes I use different teaching methods for pupils who are able to learn the teaching content more quickly.	3.47	1.42
Total	**2.84**	**1.06**

The total arithmetic mean of teachers' responses to this group of questions is M=2.84; SD=1.06, which indicates that these differentiated instruction techniques are rarely implemented (once a month) in science classes. An effective curriculum for pupils who are gifted is essentially a basic curriculum that has been modified to meet their needs. It can be modified in content, process, product expectations or learning environment. Both content and learning experiences can be modified through acceleration, compacting, variety, reorganization, flexible pacing, and the use of more advanced or complex concepts and abstractions. On the other hand, modification of the process can include restructured activities, more intellectually demanding for highly able pupils. They need to be challenged by questions that require a higher level of response and stimulate inquiry, active exploration, and discovery. Activities should meet pupils' interests and encourage pupils' self-directed learning. Also, the learning environment should encourage pupils' creativity, inquiry and independence, and needs to be pupil-centred and receptive.

The total arithmetic mean of teachers' responses in this group of differentiation techniques is not satisfactory and shows that the respondents' teaching practice does not meet the needs of gifted pupils in primary school science classes.
The highest and the lowest arithmetic mean values in the group of differentiated instruction techniques based on enrichment centres are shown in Table 6.

Table 6. Techniques based on enrichment centres

Items	M	SD
In science classes I allow pupils a certain amount of time to pursue their own particular interests in the field of natural sciences.	3.31	1.32
During science classes I organize workstations in the classroom and encourage pupils to use these and perform various activities.	3.03	1.54
I sometimes work on science curriculum content with pupils even after class.	2.05	1.25
I include pupils in extracurricular activities related to natural sciences.	2.15	1.32
Total	**2.73**	**1.06**

The total arithmetic mean of teachers' answers to this group of questions is M=2.73; SD=1.06, which indicates that these differentiated instruction techniques are rarely implemented (once a month) in science classes. Enrichment centres enhance a pupil's educational experience and allow participants to meet their interests. Pupils are working on subject matter in more depth or breadth. This technique can be easily implemented in the classroom by grouping pupils with similar abilities to complete activities at their learning levels or be organized as an extra-curricular activity for gifted pupils. The main purpose is highlighting the talents of gifted pupils and investing in their abilities to motivate their creativity.
The highest and the lowest arithmetic mean values in the group of differentiated instruction techniques based on individual work of gifted pupils at their workstations are shown in Table 7.

Table 7. Techniques based on individual work of gifted pupils at their work stations

Items	***M***	***SD***
In science classes I use worksheets to help develop pupils' basic skills.	3.47	1.31
In science classes I use worksheets enriched with additional material for the development of pupils' specific skills.	2.91	1.24
I instruct pupils to use computers in science classes.	3.47	1.55
Total	**3.30**	**1.05**

The total arithmetic mean of teachers' answers to this group of questions is M=3.30; SD=1.05, which indicates that these differentiated instruction techniques are rarely implemented in science classes, with a mild tendency towards occasional implementation. Individual work forms an important part of effective provision for gifted and talented pupils. Individualized learning offers the pupil the possibility of working on his/her own research topics, encourages him/her to make decisions about the domains of learning, supports him/her in working efficiently in a manner best suited to his/her needs and motivates him/her for self-regulating learning (Kelemen, 2010). It is relatively easy to apply in everyday teaching practice, so the frequency of its use is slightly higher compared to other differentiation techniques.
By comparing the arithmetic mean values of respondents' answers regarding the frequency of implementation of various differentiated instruction techniques in science classes, in some subscales we can establish that most differentiated instruction techniques are rarely implemented, which is why the first hypothesis (H1), which posited that teachers frequently implement all differentiated instruction techniques for gifted pupils, is rejected.

Table 8 shows the results of testing the statistical significance of differences in the frequency of implementation of specific groups of differentiated instruction techniques for gifted and other pupils in science classes in mixed-ability classes.

Table 8. Statistical significance of differences in the frequency of implementation of specific groups of differentiated instruction techniques for gifted and other pupils in science classes

	Pupils	***M***	***SD***	***t-test***	***p***
Asking questions and developing higher-order thinking	gifted	4.28	1.41	-1.19	0.24
	others	4.45	0.96		
Offering challenges and choices	gifted	2.68	1,04	0.46	0.64
	others	2.62	0.81		
Task assignments that involve reading and writing	gifted	2.44	1.02	1.14	0.25
	others	2.31	0.84		
Changes to the curriculum	gifted	2.84	1.06	-0.21	0.83
	others	2.86	0.85		
Enrichment centres	gifted	2.73	1.06	0.45	0.65
	others	2.68	0.88		
Individual work	gifted	3.30	1.05	-1.06	0.29
	others	3.41	0.70		

According to the data shown in Table 8, it can be concluded that there is no statistically significant difference in the implementation of differentiated instruction techniques for gifted and other pupils in a mixed-ability class, i.e., that the differentiated instruction techniques are equally frequently implemented for both groups of pupils. Hence, the second hypothesis (H2), which posited that teachers implement differentiated instruction techniques more frequently when working with gifted pupils than with other pupils in science classes, is also rejected. This finding is satisfactory because differentiated instruction in a heterogeneous school class should be available to all pupils, since it encourages them to be as successful as possible in the educational process. The problem, however, is that the identified frequency of implementation of various differentiated instruction techniques is relatively low, which is why the lack of a significant difference in the frequency of implementation is not particularly noteworthy.

In order to determine the difference in the frequency of implementation of specific differentiated instruction techniques among gifted pupils, we conducted the ANOVA test (Table 9).

Table 9. The difference in the frequency of implementation of specific differentiated instruction techniques among gifted pupils

	Sum of squares	**df**	**Mean square**	**F**	**p**
Between groups	297.49	5	59.49	47.80	0.00
Within groups	993.29	798	1.25		
Total	1290.79	803			

According to the data shown in Table 9, we notice that the significance level is p=0.00 with regard to testing the difference in the frequency of implementation of specific differentiated instruction techniques when dealing with gifted pupils, which is why we can establish that there is a statistically significant difference in the frequency of their implementation. By means of a post hoc Tukey test, we have established that there are significant differences between most differentiated instruction techniques. Thus, in science classes, the frequency of using questioning techniques to develop pupils' thinking skills is statistically more significant than the frequency of using all other differentiated instruction techniques. Moreover, the frequency of having pupils do individual work at workstations is statistically more significant than the frequency of implementing the methods of offering challenges and choices, assigning differentiated tasks that involve reading and writing, changing the curriculum and Learning Enrichment Centres. Therefore, the third hypothesis (H3), which posited that there is no statistically significant difference in the frequency of implementation of specific differentiated instruction techniques in science classes, is also rejected.

Conclusion

Based on the results of this research, it can be concluded that the majority of teachers rarely (once a month) implement most of these differentiated instruction techniques in primary school science classes. The only technique that is more frequently implemented is the technique of asking questions, whose aim is to develop pupils' thinking skills. Such findings confirm the results of earlier studies (e.g., Yuen et al., 2016; Wan, 2015). This situation in the teaching practice is particularly concerning because it means that in elementary education, there is no adequate support for the development of pupils gifted at natural sciences.

This is particularly unfavourable because gifted pupils need to be identified as early as possible in the course of their education so that their potential can be developed as soon as possible. Here, however, we should also emphasise some limitations of the research. Namely, some education experts (Stevenson and Stigler, 1992) believe that teaching practice needs to be directly observed in order to be assessed more precisely. They also emphasise that the research questions in the questionnaire can only partially clarify teacher behaviour, while direct observation of their teaching could help determine the difference between efficient and inefficient practice. This is further supported by research conducted by Burstein, McDonnell, Van Winkle, Ormseth, Mirocha and Guiton (1995), according to which the coincidence between teachers' self-assessment of their practice and their actual practice is only 40-60%. That is why the findings of this study will be tested in a future research study based on observation of teachers' teaching practice and methods in primary school science classes. Moreover, the results of this study raise the question why differentiated instruction techniques are not implemented frequently enough in actual teaching practice. One reason for this might be insufficient development of teachers' competences to implement differentiated instruction. Therefore, it is important to include training in practical implementation of differentiated instruction strategies in formal initial teacher training programmes, which would allow teachers to acquire the appropriate competences and implement them in their teaching practice with more confidence, more efficiently and more frequently. It would also be necessary to organize various forms of high-quality professional development courses for teachers who already work in the education system, to allow them to understand the importance and function of differentiated instruction, and to use these strategies more frequently, thus promoting the appropriate development of gifted pupils. Differentiation should become a constant and systematic practice in classrooms, not an occasional event.

Because only a few research studies dealing with the use of differentiation have been conducted in Croatia, and there is a lack of appropriate guidelines for implementing this method in teaching practice, the research findings presented in this paper help identify current educational practices and suggest that there is a need to improve those aspects of teaching practice related to the development of gifted pupils. Moreover, the theoretical overview, which emphasizes the importance of differentiation, can contribute to its popularization and lead to more frequent implementation of this method in teaching practice. The findings of this study

should encourage teachers to use appropriate differentiation methods more frequently to facilitate the development of gifted pupils' potential.

This study could also serve as an incentive towards further studies of the efficiency of differentiation for the development of competences among gifted pupils, as well as those that will determine how teacher training programmes can affect the development of teacher competences that are necessary for the implementation of differentiation methods in primary school science classes.

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REVIJA ZA ELEMENTARNO IZOBRAŽEVANJE
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ŠOLSKI VRTOVI V POMURSKI REGIJI

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Izvleček/Abstract

S šolskim vrtom povezano učenje ima na Slovenskem bogato tradicijo in je danes globalno prepoznano gibanje. V prispevku predstavimo delovanje šolskih vrtov v najbolj ravninski in kmetijski regiji Slovenije, v Pomurski regiji, ter njihovo vključevanje v pedagoški proces naravoslovnih predmetov. Polovica (19 izmed 38) osnovnih šol v Pomurju ima šolski vrt. Odločitev za šolski vrt je prepuščena dobri volji vodstva in interesu učiteljev, pri čemer gre za prostovoljno delo učiteljev. Šolski vrt bi bilo nujno vključiti v učne načrte naravoslovnih predmetov, saj aktivnosti, povezane z vrtnarjenjem, dolgoročno prispevajo k razvoju Pomurja kot pomembne kmetijske regije.

School Garden in the Pomurje Region

School-based learning has a long tradition in Slovenia and is now a globally recognized movement. We present the operation of school gardens in the most agricultural region of Slovenia, the Pomurje region, and their inclusion in the pedagogical process of science subjects. Half (19 out of 38) of the primary schools in Pomurje have school gardens. The decision to establish a school garden depends on the good will of the school management and the voluntary interest of the teachers. It would be necessary to include school gardening in science curricula. Garden-related activities contribute to the development of Pomurje as an important agricultural region.

Keywords:
school garden, gardening, elementary school, learning, Pomurje region

Ključne besede:
šolski vrt, vrtnarjenje, osnovna šola, učenje, Pomurska regija

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Uvod

S šolskim vrtom povezano učenje je danes globalno prepoznano gibanje. Smo v času, ko je vrtnarjenje znova popularno, to pa vpliva tudi na ponovno zanimanje in obujanje aktivnosti, povezanih s šolskimi vrtovi. Po letu 2000 so začela številna gibanja in društva poudarjati pomen lokalno pridelane hrane in izobraževanja za trajnostni razvoj. Odraz tega je viden tudi v osnovnih in srednjih šolah, vrtcih ter drugih zavodih. Število šolskih vrtov se iz leta v leto veča (Ribarič, 2014). Med zelo uspešnimi programi sta Šolski ekovrt (b. d.) v organizaciji Inštituta za trajnostni razvoj in Šolska vrtilnica (b. d.) v okviru projekta Ekošole.

Šolski vrtovi so pomemben sodobni učni in vzgojni pripomoček in pomemben vidik naravoslovne pismenosti. Omogočajo neposreden stik z naravo, spremljanje rasti in razvoja rastlin, živali in drugih organizmov. Neposreden stik z naravo je osnovni pogoj za razvoj čustvene povezanosti z naravo in pridobivanje znanja o njej (Kühnis in Fahrni, 2021). Skrb za organizme je dragocena vsakdanja izkušnja za otroke in učence, ki imajo vse manj neposrednega stika z naravo in s pridelavo hrane. V novejšem času pomeni šolski vrt učilnico v naravi in je povezovalni element poučevanja različnih učnih predmetov. Je učencem primerno okolje, kjer ugotavljajo zvezo med vzrokom in posledico ter spoznavajo osnovne zakonitosti, ki potekajo v naravi. Prav tako ponuja vrt spremljanje rasti in razvoja rastlin (Ribarič, 2014).

Škof (2013) navaja in opredeljuje šolski vrt kot sestavni del vsake šole, kot okras in ogledalo šole ter osebno izkaznico vodstva šole. Velikokrat se enači z učilnico v naravi; za razliko od učilnice med štirimi stenami lahko rabi poučevanju različnih učnih predmetov. Ne glede na to, ali poteka v učilnici ali na prostem, vključuje spoznavanje življenjskega kroga živih bitij in cikličnih ritmov narave. Šolski vrt je idealno okolje za razvoj kompetenc, opredeljenih kot kombinacija znanja, spretnosti in odnosov, ustrezajočih okoliščinam (Priporočilo Evropskega parlamenta in Evropskega Sveta z dne 18. decembra 2006 o ključnih kompetencah za vseživljenjsko izobraževanje, 2006). Vključuje uporabo naravoslovnih postopkov, kot so opazovanje, razvrščanje, urejanje, štetje, merjenje, napovedovanje, povezovanje, raziskovanje, sklepanje, sporočanje (Kolar idr., 2011), in sicer v skladu z osnovno in nerevidirano Bloomovo taksonomijo učnih ciljev (Kratwochl, 2002; Anderson, 2002). Takšno vzgojno-izobraževalno delo zahteva svoj čas, saj je treba razviti sposobnosti sodelovanja v učilnici na prostem.

Pri tem je pomembno, da vodi v razvoj neodvisnosti in sposobnosti za nenehno raziskovanje (Getting Started: A Guide for Creating School Gardens as Outdoor Classrooms, 2009). Vključevanje šolskega vrta v pouk ima lahko različne pozitivne učinke na učence. Utrjuje medsebojne odnose med otroki, mladostniki in odraslimi s šolo (Škof, 2013; Dyment in Bell, 2008). Učenci, ki se čutijo povezani s šolo, imajo manj težav z agresivnim vedenjem (Resnick idr., 1997). Ozer (2007) poudarja pozitivne učinke, ki se zrcalijo v zdravju otrok. Otroci spoznavajo vrste sadja in zelenjave, v večji meri posegajo po njih. Fizično delo na vrtu pa prispeva k več gibanja. Dejavnosti v šolskem vrtu povečujejo koncentracijo, motiviranost in samodisciplino pri učencih ter pozitivno vplivajo na zmanjševanje specifičnih učnih težav in motenj pozornosti (Dyment in Bell, 2008).

Šolski vrtovi in s šolskim vrtom povezano učenje ima na slovenskem bogato tradicijo (Ribarič, 2014). Začetek sega v leto 1869, z uvedbo obvezne osnovne šole na Slovenskem, ko je bilo v tretjem osnovnošolskem zakonu šolam, predvsem podeželskim, priporočeno, da naredijo šolski vrt, ki bo opravljal naloge učilnice v naravi. Na učiteljiščih, ki so izobraževala bodoče učiteljice in učitelje, je bil šolski vrt obvezen del učnega programa. Zgodovino in pomen šolskih vrtov v preteklosti dobro povzema razstava Slovenskega šolskega muzeja »Učilnica v naravi ~ šolski vrt včeraj, danes, jutri«, ki jo je uredila kustosinja Šolskega muzeja Mateja Ribarič in je bila prvič postavljena leta 2014. Gradivo razstave s starimi fotografijami iz različnih obdobij, načrti šolskih vrtov in izseki iz knjig ter časopisov prikazujejo pomen šolskih vrtov v posameznih šolah po Sloveniji. Intervjuji in vsebina pouka ter dela pa izkazujejo prednosti šolskih vrtov z vzgojnega vidika. Pomen vrtov za Slovence ilustrira tudi navedba Ribaričeve (2014), da slovenski jezik pozna več kot 40 različnih poimenovanj vrta (Slovar slovenskega knjižnega jezika, 2014), pri tem so najzanimivejša poimenovanja, recimo: cvetlični, divnjak, sadovnjak, zelenjak (Sinonimni slovar slovenskega knjižnega jezika, 2018).

Pomurska regija ima ugodne naravne danosti za gospodarske dejavnosti, povezane s kmetijstvom. V Pomurju je zato kmetijstvo pomembna pretekla in sedanja gospodarska dejavnost, kar daje Pomurju pretežno agrarni značaj (Cunder, 2009). Kmetijska dejavnost pomeni precejšen razvojni potencial, ki ga je treba razvijati in negovati. Konkurenčnost pomurskega podeželja je mogoče povečati z inovativnimi rešitvami za razvoj turizma na kmetijah in z biopredelavo (Sankovič idr., 2015).

Kmetijska zemljišča, ki so v uporabi, so leta 2013 pokrivala polovico ozemlja pomurske regije, to pomeni največ med vsemi regijami (Regije v številkah – statistični portret slovenskih regij 2016, 2016). Leta 2011 je površina kmetijskih zemljišč v pomurski regiji merila 61 % skupne površine regije, od tega 41 % obdelovalne površine (Sankovič idr., 2015). Površina kmetijskih zemljišč v Sloveniji je v zadnjih letih manjša kar za 42 %. Površina zemljišč v Pomurju se je v obdobju med letoma 1986 in 2006 – v primerjavi s površino kmetijskih zemljišč v Sloveniji – povečala za slabih 14 %. Ker je ta gospodarska panoga v tem delu Slovenije tako zelo pomembna, je ključno tudi, kako poteka izobraževanje na tem področju. Lahko se začne že v osnovni šoli z aktivnostmi, povezanimi s šolskimi vrtovi. Pri tem ne gre samo za vzgojo in izobraževanje dobrih kmetovalcev, pridelovalcev hrane in vrtnarjev, ampak tudi ključnih nosilcev kmetijske politike (Škof, 2013).

Ker je razvoj pomurske regije tesno povezan z razvojem kmetijstva, in sicer z razvojem različnih modernih oblik pridelave in predelave hrane in drugih surovin (Sankovič idr., 2015), menimo, da je treba otroke že zelo zgodaj navajati na izkoriščanje naravnih danosti regije. Namen raziskave je bila analiza stanja šolskih vrtov v najbolj ravninski in kmetijski regiji Slovenije – v Pomurski regiji. Cilj raziskave je bil najprej zbiranje številčnih podatkov o delovanju ter analiza stanja šolskih vrtov na posameznih šolah, nato pa predstavitev vključevanja uporabe šolskega vrta v učne načrte ter v pedagoški proces naravoslovnih predmetov. Raziskava poleg številčnih podatkov o tem, koliko in kakšne šolske vrtove imamo v Pomurju, ponuja tudi smernice za delo s šolskimi vrtovi v prihodnje.

Material in metode

Raziskovalni vzorec

Raziskava je bila izvedena v dveh ločenih delih, ki temeljita na neslučajnostnem priložnostnem vzorcu pomurskih osnovnih šol v letu 2016/17, in sicer od maja do junija 2017, pri čemer je bilo v prvo raziskavo zajetih 38 šol, v drugo pa 9. Pomurske šole predstavljajo 8,4 % celotne populacije šol v Sloveniji, teh je skupno 454. Šole z največ 199 učencev smo označili kot malo šolo in šole z 200–600 učenci kot veliko šolo.

Postopki zbiranja podatkov

V prvem delu raziskave, ki je bila izvajana s spletnim anketnim vprašalnikom, je vzorec zajemal 38 pomurskih šol oziroma 38 posameznikov, ki so bili odgovorni za šolski vrt določene šole. Anketiranci so sicer izbirali naziv osnovne šole (Seznam osnovnih šol, b. d.), vendar pa so bili v nadaljnji obdelavi zbrani podatki kodirani in rezultati raziskave predstavljeni anonimno. Zanimali so nas podatki o preteklem in sedanjem delovanju šolskega vrta na njihovi šoli. Želeli smo odgovore na naslednja raziskovalna vprašanja: Koliko šolskih vrtov ima pomurska regija in ali je urejanje šolskega vrta povezano z velikostjo šole? Ali so imele šole, v času anketiranja brez šolskega vrta, v preteklosti šolske vrtove? Ali si želijo šole, v času anketiranja brez šolskega vrta, v prihodnosti znova urediti šolske vrtove? Kakšni so razlogi, da šola nima šolskega vrta?

V drugem delu raziskave, ki je bila izvajana z polstrukturiranim intervjujem, vzorec zajema 9 pomurskih osnovnih šol, ki so svojo udeležbo potrdile v sklopu spletnega anketnega vprašalnika. Te predstavljajo 24 % vseh udeleženih pomurskih šol. Izmed 19 šol, ki smo jih povabili v raziskavo, smo pozitivne odzive prejeli od devetih šol (47 %). Na teh šolah smo v nadaljevanju opravili intervju s fotografiranjem vrta. Nekaj več kot polovica (53 %), skupaj torej 10 osnovnih šol, ki imajo šolski vrt, ni bilo pripravljeno sodelovati v raziskavi. Intervju je potekal po predhodnem dogovoru, osebno na posamezni osnovni šoli, v nadaljnji obdelavi pa so bili zbrani podatki kodirani in rezultati raziskave predstavljeni anonimno.

Intervju je bil polstrukturiran, saj so bila ključna vprašanja intervjuja vnaprej pripravljena. Pripravili smo dodatnih 43 odprtih vprašanj z 21 podvprašanji. V raziskavi smo predstavili samo najzanimivejše odgovore na naslednja raziskovalna vprašanja: Kakšne vrste šolskih vrtov najdemo na pomurskih šolah in kolikšna je njihova velikost? Ali šole prepoznavajo potrebo po tej dejavnosti v kmetijsko zelo intenzivni pomurski regiji? Ali obstajajo kakšni posebni razlogi za ureditev šolskega vrta? Kako šole vključujejo šolski vrt v pedagoške in nepedagoške dejavnosti prvega in drugega triletja? Kdo v šoli je odgovoren za urejanje šolskega vrta, kdaj ga urejajo in kako pogosto? Kaj gojijo na šolskem vrtu? Ali učni načrti naravoslovnih predmetov v prvem in drugem triletju osnovnih šol vključujejo dejavnosti, ki bi jih lahko povezali s šolskim vrtom? Zaradi nestandardiziranega intervjuja le-ta ni potekal vedno na enak način. Intervju smo prilagajali glede na intervjuvance in njihove želje, tako da smo spreminjali vrstni red poteka intervjuja in fotografiranja vrta.

Prav tako so bila posamezna vprašanja zastavljena glede na odzivnost intervjuvanca. Podrobna analiza podatkov, pridobljenih z intervjujem, je zajemala: vrste vrtov in rastlin, velikost in lokacijo vrta, organiziranost in izgradnjo vrta, vključenost pomurskih osnovnih šol v projekte, vključenost učencev in staršev v delovanje vrta ter uporabo pridelkov z vrta.

Postopki obdelave podatkov

Podatke, pridobljene z uporabo spletnega anketnega vprašalnika in intervjujev, smo najprej zbrali v programu Excel in jih računalniško obdelali s statističnim programom SPSS® 22.0 (ang. Statistical Package for the Social Sciences – SPSS). Prikazani so z navedbo absolutnih (f) in odstotnih frekvenc (f %). Za izračun statistično pomembnih razlik smo uporabili χ^2-preizkus.

Rezultati in diskusija

V začetku raziskave smo poskušali določiti pomen pojma šolski vrt. Ugotovili smo, da je v Slovarju slovenskega knjižnega jezika beseda vrt definirana na več načinov: 1) manjše zemljišče, navadno blizu hiše, na katerem raste trava, drevje, se goji vrtnina, okrasne rastline; 2) negovano zemljišče z okrasnim rastlinjem, navadno za sprehode, oddih; 3) posebej urejeno zemljišče kot del gostinskega lokala; 4) s prilastkom zemljišče, na katerem se gojijo rastline, živali, zlasti za študijske in splošno-izobraževalne namene: botanični, pomološki vrt; šolski vrt … (Slovar slovenskega knjižnega jezika, 2014). Samo v okviru permakulture poznamo več tipov in poimenovanj vrtov: gozdni vrt, sinergični vrt (gomilaste grede), spiralne gredice, vodni ekosistemi kot del vrta, vrt z živimi organizmi, zasaditev posod, vrtiček okoli drevesa, greda na kartonu ali zelenici, okrogla visoka greda (Vovk Korže, 2015). V definicijo šolskih vrtov lahko vključimo gojitev rastlin na prostem, na gredah, v posodah ali na drugih površinah, v razredu ali v drugih delih šolske stavbe in v rastlinjakih (Ribarič, 2014). Šolski vrt je v Urbanističnem terminološkem slovarju (2016) definiran kot zunanji prostor šole, namensko urejen in zasajen za učenje o vrtnarjenju, rastlinah in naravnih procesih, lahko namenjen tudi pridelavi hrane. Šuklje Erjavec (2012) opredeljuje dve definiciji šolskih vrtov, v ožjem in širšem smislu. Šolski vrtovi v širšem smislu so zunanji prostori šole, ki poleg zemljišča, ki je namenjeno vzgoji vrtnin, okrasnih gredic in drugih nasadov, vključuje tudi športne, parkovne, travnate in gozdne površine.

Šolski vrtovi v ožjem smislu se navezujejo le na zemljišče, ki je namenjeno vzgoji vrtnin, poljščin, sadju, okrasnim gredicam in nasadom. Tema naše raziskave so bili šolski vrtovi v ožjem smislu in se navezuje na zemljišče, ki je namenjeno vzgoji vrtnin, poljščin, sadju, okrasnim gredicam in nasadom (Šuklje Erjavec, 2012).

V raziskavi smo predstavili številske podatke o šolskih vrtovih na 38 pomurskih osnovnih šolah v šolskem letu 1916/17, nekatere pa smo tudi obiskali in analizirali. Samo polovica, 19 izmed 38 pomurskih osnovnih šol, je imela urejen šolski vrt. Šolske vrtove je imela več kot polovica malih šol (z največ 199 učenci) in manj kot polovica velikih šol (z od 200 do 600 učenci). Od 38 pomurskih šol je bil šolski vrt urejen na 12 manjših šolah (52 %), 11 malih šol (48 %) pa je bilo brez njega. Od 15 velikih šol je bil šolski vrt urejen na 7 velikih šolah (47 %), 8 velikih šol (53 %) pa je bilo brez njega. Razlike med malimi in večjimi šolami niso statistično značilne ($\chi 2 = 0{,}110$; $df = 1$; $p = 0{,}740$). Zanimivo pri tem je, da je šolski vrt v preteklosti imelo od 11 od 14 osnovnih šol (79 %), ki so bile v času anketiranja brez šolskega vrta, in da si ga v prihodnje želi imeti od 12 od 14 osnovnih šol (86 %), sedaj brez šolskega vrta. To kaže vsaj na navidezen interes šol, da bi organizirale to dejavnost. Ko smo se pozanimali za razloge, ki polovici šolam (50 %) brez šolskega vrta preprečujejo delovanje šolskih vrtov (tabela 1), je bil najpogostejši med njimi pomanjkanje ustreznega prostora, to navaja 12 šol (57 %) od 19 šol brez šolskega vrta. Naslednji razlog je bil financiranje, to navajajo 3 šole (14 %), nato pa nezanimanje šole, to navaja ena šola (5 %), ter preobremenjenost učiteljev, to navaja ena šola (5 %) od skupaj 19 šol. Kot druge posamezne razloge anketiranci štirih šol (19 %) navajajo še nezainteresiranost učiteljev, zakonske omejitve, stroge pogoje ter merila sistema HACCP. HACCP je angleška kratica za Hazard Analysis Critical Control Point, kar pomeni analizo tveganja in ugotavljanja kritičnih kontrolnih točk in je mednarodna metoda zagotavljanja varne prehrane. Sistem HACCP je obvezujoč za pripravo hrane v šolski kuhinji.

Tabela 1: Števila (f) in strukturni odstotki (f %) šol po razlogih za nedelovanje šolskega vrta na pomurskih osnovnih šolah.

Odgovor	**f**	**f %**
Prostorski razlogi	12	57,1
Finančni razlogi	3	14,3
Nezanimanje šole	1	4,8
Preobremenjenost učiteljev	1	4,8
Nepomembnost šolskega vrta	0	0,0
Težave z zunanjimi sodelavci	0	0,0
Premajhna usposobljenost učiteljev	0	0,0
Kot drugo navajajo iskanje primernega učitelja, zakonske omejitve, strogi pogoji, HACCP	4	19,0
Skupaj	21	100,0

V pomurski regiji delujejo šolski vrtovi na 19 (50 %) od 38 pomurskih osnovnih šol. Izmed teh 19 šol jih je bilo samo 9 pripravljenih svoj vrt tudi pokazati in deliti svoje izkušnje s širšo skupnostjo. V šolah pomurske regije ima 42 % šol ekološki vrt, 33 % šol okrasni in 25 % šol naravoslovni vrt, ki je vedno v neposredni bližini šole. Velikost vrta je od 180 m^2 do samo 2 m^2 in pri obeh največjih je v to površino vključen tudi sadovnjak. Manj kot polovica osnovnih šol, vključenih v raziskavo, ima tudi čebelnjak (44 %). Večina poroča o velikem zanimanju za čebelarjenje, ki ga tisti brez čebelnjaka rešujejo z organiziranjem krožkov zunaj šole ali obiskom čebelarjev. Šole, ki so bile pripravljene sodelovati in nam predstaviti svoje šolske vrtove, so prepoznale potrebo po tej dejavnosti v kmetijsko zelo intenzivni regiji in kot dodatne razloge za ureditev navedle vključenost v projekte (44 %) in/ali urejenost okolice (44 %) ter ozaveščenost o pomembnosti narave (22 %). Najpogosteje omenjeni razlogi za ureditev vrta so tudi vključevanje v nekajletne projekte Ekošola in Zdrava šola, nato pa še Šolski ekovrt, Shema šolskega sadja in zelenjave, Zdrav življenjski slog, Tradicionalni slovenski zajtrk, TPLG (Turizmu pomaga lastna glava), Uživajmo v zdravju, Ethink, Entente Florae, Hrana ni za tjavendan, Odpadki, Reciklirana kuharija, Zelena straža.

Šole vključujejo vrt v pedagoške in nepedagoške dejavnosti, najpogosteje v prvem in drugem triletju, redkeje tudi v tretjem triletju. Največ osnovnih šole (44 %) ima šolski vrt za pedagoške namene, 33 % šol poleg pedagoških namenov omenja sprostitev, 11 % podaljšano bivanje in 11 % še vzgojo, rekreacijo ali/in neformalna srečanja.

V izvenšolskih dejavnostih šole vključujejo šolski vrt v interesne dejavnosti (Zeliščni krožek, Eko krožek, Krožek ekovrt, Eko dan), dneve dejavnosti (naravoslovni dnevi), sprostitev, druženje, praktično delo na vrtu in opazovanje. Šolski vrt v okviru rednega pouka najpogosteje uporabljajo pri predmetih spoznavanje okolja, naravoslovje in tehnika, gospodinjstvo, uporabljajo ga za opazovalne aktivnosti, za praktično delo in urejanje ali za medpredmetno povezovanje. Šolski vrt v okviru drugega vzgojno-izobraževalnega dela vključujejo največkrat za praktično delo na vrtu, dneve dejavnosti, podaljšano bivanje, delovne akcije, opazovanje in sprostitev. Za šolske vrtove so v večini primerov odgovorni razredni učitelji (67 %), sledijo predmetni učitelji (22 %) in povezava razrednih in predmetnih učiteljev (11 %). Odgovorni učitelji sami najpogosteje (67 %) obiščejo šolski vrt tedensko, dva izmed devetih ga obiščeta večkrat tedensko in eden od devetih enkrat mesečno. Odgovorni učitelji skupaj z učenci obiščejo šolski vrt tedensko (33 %) ali dvakrat na mesec (33 %).

Na vrtu gojijo največkrat zdravilna zelišča, zelenjavo, manj pa drevesa in grmičevje ter cvetoče rastline. Najpogostejša na vrtu gojena zdravilna zelišča so: ognjič, melisa, timijan, meta in drugo. Med najpogostejšo zelenjavo na šolskem vrtu spadajo paradižnik, paprika in peteršilj. Najpogostejše grmovnice so maline in ribez, nato sledijo jagode in borovnice. Samo nekaj več kot polovica (56 %) šol vključuje učence v izbiro rastlin, posajenih na šolskem. Semena in sadike pridobivajo na več načinov, in sicer tako, da jih kupi šola ali pa jih prinesejo učitelji, starši ali otroci. Intervjuvani velikokrat omenjajo vključevanje lokalne družbene skupnosti, sodelovanje lokalnih kmetov, sadjarja, vrtnarja, občinskih delavcev. Po njihovem mnenju uporabo pridelkov v šolski kuhinji omejujejo odsotnost v času poletnih počitnic, zakonodaja in sistem HACCP.

Gospodarjenje z vrtom je prepuščeno usmeritvam, željam, prostorskim, materialnim in finančnim možnostim šole. Tako lahko šola po svoji presoji in možnostih izbere gospodarjenje z vrtom, ki lahko poteka na več načinov, in sicer kot permakulturni vrt, biodinamični vrt in ekoremediacijski vrt. Šolam so v veliko pomoč projekti in programi, v katere se lahko vključijo in jim omogočajo postopno vpeljevanje v okolje, kjer pridobijo potrebne izkušnje o vrtnarjenju v šoli ter tudi pomoč pri sami organizaciji, izgradnji in negovanju šolskega vrta. Najdejo jih v številnih brošurah, nastalih v okviru različnih prej omenjenih projektov (Šebenik, 2015; Turk idr., 2009). O pomenu šolskih vrtov v izobraževanju srednješolcev poročajo Pogačnik idr., (2012a, b).

Šolski vrt je lahko vključen v učne načrte naravoslovnih predmetov, spoznavanje okolja ter naravoslovje in tehnika, v tematske sklope Prostor, Živa bitja in Človek. V tabeli 2 smo zbrali tematske sklope iz učnih načrtov (Kolar idr., 2011; Vodopivec idr., 2011) z vsebinami posameznega predmeta glede na razred, ki se navezujejo na šolski vrt v prvem in drugem triletju. Veliko teh vsebin je primernih in celo priporočljivih za obravnavo na samem vrtu ali vsaj s pomočjo le-tega, pri čemer bi se lahko organizacija učnega procesa tudi poenostavila.

Tabela 2: Naravoslovne vsebine iz učnih načrtov prvega triletja, ki vključujejo dejavnosti, povezane s šolskim vrtom in povzete iz Učnih načrtov: Program osnovna šola, Spoznavanje okolja (Kolar idr., 2011) in Naravoslovje in tehnika (Vodopivec idr., 2011), ki vključujejo aktivnosti, povezane s šolskim vrtom.

Prvo triletje – Spoznavanje okolja		
Tematski sklop	**Razred**	**Vsebine**
Prostor	2.	Osnovni geografski pojmi: obdelovalne površine (polje, njiva, travnik, sadovnjak)
Živa bitja	1.	Rastline in živali Pogoji za življenje rastlin (svetloba, voda in rudninske snovi)
	2.	Razvoj rastline Vrt Pogoji za življenje rastlin (svetloba, voda in rudninske snovi)
	3.	Življenjski krog (rojstvo, rast, razvoj, smrt, razkrajanje)
Drugo triletje – Naravoslovje in tehnika		
Tematski sklop	**Razred**	**Vsebine**
Človek	5.	Zdrava prehrana Izvor in pridelava hrane
Živa bitja	4.	Rastline s cvetovi in brez cvetov Drevesne in grmovne vrste v ožjem okolju
	5.	V rastlinah nastaja hrana

Lahko ga uporabimo kot (geografsko) raziskovalno učilnico (Levart, 2018), saj omogoča lažje razumevanje naravno-geografskih vsebin, lokalnega okolja ter pridobivanje okoljskih vrednot. Pouk v vrtu je praktično, raziskovalno in/ali medpredmetno zasnovan. Pri tem je ključna praktična izkušnja v naravi, ki ima svojo nenadomestljivo doživljajsko vrednost in celovito čutno in čustveno prevzame učence in dijake (Vovk Korže, 2011). Vključujemo ga lahko v obravnavo življenjskih prostorov (Rajšp idr. 2013) in omogoča raziskovalni pristop k poučevanju od vrtca do šole pri vseh naravoslovnih predmetih in predmetih povezanih z naravoslovjem (Petek, 2012).

Zagotovo je lahko vključen v predmet Gospodinjstvo v 5. in 6. razredu osnovne šole, ki v svojih tematskih sklopih v učnem načrtu ne predvideva vsebin, povezanih s pridelavo hrane in uporabo pridelkov z vrta. Pri tem bi lahko učenci dosegali dva cilja. Prvi bi vključeval urejanje vrta za pridelavo hrane, drugi pa uporabo in predelavo pridelkov z vrta, ki bi jih otroci lahko na koncu pojedli in se na ta način naučili spremljati celotno verigo pridelave hrane od proizvajalca do porabnika. S takim načrtovanjem šolskega vrta bi se lahko izognili omejitvam HACCP, nujnim in obvezujočim načinom dela v šolski kuhinji, ne pa tudi obvezujočim za pripravo hrane v učilnici za gospodinjstvo. Otroci bi si lahko sami pridelali in pripravili hrano iz samostojno pridelane zelenjave in sadja v učilnici za gospodinjstvo. Zato predlagamo, da se v naslednji prenovi učnega načrta upoštevajo tudi teme, ki so povezane s samo pridelavo in uporabo tako pridelane hrane in ne samo zgolj pripravo hrane.

Če šola nima šolskega vrta, bi lahko ta del pouka potekal v eni od ustanov, ki urejajo tovrstne vrtove. Ena takih ustanov je Botanični vrt Pivola Univerze v Mariboru, ki ima poleg zeliščnega vrta urejen tudi sadno-zelenjavni vrt. Botanični vrt Pivola že sedaj ponuja dejavnosti, vezane na zelenjavno-sadni in zeliščni vrt. Druga se nahaja v naselju Modraže med Poljčanami in Slovensko Bistrico. Učni poligon za samooskrbo Dole (Vovk Korže, 2015) je urejen po metodah permakulture (Vovk Korže & Kokot Krajnc, 2013) in ponuja dejavnosti, povezane z vrtnarjenjem, ter ga lahko obiskujejo tudi ljubitelji vrtnarjenja in okoliško prebivalstvo.

Ureditev šolskega vrta oziroma dejavnosti, povezane s šolskim vrtom, bi bilo treba nujno vključiti v učne načrte omenjenih naravoslovnih predmetov. Zagotoviti bi bilo treba trajno in kontinuirano spodbujanje, smernice, načrte izvedbe projektov ureditve in vzdrževanja šolskih vrtov in v to vključiti Ministrstvo za izobraževanje, znanost in šport, samostojno ali v sodelovanju z Ministrstvom za kmetijstvo, gozdarstvo in prehrano ter zagotoviti ustrezno financiranje. Zaradi premajhnega vrednotenja pedagoškega dela na šolskem vrtu je v realnosti odločitev za ureditev šolskega vrta samo rezultat dobre volje vodstva in interesa učiteljev, zato takšnim šolam namenjamo vso pohvalo.

Zaključki

Polovica (19 izmed 38) osnovnih šol v Pomurju ima šolski vrt. Odločitev za šolski vrt je prepuščena dobri volji vodstva in interesu učiteljev, pri čemer gre za prostovoljno delo učiteljev. V preteklosti je imelo šolske vrtove več šol, kot jih ima danes. Kot najpogostejši razlog za nedelovanje šole navajajo pomanjkanje prostora. Najpogostejša vrsta šolskega vrta je ekološki, sledi okrasni šolski vrt. V večini intervjuvanih pomurskih osnovnih šol so za šolske vrtove odgovorni učitelji razrednega pouka. Najpogosteje so vključene v projektih in programih Ekošola in Zdrava šola. Z raziskovanjem šolskih vrtov smo želeli pohvaliti tiste, ki se s tem že ukvarjajo, ter spodbuditi ostale, da se jim priključijo. Šolski vrt bi bilo nujno vključiti v učne načrte naravoslovnih predmetov ter pripraviti smernice za delo na šolskem vrtu.

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Summary

School-based learning has a rich tradition in Slovenia and is now a globally recognized movement. School gardening and related learning have an impact on raising children and on young people's awareness of the importance of plants, animals, sustainable food production and consumption, and agrobiodiversity. Whether it takes place in the classroom or outdoors, it involves learning about the life cycle of living things and the cyclical rhythms of nature. At the same time, it strengthens interactions between children, youth, and adults. In our article we present the activities of school gardens in the flattest and most agricultural region of Slovenia - the Pomurje region - and their involvement in the pedagogical process of natural science subjects. The survey was conducted in two separate parts, using two questionnaires.

The first part was conducted with an online questionnaire, in which 38 Pomurje primary schools participated, and the second part was conducted in the form of a semi-structured interview with a sample of 9 Pomurje primary schools. Only half, 19 of the 38 Pomurje primary schools that participated in the online survey, had a school garden. More than half of the small schools (with 199 pupils or less) and less than half of the large schools (with 200 to 600 pupils) had a school garden. The reasons most frequently cited by respondents, that prevented half the schools from having a garden, were lack of space, lack of funding, lack of interest on the part of the school, and teacher overload. In addition to the above reasons, other individual reasons given by respondents included finding a suitable teacher, legal restrictions, strict requirements, and stringent criteria for preparing safe food, HACCP. Nine schools were willing to share their experiences with their school gardens and show them to us. In most cases, the garden was created as an organic, ornamental, or natural garden, usually close to the school. The garden was included in educational and non-educational activities, most often in the first and second three years, less often in the third three years. In regular classes, it was most often included in learning about the environment, science and technology, and home economics. They used it for observation activities, for practical work or for cross-curricular links. In most cases, class teachers were responsible for the school garden. Medical herbs and vegetables were grown in the garden, but less so trees, shrubs or flowering plants. Seeds and seedlings were obtained in various ways, either by purchase or by getting them from teachers, parents, or children. Respondents often mention the involvement of the local community, the involvement of local farmers, fruit growers, gardeners, and community workers. They state that the use of crops in the school kitchen is limited by absence during summer holidays, legislation, and strict HACCP criteria. The decision to have a school garden depends on the good will of the school management and the interest of the teachers, and it represents voluntary work by the teachers. The management of the garden depends on the orientations, wishes, space, material, and financial possibilities of the school. Of great help for schools are projects and programs that allow a gradual introduction of gardening and provide experience and assistance in organizing, establishing, and maintaining a school garden. The establishment of the school garden or activities related to the school garden should be included in the curricula of the particular science subjects.

Ongoing and continuous support, guidelines, plans for implementation of school garden establishment and maintenance projects should be made available, and adequate funding should be provided. If a school does not have a school garden, this part of the teaching could take place in one of the institutions that establish such gardens. One such institution is the Pivola Botanical Garden of the University of Maribor, which has both a herb garden and a fruit and vegetable garden. Horticultural activities contribute in the long run to the development of agricultural and farming activities and thus to the development of this important agricultural region. At the same time, the school garden contributes much to the sustainable development of the social community in an informal way and has a positive influence on attitudes towards the environment.

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REVIJA ZA ELEMENTARNO IZOBRAŽEVANJE
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THE RELATION BETWEEN INTERCULTURAL SENSITIVITY AND WORLD MUSIC PREFERENCES AMONG GRAMMAR SCHOOL AND VOCATIONAL SCHOOL STUDENTS

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Abstract/Izvleček The paper explores the influence of the type of secondary education chosen by the participants on the level of intercultural sensitivity and *world music* preferences, as well as the connection between intercultural sensitivity and *world music* preferences. The research employed a general data questionnaire, the *Intercultural Sensitivity Scale* and an assessment scale to examine music fragment preferences in a sample of 124 participants. The results have significant implications for music and pedagogical theory and practice, in terms of increasing intercultural sensitivity and the tolerance of students towards members of other cultures and their music.

Keywords:
music pedagogy, intercultural sensitivity, musical preferences, world music, music education

Povezava med medkulturno občutljivostjo in svetovnimi glasbenimi preferencami med gimnazijami in poklicnimi šolami

Prispevek raziskuje vpliv vrste srednješolskega izobraževanja, ki so ga izbrali udeleženci, na raven medkulturne občutljivosti in svetovnih glasbenih preferenc ter povezave med medkulturno občutljivostjo in svetovnimi glasbenimi preferencami. V raziskavi je bil uporabljen splošni podatkovni vprašalnik, Lestvica medkulturne občutljivosti in ocenjevalna lestvica za preučevanje preferenc glasbenih fragmentov na vzorcu 124 udeležencev. Pridobljeni rezultati pomembno vplivajo na glasbeno in pedagoško teorijo in prakso v smislu povečanja medkulturne občutljivosti in strpnosti študentov do glasbe in pripadnikov drugih kultur.

Ključne besede:
glasbena pedagogika, medkulturna občutljivost, glasbene preference, svetovna glasba, glasbena vzgoja

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Introduction

Music is an integral part of culture, and as an artistic activity, plays a key role in the quality, harmonious and complete development of each individual. Culture as a way of life is learned and acquired and can be defined as a set of human beliefs, customs, attitudes and traditions in a particular territory (Mesić, 2007). Music education in school institutions is of great importance and has a multiple role for the social community and culture, in achieving the basic educational values and general educational goals. Through music education, students become competent users of culture who actively participate in the musical life of their environment and thus contribute to the preservation, transmission, renewal, and spread of cultural heritage (Curriculum of Music Education for Primary Schools and for Grammar Schools, 2019). Having a diversity of cultures interact in a particular space is called multiculturalism. In Music education classes, students become familiar with multicultural music content through music of varied origins and different styles and types; they adopt the basic elements of the language of music to acquire knowledge about and competence in cultural differences and in this way contribute to the progress of society. Today's society abounds with differences, and very often there is contact between two or more cultures, mutually different nationalities, religions, and languages. The relationship of these differing cultures, their exchange, and the set of differences in their dynamic flow in society, along with their mutual interaction, lead to the notion of interculturalism (Peko, Mlinarević & Jindra, 2009). In the 21st century, intercultural music education is becoming an increasing challenge for music teachers. The development of digital technology makes music from all parts of the world available and requires teachers to professionally develop intercultural competences. This is extremely important so as to allow quality transmission of intercultural content to students through modern teaching methods, given that traditional classes cannot cover all cultural and technological changes in society. Ways of assessing different types of music are based largely on the music-related values and beliefs of Western art music, which indicates the need to know the contexts in which music originates and occurs in order to correctly interpret and understand the social function of music (Dobrota, 2009). Intercultural education within the subject of Music education is important for the formation of students' attitudes towards other cultures by exposing students to intercultural content thus avoiding hesitancy and negativity towards the unknown.

The positive impact of intercultural education is visible in changes in educational policy and educational practice and in dialogue among different cultures, with the aim of better understanding and acceptance of, and respect for different cultures (Drandić, 2012). In everyday communication, musical preferences provide a large amount of information about an individual and help us shape impressions and make judgments about people with whom we come in contact (Rentfrow & Gosling, 2003). Knowing students' musical preferences certainly helps to better interpret intercultural music content and to properly develop student's awareness of the different ways in which we perceive and think about music.

Intercultural music education

Music education covers the music of all cultures; therefore, in this field of education, the intercultural competences of students should be developed. Intercultural music education is an indispensable part of teaching music, covering the activities of singing, playing, listening to music, and composing, to be carried out during the classes of Music education. In the 1920s, intercultural music education began to develop in American schools, because of changes in demographic structures as a result of a large number of immigrants from southern and eastern Europe. At that time, American schools began to introduce folk songs and dances from almost all northern European and Central European cultures, several AfricanAmerican and Indian songs, some songs from Eastern and Southern Europe, and from East Asia. The inclusion of folk songs in the curriculum was a significant step in affirming intercultural music education.

Two symposia were of great importance for the development of intercultural music education. The first symposium of the Yale Seminar was held in 1963, addressing the issue of music education and offering recommendations for solving the problems faced in music education. At the end of the symposium, a conclusion was reached on the need and potential for including the music of all periods from Western art music, authentic non-Western folk music, and jazz in music education at all levels (Palisca, 1964). A few years later, in 1967, at the Tanglewood symposium the role of music in the social education system was evaluated, and a declaration was issued on the importance of education for the development of an individual's creativity and building her/his identity. Here the contribution of musicis significant. As an integral part of education and as a field of art, it has a major influence on a person's social, psychological, and physiological needs in the lifelong search for one's identity and self-realization.

The conclusion of this Symposium is extremely important for intercultural music education, as it states that the music of all periods, styles, forms, and cultures belongs in the curriculum and that the music repertoire should be expanded to popular teenage and avant-garde music, American folk music, and music of other cultures (Choate, 1967). The 1990s saw a declinein the quality of education owing to numerous economic restrictions in society, which also affected education. Therefore, in 1994, standards for dance, music, theatre, and visual arts were adopted under the name National Standards for Arts Education (1994). In the nineties, numerous articles were published that presented the music cultures of various nations with instructions to music teachers for their use in teaching. One of the greatest values of these publications was the contribution to raising the awareness of music teachers about the importance of observing music from a global perspective (Kraus, 1966).

The goal of intercultural music education is to develop students' sensitivity, understanding, and respect for cultures that are different from their own (Dobrota, 2012). In order for children to acquire intercultural competence, it is necessary to offer teachers intercultural training and education. Chen & Starosta (1996, 2000) developed a model of intercultural communication competences that encourages interactive opportunities such as respect, acceptance, recognition, tolerance, and integration of cultural differences. This model of intercultural communication competences comprises three inextricably linked dimensions: intercultural efficiency, intercultural awareness, and intercultural sensitivity. All three together contribute significantly to establishing more effective communication, especially in culturally diverse societies (Portalla & Chen, 2010). Chen & Starosta list six key determinants of an interculturally sensitive person: self-esteem, self-monitoring, open-mindedness, empathy, interaction involvement, and non-judgment. These six determinants significantly contributed to the creation of the *Intercultural Sensitivity Scale* (ISS), developed by Chen & Starosta (2000). The scale consists of twenty-four statements that examine five factors of intercultural sensitivity: respect for cultural differences, interaction involvement, interaction security, interaction enjoyment, and interaction attention. Based on the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale, Portalla & Chen (2010) developed the *Intercultural Effectiveness Scale* (IES), based on twenty questions and measuring six factors: interaction respect, behavioural flexibility, interaction relaxation, interaction management, messaging skills and identity retention.

Given that intercultural efficiency is only one of the three dimensions of intercultural communication competence, there is still much room for future research on the relation between intercultural efficiency, intercultural sensitivity, and intercultural awareness (Portalla & Chen, 2010).

Musical preferences

The term preferences (Latin *praeferre* – to lead, give preference, appreciate more, like more) is often used in musical terminology when describing attitudes towards a certain type of music and defining musical taste. The term *taste* here covers long-term behaviour in the form of aesthetic evaluation as the totality of all preferences of an individual, while individual preferences are seen as an expression of short-term liking (Mirković Radoš, 2010). Factors influencing musical preferences are numerous and can be classified into several groups: cognitive factors, emotional factors, physiological arousal, cultural and social factors, music repetition and familiarity, music characteristics, and listener characteristics.

Cognitive factors relate to the instrumental use of music and describe the relation between an individual's needs, beliefs, personality, and her/his choice of music. According to researchers, the cognitive functions of listening to music are classified into communication (expressing one's own values, receiving information or contacting others) and self-reflection (Arnett, 1995; Larson, 1995; as cited in Dobrota & Reić Ercegovac, 2016). Emotional factors are extremely important because a person listens to music precisely to revive and awaken her/his own emotions, express them, and maintain good mood (Juslin & Laukka, 2004; Larson, 1995; as cited in Dobrota & Reić Ercegovac, 2016). Physiological arousal is for the most part considered pleasant. While listening to music, physical experiences can be demonstrated by measurable variables such as changes in heart rate or blood pressure, but also by additional subjective experiences (Craig, 2005; Krumhansl, 1997; as cited in Dobrota & Reić Ercegovac, 2016). Cultural and social factors influence the development of musical preferences by allowing an individual to express her/his personality, identity, or culture through music, as well as to understand these in other people (Rentfrow & Gosling, 2003). Repetition and familiarity of music have a positive linear relationship with musical preferences, because getting to know a certain composition affects the formation of a positive attitude towards the piece (Dobrota, 2016).

The characteristics of music are a factor that actually builds musical preferences, and their importance lies in assessing a piece of music through elements of tempo, rhythm, pitch, harmony, and dynamics. In a composition, moderate volume and tempo are preferred, as well as the optimal level of complexity and a medium level of familiarity (Dobrota & Reić Ercegovac, 2016). Listener characteristics are the factor that scholars have most often explored when studying musical preferences. Listener characteristics include age, gender, personality, and musical experience (Dobrota, 2016).

A milestone in the research of musical preferences was the study by Rentfrow & Gosling (2003), who explored the influence of personality traits on musical preferences, using a measurement instrument called the Short Test of Music Preferences (STOMP). A factor analysis of the results revealed four factors that coincide with different personality traits: reflexive and complex (jazz, blues, classical and folk music); intense and rebellious (rock, heavy metal and alternative music); upbeat and conventional (religious, pop and film music); and energetic and rhythmic (rap/hip-hop, soul/funk and electronic/dance music). The reflexive and complex style in the preference of introverts, and the personality traits with which it is in a positive relationship include openness to experience, self-perception of intelligence, verbal skills, and political liberalism, while it stands in a negative relationshipwith the orientation of social domination and athleticism. The intense and rebellious style is positively associated with openness to new experiences, athleticism, self-perception of intelligence, and verbal skills. The upbeat and conventional style is in a positive relationship with extraversion, comfort, conscientiousness, self-perception of physical attractiveness and athleticism, while it is negatively correlated with openness to experiences, orientation of social domination, liberalism, and verbal skills. The energetic and rhythmic style is positively correlated with extraversion, comfort, liberalism, self-perception of attractiveness, athleticism and striving for quick and emotional response, while it is negatively correlated with conservatism and orientation of social domination (Dobrota & Reić Ercegovac, 2016).

The two best known theoretical models of musical preference show that preferences for a musical genre are strongly determined by an interplay of many factors. The first model is the Interactive Theory of Musical Preferences (LeBlanc, 1981), which presents a hierarchy of variables important for the formation of an individual's musical preferences. The variables are divided into lower levels (levels 4-8) and higher levels (levels 1-3). Those on the lower levels are called impact variables, while higher-level variables represent the response to impact variables.

Lower-level variables include listener characteristics such as auditory sensitivity, musical skill, music instruction, personality, gender, ethnicity, socioeconomic status, the listener's affective state, physiological conditions, and cultural factors such as media, peers, family, and education. Variables at higher levels include accepting or rejecting information, exploring stimuli and/or the environment, repeated listening, increased attention and awareness, processing in the listener's brain, deciding on preferences, etc. (Dobrota & Maslov, 2015). Another model of musical preferences is the Reciprocal Feedback Model of Musical Response (Hargreaves, Miell, & MacDonald, 2005), in which the authors attempted to group different factors (age, gender, personality, music education, musical ability, socioeconomic status, environment, and media) into three groups affecting musical preferences: music, listener, and the situation in which the listener finds herself/himself. The model is called reciprocal because each of the three basic factors can simultaneously affect the other two, and their influences are two-way (North & Hargreaves, 2008). Both models can serve as a starting point in the study of musical preferences. Yet there are drawbacks, as they do not provide an answer to the question why people prefer certain musical styles, or why they listen to music at all (Dobrota & Maslov, 2015).
In this paper, we will explore the relation between intercultural sensitivity and world music preferences in grammar and vocational school students, taking into account previous research.

The research: The relation between intercultural sensitivity and world music preferences

Research objective, problems, and hypotheses

The research objective is to explore how the participants' type of secondary education influences the level of intercultural sensitivity and *world music* preferences, as well as to analyse the connection between intercultural sensitivity and *world music* preferences.

In accordance with the above objectives, the following research problems were defined:

1. to examine whether the participants' type of secondary education influences the level of their intercultural sensitivity.
2. to examine whether the participants' type of secondary education influences the *world music* preferences.
3. to examine whether there is a connection between intercultural sensitivity and *world music* preferences.

4. to examine whether there is a connection between music familiarity and preferences for music fragments.

Based on the defined research objectives and problems, the following hypotheses were developed:

H1: Students attending the final years of grammar schools show a higher level of intercultural sensitivity compared to their peers in vocational schools.

H2: Students attending the final years of grammar schoolsshow greater *world music* preferences compared to their peers in vocational schools.

H3: Participants who show a higher level of intercultural sensitivity also show greater *world music* preferences.

H4: Participants show greater preference for familiar music fragments.

Research method

Participants

The study was conducted in Split on a sample of 124 participants (F = 86, M = 38) including fourth-year students attending the First Grammar School with the Language Program (N = 62) and fourth-year students attending the School of Fine Arts (N = 62) (Table 1).

Table 1. The sample structure (N = 124)

GENDER	N	SCHOOL TYPE	N
M	38	grammar school students	62
F	86	vocationalschool students	62
Total	124		

The research instrument and procedure

For this study, a three-part questionnaire was constructed. The first part contains questions related to the socio-demographic characteristics of the participants (gender and type of school). The second part of the questionnaire is the *Intercultural Sensitivity Scale* (Chen & Starosta, 1996; 2000), which contains 24 statements. Each statement is accompanied by a rating scale ranging from 1 to 5 (1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree). Chen & Starosta (1996; 2000) obtained five factors of intercultural sensitivity: trust (statements 3, 4, 5, 6, 10), enjoyment (statements 9, 12, 15), respect (statements 2, 7, 8, 16, 18, 20), engagement (statements 1, 11, 13, 21, 22, 23, 24) and attention (statements 14, 17, 19).

The psychometric characteristics of the scale are shown in Table 2. Since the distribution of the total results does not differ significantly from the normal distribution, the procedures of parametric statistics will be applied in further analyses.

Table 2. The psychometric characteristics of the *Intercultural Sensitivity Scale*

Statement no.	**Statement**
1.	I enjoy interacting with people from other cultures.
2.	I think people from other cultures are narrow-minded.
3.	I am quite self-confident when interacting with people from other cultures.
4.	I find it very difficult to speak in front of people from other cultures.
5.	I always know what to say when interacting with people from other cultures.
6.	When interacting with people from other cultures, I can be as friendly as I want to be.
7.	I do not like being with people from other cultures.
8.	I respect the values of people from other cultures.
9.	I get upset easily when interacting with people from other cultures.
10.	I feel safe when interacting with people from other cultures.
11.	I do not usually form an opinion at first glance about interlocutors from other cultures.
12.	I often become discouraged when I am with people from other cultures.
13.	I approach people from other cultures without prejudice.
14.	I am very considerate in interacting with people from other cultures.
15.	I often feel useless when interacting with people from other cultures.
16.	I respect the ways people from other cultures behave.
17.	I try to get as much information as possible from interaction with people from other cultures.
18.	I would not accept the opinion of people from other cultures.
19.	I am sensitive to unclear meanings in interaction with a person from another culture.
20.	I think my culture is better than other cultures.
21.	I often give safe answers in interaction with a person from another culture.
22.	I avoid situations where I will have to deal with people from other cultures.
23.	I often show my understanding using verbal or non-verbal signs to an interlocutor from another culture.
24.	I enjoy the differences between me and my interlocutor from another culture.
Cronbach α	0.86
M (sd)	95.05 (11.21)
Range	64-116
Average r amongparticles	0.21
K-S d	0.07, p>0.05

For the purposes of the research, a CD was made consisting of 15 fragments of world music, each lasting 30 seconds. The musical preferences questionnaire, constructed for the purposes of this research, consists of 15 rating scales ranging from 1 to 5 (1 = I do not like it at all, 5 = I really like it), and next to each rating scale there is a number referring to the music fragment. The psychometric characteristics of the scale are shown in Table 3. Since the distribution of the total results does not differ significantly from the normal distribution, the procedures of parametric statistics will be applied in further analyses. Participation in the study was voluntary and anonymous, taking place in groups, during regular classes.

Table 3. Psychometric characteristics of the *Musical Preferences Questionnaire*

Music fragment no.	**Music fragment**
1.	AyubOgada (Kenya): Kothbiro
2.	Ernest Ranglin (Jamaica): Below the Bassline
3.	Cafe' Tacuba (Mexico): Esanoche
4.	Los tradicionales de Carlos Puebla (Cuba): Dilema
5.	Juan Carlos Urena (Costa Rica): Este Son
6.	Julian Avalos (Peru): Guajira Bonita
7.	Hawaii – Aloha oe
8.	Irish tavern music
9.	Makedonsko devojče
10.	Ricardo Lemvo & Makin Loca (Congo): La Milonga de Ricardo en Cha-cha-cha
11.	Claudia Gomez (Colombia): Soltarlo
12.	Susana Baca (Peru): Maria Lando
13.	Thomas Mapfumo (Zimbabwe): Hanzvadzi
14.	Samite (Uganda): Wasuze Otya
15.	Zorba – Sirtaki (traditional Greek music)
Cronbach α	0.82
M (sd)	51.96 (8.43)
range	35-70
average r among particles	0.24
K-S d	0.07, p>0.05

Table 4 shows the average degree of music fragment preferences. The participants rated the composition *Zorba – Sirtaki* (traditional Greek music) with the highest marks, and the composition Claudia Gomez (Colombia): *Soltarlo* with the lowest marks.

Table 4. The average degree of music fragment preferences

Music sample	M	min.	max.	SD
Ayub Ogada (Kenya): Kothbiro	3.19	1.00	5.00	1.11
Ernest Ranglin (Jamaica): Below the Bassline	3.68	1.00	5.00	1.09
Cafe' Tacuba (Mexico): Esanoche	3.98	1.00	5.00	0.99
Los tradicionales de Carlos Puebla (Cuba): Dilema	3.43	1.00	5.00	1.25
Juan Carlos Urena (Costa Rica): Este Son	3.54	1.00	5.00	1.02
Julian Avalos (Peru): Guajira Bonita	3.60	1.00	5.00	1.09
Hawaii – Aloha oe	3.65	1.00	5.00	1.21
Irish tavern music	3.44	1.00	5.00	1.11
Makedonsko devojče	3.81	1.00	5.00	0.90
Ricardo Lemvo & Makin Loca (Congo): La Milonga de Ricardo en Cha-cha-cha	3.81	2.00	5.00	0.98
Claudia Gomez (Colombia): Soltarlo	2.21	1.00	5.00	1.05
Susana Baca (Peru): Maria Lando	3.22	1.00	5.00	1.13
Thomas Mapfumo (Zimbabwe): Hanzvadzi	2.81	1.00	5.00	1.04
Samite (Uganda): Wasuze Otya	3.21	1.00	5.00	0.97
Zorba – Sirtaki (traditional Greek music)	4.39	1.00	5.00	0.90

Results and discussion

H1: Students attending the final year of grammar schools show a higher level of intercultural sensitivity compared to their peers in vocational schools.

To analyse the impact of the type of secondary education on the level of intercultural sensitivity of the participants, a t-test was calculated. The results confirm the existence of a significant difference in the level of intercultural sensitivity among grammar and vocational school students, with vocational school students showing a higher level of intercultural sensitivity (Table 5). This led us to reject the first hypothesis.

From the second year, students attending the School of Fine Arts in Split can choose one of the following professions: graphic design, sculpture design, photo design, painting design, industrial design, or clothing design. It is possible that it was the education factor that influenced the shaping of their intercultural sensitivity.

In addition, the results of numerous studies confirm that *openness to new experiences*, as one of the personality traits from the Five Factor Model, is a significant predictor of preferences for different types of art, including the fine arts (Feist & Brady, 2004).

Table 5. The differences in intercultural sensitivity with regard to school type

	M Grammar school students	**M** Vocational school students	**t**	**df**	**p**
Level of intercultural sensitivity	3.88	4.05	2.04	122	0.04

H2: Students attending the final year of grammar schools show greater world music preferences compared to their peers in vocational schools.

To examine the impact of the type of high school education on *world music* preferences, the t-test was recalculated (Table 6). The results indicate an absence of differences between grammar school students and vocational school students, thus rejecting the set hypothesis.

Dobrota & Reić Ercegovac (2014) point out that music education and personality traits are significant predictors of musical preferences. Howard (2018) emphasizes the significant role of well-designed music classes, which can shape children's understanding of historical, cultural and democratic processes, i.e., the socio-cultural context in which *world music* is created and performed. Kim & Yoon (2016) also point out that teaching music positively influences student attitudes towards *world music.*

In this study, both grammar school and vocational school students had been attending Music education classes for four or two years. It is possible that those classes had a positive impact on both groups of participants in terms of increasing *world music*preferences.

Table 6. The differences in world music preferences with respect to the type of secondary education

	M Grammar school students	**M** Vocational school students	**t**	**df**	**P**
World music preferences	3.39	3.52	1.33	121	0.19

H3: Participants who show a higher level of intercultural sensitivity also show greater world music preferences.

To examine the relation between the level of intercultural sensitivity and *world music* preferences, we calculated a correlation between the overall result for intercultural sensitivity and the overall result of musical preferences. The obtained correlation value is significant and amounts to 0.20 ($p < 0.05$), which confirms the hypothesis. The results are consistent with the research of Dobrota (2016), who examined the relation between students' intercultural attitudes and their *world music* preferences. The results confirm the connection between some aspects of intercultural attitudes and *world music* preferences. Choi (2010) and Fung (1994) also note that *world music* preferences are positively correlated with participants' intercultural attitudes.

H4: Participants show greater preference for familiar music fragments.

Table 7. The relation between music familiarity and world music preferences

Music sample	**Correlation between familiarity with the music sample and *world music* preferences**
Ayub Ogada (Kenya): Kothbiro	0.20*
Ernest Ranglin (Jamaica): Below the Bassline	0.11
Cafe' Tacuba (Mexico): Esanoche	0.37*
Los tradicionales de Carlos Puebla (Cuba): Dilema	0.15
Juan Carlos Urena (Costa Rica): Este Son	0.23*
Julian Avalos (Peru): Guajira Bonita	0.24*
Hawaii – Aloha oe	0.45*
Irish tavern music	0.16
Makedonsko devojče	0.25*
Ricardo Lemvo& Makin Loca (Congo): La Milonga de Ricardo en Cha-cha-cha	0.13
Claudia Gomez (Colombia): Soltarlo	0.34*
Susana Baca (Peru): Maria Lando	0.25*
Thomas Mapfumo (Zimbabwe): Hanzvadzi	0.12
Samite (Uganda): Wasuze Otya	0.13
Zorba – Sirtaki (traditional Greek music)	0.18*

*p<0.05

To determine whether being familiar with the pieces of music affects the preference for music fragments, correlations between familiarity and musical preferences were calculated (Table 7). The existence of such correlations was observed for nine music samples, thus confirming the last hypothesis.
The results of a number of studies (Carper, 2001; Dobrota & Sabljić, 2018; Getz, 1966; Peery & Peery, 1986) confirm the connection between musical preferences and music familiarity, because repeated exposure to music increases its understanding, and thus increases listeners' musical preference. On a sample of primary school students attending Grades 3, 4 and 5, Siebenaler (1999) also observed a connection between familiarity with children's songs and liking them.

Conclusion

The beginning of the 21st century was marked by the development of digital technology, and the increasing availability of music from different parts of the world poses new challenges to music teachers in terms of teaching methods. Music education requires the integration of music belonging to other peoples. Contemporary music pedagogy suggests creating a new, dynamic, intercultural music education for the 21st century, one that expands and deepens our understanding of learning and teaching by reflecting the balance between established traditions and innovation, while listening to the needs of the community and students. Therefore, it is extremely important to start developing good interaction with and a positive attitude towards other cultures in society as early as possible. The teaching process, as well as the competences of students who participate in it, can be improved by introducing intercultural education (Topić, 2010). Accepting and studying the music of other cultures enable us to become aware of the quality of the music of our own culture (Dobrota, 2012). Creating quality communication with students from different cultures requires having a developed awareness of our own culture and being ready to accept, tolerate and respect other cultures (Bedeković, 2015).
Intercultural music education enables students to acquire new musical experiences and connect these with previous ones, which is why it is considered a particularly important part of education. It is not necessary to ask students to reject previous knowledge, but to build on the already acquired knowledge a positive attitude towards the music of different cultures and thus become more open to varied experiences and values, and reject stereotypes based on gender, age, religion, politics, nationality, and physical or mental abilities.

Through cultural interaction and the diversity of musical experiences, people become richer, better educated, and more satisfied. It is music education that leads to the full realization of a person, which makes it invaluable for the musical development of an individual (Dobrota, 2012).

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REVIJA ZA ELEMENTARNO IZOBRAŽEVANJE
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POMEN UZAVEŠČANJA NAREČNEGA BESEDJA PRI UČEČIH SE

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Izvleček/Abstract

Slovar slovenskega knjižnega jezika (2014, *SSKJ²*) uporablja sedem vrst kvalifikatorjev, od katerih je za pričujoči prispevek pomemben stilno-zvrstni kvalifikator *nar.* (*narečno*), razširjen s kvalifikatorskim pojasnilom *vzhodno*. V *SSKJ²* je tako označenih 414 iztočnic, od teh bodo pregledane glagolske iztočnice, teh je 98, in primerjane z glagoli iz Rajhovega gradiva za narečni slovar *Gúčati po antùjoško* (2010) ter s *Slovenskim pravopisom* (*SP* 2001). Poudariti želimo pomen vključenosti (še) prisotnega narečnega besedja v normativne priročnike ter pomen njihove označitve s kvalifikatorji za delo v šolski praksi (učencev/dijakov/študentov in učiteljev), v medijih (lektorjev), pri prevajanju idr.

The Importance of Dialect Awareness among Learners

The Dictionary of Standard Slovenian Language (*SSKJ* 2014) uses seven types of labels (qualifiers). The present article focuses on the style-genre label *nar.* (*dialectal*), further specified as *vzhodno* (*eastern*). There are 414 entries so labelled in the *SSKJ²*. This survey will focus on verbs only (98), labelled as *dialectal eastern* in the *SSKJ²*, comparing them to those found in Rajh's material for his dialectal dictionary of Prlekija dialect G*účati po antùjoško* (2010), as well as in *The Slovenian Orthography* (*Slovenski pravopis* – *SP* 2001). The aim is to point out the importance of incorporating the current dialectal vocabulary into the normative manuals, as well as the importance of their labelling being a great help for teachers, language editors, translators, etc.

Ključne besede:
slovenski jezik, narečje, kvalifikatorji, narečno vzhodno, glagol, *Slovar slovenskega knjižnega jezika²*, *Slovenski pravopis, Gúčati po antùjoško*

Keywords:
Slovenian language, dialect, dictionary labels, eastern dialect, verb, *The Dictionary of Standard Slovenian Language²*, *The Slovenian Orthography, Gúčati po antùjoško*

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Uvod

Jezikoslovci ugotavljajo, da se odnos govorcev do neknjižnega jezika v zadnjih letih spreminja, prav tako se odpravlja negativna konotacija do neknjižnih zvrsti v različnih sporazumevalnih okoliščinah in govornih položajih. Znanje lokalnega govora – mnogim predstavlja neko izkaznico, odraz identitete – na eni in knjižnega na drugi strani pojmujejo kot prednost. Poudarjajo kompleksnost vpliva narečij, ki se kaže tudi v jeziku javnega nastopanja. Prav tako mediji in popularna kultura (radio, televizija, gledališče, uglasbena besedila) kot leposlovno ustvarjanje oživljajo znanje narečja, ga vrednotijo kot prednost krepitve lokalne skupnosti in regije, to pa je v pestrosti jezikov Evropske unije nadvse pomembno; hkrati pa poudarjajo znanje knjižnega jezika kot prednost za širšo komunikacijo, ki omogoča, da se govorec izogne provincializmu (Valh Lopert 2013, Valh Lopert in Koletnik 2018). Izbira jezikovne zvrsti pa je nedvomno odvisna od okoliščin, v katerih se človek potrjuje kot družbeno bitje. Z narečjeslovnimi raziskavami v slovenskem okolju v zadnjih letih to tudi dokazujeta avtorici Pulko in Zemljak Jontes (2015) (tudi že Kenda Jež (2004), Skubic (2005), Jan (2007), Smole (2007), Zorko (2009), Zemljak Jontes in Pulko (2011), Valh Lopert (2015), Valh Lopert in Koletnik (2018) idr.), ki sta opravili pregled didaktičnih vidikov poučevanja jezika v različnih programih izobraževanja – v učnih načrtih in učbeniških gradivih za osnovno šolo in gimnazije. V analizo sta tako vključili skupino mladostnikov, starih od 12 do 24 let (osnovno- in srednješolce ter študente), ki v klasičnih dialektoloških študijah (načeloma) niso informatorji, in analizirali njihov odnos do neknjižnega v jeziku. V ugotovitvah izpostavljata (prav tam: 131), da se mladi "[...] dobro zavedajo pomena izbire ustreznega, primernega izraza glede na okoliščine sporočanja in glede na govorni položaj".

O pomenu upoštevanja narečnega govora pri usvajanju knjižnega jezika v osnovni šoli je pisala že dialektologinja akademikinja Zorko (2009: 342):
"Govor je sredstvo, s katerim otrok vzpostavlja socialne stike z okoljem, torej tudi z učiteljem in sošolci v osnovni šoli. Če prihaja iz izrazito narečno govorečega okolja, je narečje njegov materni jezik, ki se ga nauči s posnemanjem. [...] Pri uporabi in razumevanju knjižnega jezika na razredni stopnji imajo narečni otroci težave, čeprav prinesejo odprtost za komunikacijo in zgovornost že od doma. Z velikim veseljem pripovedujejo o svojih izkustvih in doživetjih vse do trenutka, ko od njih zahtevamo, da govorijo v knjižnem jeziku."

Slovenski narečni prostor se po Logaju in Riglerju (Karta 1983, 2016; tudi Logar 1993) deli na sedem narečnih skupin (gorenjska, dolenjska, štajerska, panonska, koroška, primorska, rovtarska). Učni načrti za slovenski jezik tako v osnovni kot v srednji šoli obsegajo tudi spoznavanje socialnozvrstne delitve slovenskega jezika in uzaveščanje rabe knjižnih in neknjižnih različic tako v govoru in pisanju. Zato predstavljena analiza narečnega gradiva lahko pripomore k usvajanju narečnega od osnovne šole vse do rabe v poklicih, povezanih z raziskovanjem ali rabo narečij, kot so film, gledališče, radio ...

Med knjižnimi in neknjižnimi socialnimi zvrstmi slovenskega jezika

Slovenski jezik se po Toporišiču (2000: 13) deli na snope ali zvrsti: socialne, funkcijske, prenosniške, časovne ali zgodovinske in mernostne. Zanimajo nas socialne zvrsti, ki se delijo na dve nadzvrsti, na knjižni jezik (za sporazumevanje na celotnem slovenskem ozemlju in ima vsenarodnostno ter narodnoreprezentativno vlogo) in na neknjižnega. Knjižni se deli na zbornega in splošno- ali knjižnopogovornega (manj stroga oblika govorjenega knjižnega jezika); neknjižni jezik pa na t. i. zemljepisna narečja in na pokrajinske pogovorne jezike, ki so nekaka nadnarečja več zemljepisnih narečij.

Poskus drugačnega pogleda srečamo pri dialektologinji Smole (2004), ki ponuja delitev socialnih zvrsti na *sistemske* (knjižni jezik, narečni krajevni govor) in *nesistemske* (vse druge), izpostavlja pa osnovni protipol *naravni* (narečni krajevni govor) in *normirani* (knjižni) jezik, vmes pa razvršča vse druge zvrsti (prav tam: 323–324):

> "S tega vidika imamo torej dve sistemski pojavni obliki slovenskega jezika: na eni strani naravni narečni (krajevni govor), na drugi normirani knjižni, na premico (in stopnice) med njima pa je mogoče uvrstiti vso množico različic pogovornega jezika [...]."
>
> Avtorica dodaja (prav tam):
>
> "[...] neposredno ob obeh sistemskih zvrsteh sem označila različke s še dopustno stopnjo odstopanja od sistema, npr. knjižno pogovorno zvrst ob zbornem jeziku in pogovorni jezik blizu krajevnemu govoru."

Skubic (2005) predstavlja delitev na t. i. sociolekte (govorice družbenih skupin) in uvaja različne vloge jezika s poudarkom na jeziku kot sredstvu človekove identifikacije. Nasprotno od dialektologije, ki deli narečja glede na geografska merila, Skubic (prav tam: 33) vpeljuje delitev na osnovi "distribucij jezikovnih razlik v družbi", v tem primeru izhaja iz definicije, da gre za govorce, katerih skupnosti so "[...] majhne in geografsko ločene druga od druge [...]", zato so "[...] govori fonetično zelo diferencirani [...]"; imenuje jih obrobni sociolekti podeželja. Dodati velja, da vendar narečna govorica ni značilna le za "[...] kmete, kmečko delavstvo in drugo manj izobraženo prebivalstvo podeželja [...]", kot piše isti avtor (prav tam: 207). Mnogim namreč predstavlja narečje neko izkaznico, odraz identitete. To izkazujejo tudi analize narečja kot izraza identitete v medijih (Valh Lopert in Koletnik, 2011; Valh Lopert, 2015). zelo malo je namreč tistih, pri katerih ne zaznamo vpliva lokalnega govora, in sicer celo pri profesionalnih govorcih – profesorjih, novinarjih, javnih kulturnih delavcih. Kljub temu da mnogi govorijo o zlitju narečij s knjižnim jezikom ali celo o izginotju narečij zaradi izginjanja ruralne kulture, se kaže, da mnogi govorci ne le ohranjajo svojo jezikovno strukturo, ampak jo celo zavestno gojijo in kultivirajo, kot ugotavlja tudi Kenda Jež (2004: 263–276).

Uzaveščanje o socialni zvrstnosti slovenskega jezika v učnih načrtih za osnovno in srednjo šolo

Izpostavljamo (samo) operativne cilje iz učnih načrtov, ki so za prenos obravnavanega v prispevku pomembni v osnovni in srednji šoli.

Učni načrt za osnovno šolo (dalje UN OŠ 2018) za področje slovenskega jezika navaja, da:

1. v prvem vzgojno-izobraževalnem obdobju (prav tam: 9–12):
   - *Učenci in učenke opazujejo, primerjajo, prepoznavajo in poimenujejo oz. opisujejo: poimenovalne in izgovorne razlike med knjižnim in neknjižnim jezikom, ki ga govorijo, ter okoliščine za rabo knjižnega in neknjižnega jezika.*
   - *Učenci in učenke razvijajo pravorečno zmožnost: povedo, po čem se njihova neknjižna izreka loči od knjižne; med govornim nastopanjem skušajo govoriti čim bolj knjižno in razločno; prepoznajo svojo in tujo neknjižno izreko ter besede izgovorijo knjižno.*
   - *Učenci in učenke razvijajo slogovno zmožnost: v svojih besedilih in v besedilih drugih prepoznavajo neustrezne (npr. neknjižne) besede in besedne zveze ter jih zamenjajo z ustreznejšimi (npr. knjižnimi) sopomenkami*

- *Učenci/učenke razumejo in uporabljajo naslednje jezikoslovne izraze: knjižni in neknjižni jezik*;

2. v drugem vzgojno-izobraževalnem obdobju (prav tam: 19–24):

- *Učenci in učenke opazujejo, primerjajo, prepoznavajo in poimenujejo oz. opisujejo: okoliščine za rabo knjižnega (zbornega) in neknjižnega jezika.*
- *Učenci in učenke razvijajo pravorečno zmožnost: povedo, po čem se njihova neknjižna izreka loči od knjižne; med govornimi nastopi skušajo govoriti čim bolj knjižno in razločno; prepoznajo svojo in tujo neknjižno izreko ter besede izgovorijo knjižno.*
- *Učenci in učenke razvijajo slogovno zmožnost: v svojih besedilih in v besedilih drugih prepoznavajo neustrezne (npr. neknjižne) besede in besedne zveze ter jih zamenjajo z ustreznejšimi (npr. knjižnimi) sopomenkami*;

3. v tretjem vzgojno-izobraževalnem obdobju (prav tam: 32–38):

- *Učenci in učenke opazujejo, primerjajo, prepoznavajo, poimenujejo oz. predstavljajo: razločevalne lastnosti zbornega jezika, knjižnega pogovornega jezika, svojega narečja oz. pokrajinskega pogovornega jezika in najstniškega slenga ter ustrezne okoliščine za rabo teh jezikovnih zvrsti.*
- *Učenci in učenke razvijajo pravorečno zmožnost: vadijo in utrjujejo knjižno izreko besed, povedi in besedil; prepoznajo svojo in tujo neknjižno izreko ter besede izgovorijo knjižno; kadar so v zadregi, si pomagajo z ustreznimi jezikovnimi priročniki v knjižni in elektronski obliki.*
- *Učenci in učenke razumejo, predstavijo, uporabljajo in ponazarjajo naslednje izraze: knjižni zborni jezik, knjižni pogovorni jezik, narečje.*

Učni načrt za srednjo šolo v gimnazijah (splošna, klasična in strokovna) (dalje UN SŠ 2008) za področje slovenskega jezika navaja, da dijaki/dijakinje:

- *razvijajo jezikovno, slogovno in metajezikovno zmožnost v slovenskem knjižnem jeziku* (prav tam: 6);
- socialnozvrstna pestrost slovenskega jezika je zajeta v dikciji, da dijaki/dijakinje *razvijajo razumevanje v slovenščini v raznih okoliščinah, prepoznavajo jezikovne zvrsti in jim določajo ustrezne okoliščine sporočanja, uporabljajo okoliščinam ustrezne jezikovne zvrsti ter izražajo mnenje o ustreznosti jezikovnih zvrsti pri drugih govorcih* (prav tam: 14);

– dokaže pravorečne zmožnosti, tako da: *med govornim nastopom govori knjižno; izgovori dano besedo/poved neknjižno in knjižno, primerja oba izgovora in opiše knjižni izgovor; našteje knjižne glasnike in jih primerja z neknjižnimi* (*iz svojega narečja/neknjižnega pogovornega jezika* (prav tam: 36).

Umestitev analiziranega besedja v narečno bazo

Kot osnova analize nam služi stilno-zvrstni kvalifikator *nar.* (*narečno*), razširjen s kvalifikatorskim pojasnilom *vzhodno*, vendar terminologija tudi zgodovinsko gledano zaradi različnih razvojnih političnoupravnih in geografskih delitev ter narečnih umestitev ni usklajena. O tem piše tudi Toporišič (2000: 24) in navaja:

> "Zemljepisna narečja se ne skladajo zmeraj s pokrajinskimi pojmi, kot so Štajerska, Primorska, Dolenjska, Gorenjska itd. […] [T]udi Slovenske gorice so na Štajerskem, vendar njih govorica po večjem pripada panonski narečni skupini."

Ramovš (1935: 170) deli "panonsko dialektično bazo" na "goričanski, prleški in prekmurski dialekt", značilnosti vseh treh narečij pa predstavlja pod "*Severovzhodna štajerska dialektična skupina*". Na *Karti slovenskih narečij* (2016) Logar in Rigler (1983) vse te dialekte imenujeta "panonska narečna skupina". Zorko (1994: 330) postavlja razmejitev "vzhodno od črte Šentilj–Maribor–Zlatoličje–Polskava–Pragersko–Majšperk–Donačka gora–Macelj", temelječ na Logarjevi delitvi iz 1983, in uvršča narečja na drugi strani te meje "[...] v panonsko narečno skupino, ki jo sestavljajo prekmursko, goričansko, prleško in haloško narečje, vsako z več podnarečji in govori". Zorko poudarja tudi (2005: 777–791), da na meji med štajersko in panonsko narečno skupino prihaja do medsebojnih jezikovnih vplivov zlasti v glasovnem razvoju ter da so na obravnavane govore vplivala stična narečja. V raziskavi ohranja še poimenovanje "goričansko" narečje, kot so ga poimenovali Ramovš ter Logar in Rigler. Leta 1995 je Bregant (zdaj Koletnik 2001: 38) na osnovi lastnih raziskav goričansko narečje preimenovala v slovenskogoriško narečje.

Za geografsko omejitev smo kvalifikator preverili tudi v Pleteršnikovem *Slovensko-nemškem slovarju* (1894–1895; 2006). Najbliže našemu iskalnemu kriteriju je kvalifikator, ki vsebuje "vzhodni", *vzhŠt.*, v pomenu "vzhod/ni/ del slov/enskega/ Štajerskega, kar ga je od Maribora na vzhodno stran".

Ta glede na meje, prikazane na zemljevidu v slovarju samem, označuje *vzhŠt.* prostor do Mure (2243 zadetkov).
Glede na geografsko lego Cerkvenjaka, tj. "od Maribora na vzhodno stran", je Rajhovo gradivo za prleški slovar *Gúčati po antùjoško* (2010) umeščeno v panonsko narečno skupino. Prispevek se osredinja zgolj na besedje, ne prinaša pa narečnih glasovnih značilnosti posameznih narečij znotraj panonske skupine, zato omenjamo (le) nekatere temeljne dialektološke raziskave, vezane na obravnavano tematiko Zorko (1998, 2009), Koletnik (2001, 2008, 2015), Rajh, 2002, 2011) idr.

Glagoli iz Rajhovega gradiva za prleški slovar *Gúčati po antùjoško* in stilno-zvrstni kvalifikatorji v SSKJ² in SP

Analiza prinaša vpogled v še prisotno severozahodnoprleško narečno besedje, njegovo vključenost v normativne priročnike ter pomen njihove označitve s kvalifikatorji. Prispevek predstavlja nadaljevanje raziskave Valh Lopert *Kvalifikator narečno vzhodno v SSKJ²* (2016), v kateri smo na osnovi iskalnega kriterija *nar. vzhodno* (stilno-zvrstni kvalifikator *nar.* (*narečno*), razširjen s kvalifikatorskim pojasnilom *vzhodno*) pregledali iztočnice v drugi, dopolnjeni in deloma prenovljeni izdaji *Slovarja slovenskega knjižnega jezika* 2014 (dalje *SSKJ²* – zapis z nadnapisano številko kot v: Perdih in Snoj, "SSKJ²", 2015.) Tako označenih iztočnic smo v *SSKJ²* našli 414, od tega (največ) 274 samostalnikov, 98 glagolov, 26 pridevnikov in 16 drugih besednih vrst (12 prislovov, po en zaimek, veznik, medmet in členek). Kot prva je bila izvedena vzorčna primerjava pojavnosti samostalnikov *nar. vzhodno* iz *SSKJ²* v *Slovenskem pravopisu* 2001 (dalje *SP*) in Rajhovem gradivu za narečni slovar *Gúčati po antùjoško* iz leta 2010 (dalje Rajh), pri čemer smo prišli do naslednjih ugotovitev: od 274 samostalniških iztočnic v *SSKJ²* je 130 ženskospolskih – od tega v *SP* potrjenih 33, pri Rajhu 76; 127 moškospolskih – v *SP* 39, pri Rajhu 47; 17 srednjespolskih – v *SP* trije, pri Rajhu šest (prav tam).
Osrednji, empirični del prispevka predstavlja primerjava pojavnosti glagolskih iztočnic z oznako *nar. vzhodno* iz *SSKJ²* z Rajhovim (2010) gradivom za narečni slovar severozahodnoprleškega govora in s *Slovenskim pravopisom* (*SP* 2001).
Pri primerjavi smo upoštevali pomensko prekrivne (čeprav oblikoglasno različne) iztočnice iz Rajhovega gradiva in *SSKJ²*, pri čemer se zavedamo, da gre za dva sistema, v katerih so potekale spremembe, saj gre v gradivu za drugačno glasovno in/ali pisno podobo besed.

V Uvodu v *SSKJ*² (§ 6) beremo, da *SSKJ*² "[...] hoče pokazati, katere besede so (bile) v navedenem obdobju v jeziku žive, kako se uporabljajo oziroma kako so se uporabljale, kakšno je frekvenčno razmerje med njimi in v kateri zvrsti ali stilni rabi jezika živijo". Prav to tudi želimo s člankom poudariti, in sicer pomen vključenosti (še) prisotnega narečnega besedja v normativne priročnike (v tem primeru *SSKJ*² in v *SP*). Namreč, kvalifikatorji, rabljeni v omenjenih priročnikih, predstavljajo zelo veliko pomoč pri delu učiteljev v razredu, prevajalcev, lektorjev v gledališču in pri filmu ter vseh, ki se pri svojem delu srečujejo z zvrstnostjo slovenskega jezika.

*SSKJ*² in sistem kvalifikatorjev

V drugi, dopolnjeni in deloma prenovljeni izdaji *SSKJ*² je zajeto, kot je bilo do sedaj, poleg knjižnega tudi neknjižno besedje. V Uvodu v *SSKJ*² (§ 2) je pojasnjeno, da so narečne besede v slovar vključene, če "[...] so močneje zastopane v zapisanem jeziku".

Vendar (prav tam: § 5) tudi beremo, da "[n]arečne besede, ki sicer v Pleteršnikovem slovarju so, [v *SSKJ*²], niso bile sprejete, če jih splošnejša oziroma širša narečna raba ni potrdila". Hajnšek - Holz (1997: 105–112) opozarja, "[...] da so v *SSKJ* sprejete le tiste narečne besede, ki jih potrjuje današnja knjižna raba (zlasti besede, ki so jih zapisali pomembni književni ustvarjalci), ne pa vse tiste narečne besede, ki so v Pleteršnikovem slovarju".

Ob pregledu kvalifikatorjev ugotavljamo, da je bil sistem kvalifikatorjev v *SSKJ*² glede na prvo izdajo *SSKJ* iz leta 2000 nekoliko spremenjen, "stilno-plastni" (*SSKJ* 2000, § 131–141) kvalifikatorji so bili preimenovani v "stilno-zvrstne". O tem pišeta tudi Perdih in Snoj (2015: str. 5–15), da so "[m]anjše spremembe" doživeli tudi kvalifikatorji.

*SSKJ*² (2014; Uvod § 96):

> "[z]a opredeljevanje besed, pomenov ali zvez slovar uporablja kvalifikatorje. To so pojasnila, ki povedo, v katero slovnično kategorijo spada beseda, jo opredeljujejo časovno oziroma krajevno, govorijo o njeni stilni uvrstitvi, razširjenosti in vrednosti ter nakazujejo preneseno ali posebno rabo. S tem kažejo na normo knjižnega jezika ali opozarjajo na razmerje do nje" in da "[b]rez upoštevanja kvalifikatorjev informacija o besedi ni popolna(§ 98)."

Poleg kvalifikatorjev *SSKJ*² uporablja še t. i. kvalifikatorsko pojasnilo (*SSKJ*² 2014; Uvod § 155), to je: "[...] kvalifikatorjem podobno, v daljši enoti izraženo opozorilo". Namen kvalifikatorskega pojasnila je, da (§ 156) "[...] dopolnjuje pomensko razlago; praviloma nakazuje okolje oziroma čas, v katerem pojem živi". Tako stilno-zvrstni kvalifikator *nar.* s kvalifikatorskim pojasnilom (tukaj *vzhodno*) (§ 138) "[...] kaže na širše ali ožje določeno področje rabe".

Rajhovo gradivo za severozahodnoprleški narečni slovar *Gúčati po antùjoško*

Z iskalnim kriterijem *nar. vzhodno* smo iz *SSKJ*² izpisali 98 glagolov in glagolske iztočnice primerjali s pojavnostjo v Rajhovem gradivu za severozahodnoprleški narečni slovar *Gúčati po antùjoško* (2010) in v *Slovenskem pravopisu* (*SP* 2001).

Rajh je leta 2010 izdal gradivo za slovar severozahodnoprleškega narečja *Gúčati po antùjoško*, ki obsega 293 strani in predstavlja dragocen popis še (bolj ali manj, vsaj v spominu) ohranjenega narečnega besedja, posebej zaradi večpomenskosti izrazja in ustreznih (znotrajjezikovnih) prevodov v knjižni jezik. Avtor ga tudi sam poimenuje "gradivo za narečni slovar", v katerem je zbral "/…/ splošno besedje /…/, torej besedni inventar, ki ga pri jezikovnem sporazumevanju (podeželski) narečni govorci uporabljajo za različna področja svojega življenja in dela /…/". Ime v naslovu slovarja izvira iz nekdanjega poimenovanja kraja Cerkvenjak, in sicer po gotski cerkvi v kraju. *Krajevni leksikon Slovenije* (1995: 100) o Cerkvenjaku podaja zelo skop opis:

> *"Razloženo naselje v osrčju Slovenskih goric leži na trikrakem slemenu med Pesniško in Ščavniško dolino. Središče je na kopastem vrhu slemena (341 m). /…/ Cerkvenjak je gospodarsko, upravno, kulturno in izobraževalno središče širšega območja. Vrh griča je vitka poznogotska župnijska cerkev sv. Antona Puščavnika iz prve polovice 16. stoletja. Cerkev je tu stala že v 13. stoletju in kraj, prvič omenjen leta 1460, je po njej dobil ime. Domačini naselje imenujejo tudi Sv. Anton."*

Rajh (2003: 118–134) je v prispevku predstavil "izbrani inventar severozahodnoprleškega besedja", kjer je poleg glasovnih posebnosti besed obravnaval besedje tudi glede na izvor. Najprej navaja slovansko avtohtono besedje, za katero velja, da "se lahko ponaša s svojo arhaičnostjo" – nekaj izbranih glagolov: *bǫ́:lti* 'godrnjati', *brǫ'diti* 'packati s hrano', *b'zi:kati* 'brizgati', *d'ri:fati* 'spati', *g'ri:vati* 'skrbeti, vznemirjati', *kǫ'lẹxati* 'grdo padati', *k'ri:kati* 'vriskati' *'mi:lti se* 'biti žal', *'mu:fti* 'godrnjati', *pǫš'kẹ:titi se* 'ponesrečiti se, ne uspeti' itd.

Rajh v nadaljevanju podaja pregled prevzetega besedja, ki je večinoma nemško, povzema ga iz svojega članka *Glagoli v severozahodnoprleškem govoru* (2006: 399–406), zato etimologije dodatno nismo preverjali po Snojevem ali Bezlajevem etimološkem slovarju. Nekaj izbranih glagolov: *'bu:xnți* 'planiti, zagoreti', *'cikņți* 'skisati se', *'fa:jntati* 'ne marati', *fț'günti si* 'privoščiti si', *'lǫ:diti* 'mamiti, napeljevati', *'pę:rcati* 'cepiti (drevo)', *'pü:vati* 'graditi', *š'va:rati se* 'pritoževati se', *t'rü:cati* 'nagovarjati, prositi', *'ža:mati* 'obrezovati deske (skorjo)'. V severozahodnoprleškem govoru je izposojenk iz drugih jezikov manj (prav tam: 119–123).

Narečne glagole je Rajh (2006: 399–406) razdelil glede na: a) avtohtono oz. prevzeto glagolsko podstavo z najrazličnejšimi pomenskimi vrednostmi: avtohtone slovanske: *dǫ'jiti, ǫbe'čati* …; b) prevzete z germanskega (nemškega) govornega območja: *ge'pi:rati, g'ra:tati*; c) izrazite skupine narečnih glagolov glede na nedoločniški oz. sedanjiški končaj, posebnosti glagolskih morfemov, č) samosvojo oblikoglasno podobo narečnih glagolskih oblik ter d) pomene narečnih glagolov. Prav tako narečne glagole glede na pomen uvršča med: a) sinonimijo: *'fę:xtati – 'bę:rmati* 'prosjačiti'; b) večpomenskost: *'xa:ndlati* 'prekupčevati; pogajati se za ceno'; c) metaforičnost: *v'ničti se* 'napraviti samomor'; č) pomen glede na mesto naglasa ter kakovost in kolikost naglašenega samoglasnika: *'va:lati* 'valjati' : *va'lati* 'veljati'; d) glagole s prostimi morfemi – po nemških zgledih, kjer se spremeni pomen: *'gǫr g'lę:dati* 'biti nevoščljiv', *nap'rę: me'tati* 'očitati'.

Analiza gradiva

Za potrebe tega prispevka je bilo podrobneje pregledanih 98 glagolov (glagol *regetáti* ima v *SSKJ²* dva pomena), izpisanih iz *SSKJ²*, opremljenih s kvalifikatorjem *nar.* (*narečno*), razširjenim s kvalifikatorskim pojasnilom *vzhodno*.

Analiza prinaša primerjalen popis glagolskih iztočnic in kaže na pomen vključenosti narečnega aktualnega besedja tudi v normativne priročnike (*SSKJ²* in *SP*), ki uporabljajo kvalifikatorje za označevanje zvrstnosti slovenskega jezika, v tem primeru narečij. V pregledu niso predstavljene narečne značilnosti posameznih besed glede na ožjo umeščenost v narečje (ali govor), ampak zgolj vzporednice na ravni pomena besede. Pregled glagolov iz Rajhovega slovarja kaže na številne evidentirane besede, ki današnjo rabo potrjujejo.

Za analizo je bil izbran le eden izmed vzhodnih narečnih govorov, nadaljnje raziskave bi lahko zajele vključevanje (aktualizacijo) najpogostejšega narečnega besedja tudi iz novejših narečnih slovarjev/popisov gradiva v normativne priročnike sploh.

V *SP* smo preverjali, koliko glagolskih iztočnic iz *SSKJ*^{2}, označenih z *nar. vzhodno*, je (sploh) zajetih v *SP* in s katerimi kvalifikatorji v okviru socialnozvrstnih oznak (§ 1060) so opredeljene. Predvidevali smo, da s kvalifikatorjem *pokr. vzh.* (pokrajinsko vzhodno), saj je kvalifikator *pokr.* pojasnjen kot "/…/ pokrajinsko pogovorno neknjižna prvina, značilna za večja področja slovenskega ozemlja, npr. za primorsko, štajersko, koroško, dolenjsko, rovtarsko, in tudi za manjša, npr. za belokranjski, celjski, koprski, tržaški okoliš ipd. (kjer je mogoče, je to v slovarju tudi nakazano)".

Primerjalna analiza

Glagoli so zaradi preglednosti v nadaljevanju izpisani iz *SSKJ*^{2} po abecednem redu. Ob iz *SSKJ*^{2} izpisanih iztočnicah je v oklepaju najprej zapisana pojavnost v a) Rajhovem slovarju (2010) (R+) ali odsotnost (R–). Kot izpričana v Rajhovem slovarju šteje tudi iztočnica, ki se navezuje na pomen iz iztočnice v *SSKJ*^{2}, ima pa drugačno glasoslovno ali pisno podobo ali gre za drugo besedno vrsto, npr. v *SSKJ*^{2} je iztočnica glagolska, pri Rajhu pa samostalniška, zato je izpisano tudi pojasnilo, primer: *címiti* 'poganjati kal(i); kaliti' (R–; sam. cìma 'poganjek, kalček'/*SP*+; pokr. vzh.). Za poševnico sledi pojavnost v *SP* (+) ali ne (–), za podpičjem je dodan kvalifikator, če je ta v *SP* zapisan.

- *bíncati* 'pobrcavati, brcati': (R+/*SP*+; pokr. vzh.);
- *bráti* 'nabirati, trgati' (R+/*SP*+; neobč.);
- *bútati* 'narediti iz zbite ilovice' (R+/*SP*+; bútan → pokr. vzh.);
- *cécati* 'sesati' (R+/*SP*+; pokr. vzh.);
- *címiti* 'poganjati kal(i); kaliti' (R–; sam. cìma 'poganjek, kalček'/*SP*+; pokr. vzh.);
- *címprati* 'postavljati kaj, navadno iz lesa' (R+/*SP*–; delati, sestavljati);
- *čapljáriti* 'slišno, tleskajoče padati ali teči; čofotati' (R+; čaplàrti/*SP*–);
- *čemeríti* 'jeziti, vznemirjati' (R–/*SP*+; pokr. vzh.);
- *čmŕkniti* 'črhniti'(R–; cmr̀knti/čmr̀knti 'srkniti'/*SP*–);
- *čŕčkati* 'čečkati' (R+/*SP*–);
- *čúti* 's sluhom zaznavati, slišati' (R+/*SP*+; pešaj.);

- *dahnéti* 'zaudarjati' (R–/*SP*+; pokr.);
- *dojíti* 'iztiskati, odvzemati mleko iz vimena; molsti' (R+/*SP*+; pokr. vzh.);
- *drežáti* 'godrnjati, sitnariti; čemeti, ždeti' (R–; drêgati/*SP*–);
- *frácka*t '(na rahlo) pokati' (R+/*SP*+; pokr. vzh.);
- *frkóčiti* 'kodrati, navijati' (R+; frkọ́čti/*SP*–);
- *frlúckati* 'žvižgati, požvižgavati' (R–/*SP*+; pokr. zah.);
- *fúčkati* 'žvižgati, piskati' (R–/*SP*+; pokr. vzh.);
- *grdíti* 'gabiti se, gnusiti se' (R+/*SP*+; pokr. vzh.);
- *húpkati* 'pestovati, ujčkati; poskakovati' (R+/*SP*–);
- *izcímiti se* 'vzkaliti, vzkliti' (R–/*SP*+; pokr. vzh.);
- *kípniti* 'vzhajati, naraščati' (R+/*SP*–);
- *kolíniti* 'pripravljati prašiča za hrano; klati' (R–; klàti/*SP*–);
- *kvókati* 'kokati, klokati' (R+/*SP*–);
- *lécati se* 'pretegovati se, stegovati se' (R+/*SP*–);
- *lúpati* 'odstranjevati lupino, kožo; lupiti' (R+/*SP*–);
- *méžiti* 'odstranjevati lubje z muževnega debla; majiti' (R–; mẹ́žti 'mendrati'/*SP*–);
- *mrčáti* 'mrmrati, brundati' (R– mŕčati; 'renčati'/*SP*–);
- *nabútati* 'nabiti, zbiti' (R+; 'butati ilovico za stene'/*SP*+; pokr.);
- *nadájati* 'dojiti' (R+/*SP*–);
- *nadojíti* 'namolsti' (R+/*SP*+; pokr. vzh.);
- *nafrkóčiti* 'nakodrati, naviti' (R–/*SP*–);
- *nakápati* 'nalagati, nakladati' (R–/*SP*–);
- *nakípniti* 'vziti, narasti' (R+; kìpnti/*SP*–);
- *namísliti* 'v mislih izoblikovati, ustvariti, kar ne ustreza resnici; izmisliti si' (R–; zmišlávati si /*SP*+; star.);
- *napévati* 'peti prvi del besedila, na katerega drugi odgovarjajo ali ga nadaljujejo' (R–/*SP*–);
- *naškrápljati* 'začenjati deževati' (R–/*SP*–);
- *natékati se* 'zamakati, puščati' (R+/*SP*+; pokr. vzh.);
- *navolíti se* 'naveličati se' (R+/*SP*–);
- *navzdígniti* 'začeti peti' (R–/*SP*–);
- *obdáčiti* 'obdavčiti' (R–/*SP*–);
- *obelíti* 'pobeliti' (R–/*SP*+; pokr. vzh.);

- *odškŕniti* 'nekoliko odpreti; odviti' (R+/*SP*+);
- *odvréti* 'popustiti zavoro pri vozilu; odviti, odpreti' (R+/*SP*+);
- *ogíbati se* 'odstranjevati, umikati' (R+/*SP*+);
- *páščiti se* 'hiteti' (R–/*SP*–);
- *plántati* 'šepati' (R–; plajtràti/*SP*–);
- *podojíti* 'pomolsti' (R+/*SP*–);
- *podŕgati* 'podrgniti, pometi' (R–/*SP*–);
- *pometávati* 'kotiti' (R–/*SP*–);
- *poslánjati* 'naslanjati se' (R+; poslàjati/*SP*+; pokr. vzh.);
- *posloníti* 'nasloniti, prisloniti' (R–; poslùnti/*SP*–);
- *poslúhniti* 'ubogati' (R–; začeti (pazljivo) poslušati; prisluhniti/*SP*–);
- *posodíti* 'spremiti ga; iti za njegovim pogrebom' (R–/*SP*–);
- *postrúgati* 'postrgati' (R+/*SP*–);
- *potákati* 'gugati, zibati' (R+/*SP*–);
- *potrúpati* 'razbiti, razdejati' (R–/*SP*–);
- *povlačíti* 'pobranati' (R+; povláčti/*SP*+; pokr. vzh.);
- *povodíti* 'prekaditi' (R–/*SP*–);
- *prebraníti* 'preprečiti, ne dovoliti' (R+; prebránti/*SP*–);
- *prepeléti* 'valjati se, (navadno) v sipki snovi; kopati se' (R–/*SP*–);
- *prepelíti se* 'valjati se, (navadno) v sipki snovi; kopati se; frfotati, kriliti; oprezovati' (R–/*SP*);
- *prézati* 'govoriti, pripovedovati; oprezati' (R–; luščiti se sam od sebe, odpirati se'/*SP*+);
- *prigánjati* 'poganjati, voditi; goniti' (R–/*SP*–);
- *priškŕniti* 'priviti; kaznovati, prijeti' (R–/*SP*–);
- *razbŕcati* 'raztrositi' (R–; bŕckati/*SP*–);
- *razčemeríti* 'razjeziti' (R–/*SP*–);
- *regetáti* 'dreti se, kričati' (R+/*SP*–);
- *regetáti* 'klopotati, ropotati' (R–/*SP*–);
- *rézati* 'tepsti, pretepati' (R+/*SP*–);
- *ríbiti* 'loviti ribe' (R+; ríbti /*SP*–);
- *sklapoúhati* 'oklofutati' (R–/*SP*–);
- *sklapoúškati* 'oklofutati' (R+; sklapovȕškati → klapovȕškati/*SP*–);
- *sklásti* 'zložen' (R–/*SP*–);

- *skŕmiti* 'spitati' (R–/*SP*+);
- *slívkati* 'dajati otožne, prošnjo izražajoče glasove' (R–/*SP*–);
- *spárati* 'narediti, da kaj sestavlja par; spariti' (R+ spárati → párati/*SP*–);
- *sprevézati* 'prevezati' (R–/*SP*–);
- *stelíti se* 'roditi, povreči tele; oteliti se' (R–/*SP*–);
- *sváditi* 'jeziti' (R+/*SP*–);
- *svajeváti se* 'prepirati se' (R+; svajüvàti se/*SP*–);
- *šléviti* 'čvekati' (R–/*SP*–);
- *šlígati* 'švrkati' (R–/*SP*–);
- *šmíckati* 'švrkati' (R+/*SP*–);
- *vodíti* 'prekajevati' (R–/*SP*–);
- *zabíncati* 'zabrcati' (R+; bìncati/*SP*+; bincati pokr. vzh. –);
- *zafúčkati* 'zažvižgati, zapiskati' (R+; fűčkati/*SP*+; neknj. pog.);
- *zagolčáti* 'reči, povedati' (R–/*SP*–);
- *zajókati* 'objokan' (R–/*SP*–);
- *zamrčáti* 'zamrmrati, zabrundati' (R– mŕčati 'renčati'/*SP*–);
- *zaškŕniti* 'priviti' (R+; zaškŕnti/*SP*–);
- *zažmíkati* 'zmečkati, stlačiti' (R+; zažmíkati → žmíkati/*SP*–);
- *zbútati* 'zbiti, nabiti' (R+; 'butati ilovico za stene'/*SP*+ butan);
- *zdávati* 'cerkveno poročati' (R+/*SP*–);
- *zgrdíti* 'iztrebiti se' (R–/*SP*–);
- *zváti* 'prositi; vabiti' (R–; klicati/*SP*–; star. klicati);
- *žmíkati* 'mečkati, tolči' (R+; /*SP*–);
- *žórgati* 'cmokati, čofotati' (R+; /*SP*–).

Ugotovitve

Od 98 glagolskih iztočnic *nar. vzhodno* iz *SSKJ*[2] je:
– v *SP* zabeleženih 29 iztočnic (69 ni zabeleženih), v Rajhovem slovarju 48 (50 ni zabeleženih);
– v obeh virih, v *SP* in v Rajhovem slovarju, zabeleženih 19 iztočnic: *bíncati, bráti, bútati, cécati, čúti, dojíti, frácкati, grdíti, nabútati, nadojíti, natékati se, odškŕniti, odvréti, ogíbati se, poslánjati, povlačíti, zabíncati, zafúčkati, zbútati*;

– samo v *SP* zabeleženih 10 iztočnic: *címiti, čemeríti, dahnéti, frlúckati, fúčkati, izcímiti se, obelíti, prézati, skŕmiti, namísliti*;
– samo v Rajhovem slovarju zabeleženih 30 iztočnic: *címprati, čapljáriti, čŕčkati, frkóčiti, žmíkati, húpkati, kípniti, kvókati, lécati se, lúpati, nadájati, nakípniti, navolíti se, podojíti, postrúgati, potákati, prebraníti, rézati, regetáti* (dva pomena), *ríbiti, sklapoúškati, spárati, sváditi, svajeváti se, šmíckati, zaškŕniti, zažmíkati, zdávati, žórgati*;
– le v *SP* ni zabeleženih 29 iztočnic: *címprati, čapljáriti, čŕčkati, frkóčiti, žmíkati, húpkati, kípniti, kvókati, lécati se, lúpati, nadájati, nakípniti, navolíti se, podojíti, postrúgati, potákati, prebraníti, rézati, ríbiti, sklapoúškati, spárati, sváditi, svajeváti se, šmíckati, zaškŕniti, zažmíkati, zdávati, žórgati, regetáti*;
– le v Rajhovem slovarju ni zabeleženih 10 iztočnic: *címiti, čemeríti, dahnéti, frlúckati, fúčkati, izcímiti se, obelíti, prézati, skŕmiti, namísliti*;
– v nobenem od virov, v *SP* in v Rajhovem slovarju, ni zabeleženih 40 iztočnic: *čmŕkniti, drežáti, kolíniti, méžiti, mrčáti, nafrkóčiti, nakápati, napévati, naškrápljati, navzdígniti, obdáčiti, páščiti se, plántati, podŕgati, pometávati, posloníti, poslúhniti, posodíti, potrúpati, povodíti, prepeléti, prepelíti se, prigánjati, priškŕniti, razbŕcati, razčemeríti, regetáti, sklapoúhati, sklásti, slívkati, sprevézati, stelíti se, šléviti, šlígati, vodíti, zagolčáti, zajókati, zamrčáti, zgrdíti, zváti.*
Izpisani in primerjani glagoli s kvalifikatorjem *narečno vzhodno* iz *SSKJ*[2] imajo v *SP* naslednje socialnozvrstne oznake (*SP* 2001, § 1059: zvrstne, stilne in druge oznake v slovarju so: pri socialnih zvrsteh: (zborno) privzdig(njeno), knj(ižno) pog(ovorno), ljud(sko), (knjižno) neobč(evalno), neknj(ižno) pog(ovorno), neknj(ižno) ljud(sko), pokr(ajinskopogovorno), nar(ečno), mestn(e govorice), izobr(azbeno), sleng(ovsko), žarg(onsko), latov(sko)):
– pokr(ajinsko) vzh(odno) 17: od teh jih šest ni najti v Rajhovem slovarju (R) (2010): *bíncati, bútati, cécati, címiti* (R–), *čemeríti* (R–), *dojíti, frácкati, frlúckati* (R–), *fúčkati* (R–), *grdíti, izcímiti se* (R–), *nadojíti, natékati se, obelíti* (R–), *poslánjati, povlačíti, zabíncati*;
– pokr(ajinsko) dva: *dahnéti* (R–), *nabútati* (R+);
– neknj(ižno) pog(ovorno) eden: *zafúčkati* (R+).

Sklep

V prispevku smo predstavili primerjalno analizo glagolov, v *SSKJ*[2] označenih s stilno-zvrstnim kvalifikatorjem *nar.* (*narečno*), razširjenim s kvalifikatorskim pojasnilom *vzhodno*. Gre za del širše raziskave, ki se osredinja na pregled in obseg tako označenih vseh iztočnic v *SSKJ*[2] (414 iztočnic, od tega 274 samostalnikov, 98 glagolov, 26 pridevnikov in 16 drugih besednih vrst – 12 prislovov, le po en zaimek, veznik, medmet in členek).

Prispevek prinaša pregled samo glagolskih iztočnic, teh je 98, z oznako *nar. vzhodno* iz *SSKJ*[2], primerjanih z glagoli iz Rajhovega gradiva, dodatno še s *SP*. Ugotavljamo, da je v *SP* zabeleženih 29 iztočnic (69 ni zabeleženih), v Rajhovem slovarju pa je zabeleženih iztočnic 48 (50 ni zabeleženih); v obeh virih, v *SP* in pri Rajhu, je zabeleženih 19 iztočnic (nekaj primerov): bíncati '*pobrcavati, brcati*', bráti '*nabirati, trgati*', cécati '*sesati*' itd. Analizirani glagoli imajo v *SP* naslednje socialnozvrstne oznake: 17 pokr(ajinsko) vzh(odno): od teh jih šest ni pri Rajhu: címiti '*poganjati kal(i)*; *kaliti*', čemeríti '*jeziti, vznemirjati*', frlúckati '*žvižgati, požvižgavati*', fúčkati '*žvižgati, piskati*', izcímiti se '*vzkaliti, vzkliti*', obelíti '*pobeliti*'; dva glagola sta označena s pokr(ajinsko): dahnéti '*zaudarjati*' (pri Rajhu ni), nabútati '*nabiti, zbiti*' (pri Rajhu je) in eden pa neknj(ižno) pog(ovorno): zafúčkati '*zažvižgati, zapiskati*' (pri Rajhu je).

Zavedamo se, da vsi tako označeni leksemi v obeh normativnih priročnikih niso zabeleženi v obravnavanem narečnem slovarju, saj oba normativna priročnika (*SSKJ*[2] in *SP*), s kvalifikatorjem zajemata besedje širšega narečnega prostora in da je predstavljena analiza primerjalno zajela le enega izmed vzhodnih narečnih govorov. Ta pa predstavlja velik nabor še živega, aktualnega besedja.

Namen je bil poudariti pomen vključenosti narečnega besedja v normativne priročnike, kot sta *SSKJ*[2] in *SP*, saj besede, opremljene s kvalifikatorji, nanašajočimi se (tudi) na narečja, zelo olajšajo delo vsem, ki se pri delu srečujejo z besedjem različnih socialnih zvrsti, pa naj bodo to učenci/dijaki/študenti in učitelji, lektorji pri filmu ali v gledališču ter prevajalci.

Summary

The paper presents a comparative analysis of verbs with the style-genre label *nar.* (*dialectal*), further specified as *vzhodno* (*eastern*) in *The Dictionary of Standard Slovenian Language* (*Slovar slovenskega knjižnega jezika*[2] – *SSKJ*[2] 2014), which are then compared to Rajh's material for his dialectal dictionary *Gúčati po antùjoško* (2010) and to *The Slovenian Orthography (Slovenski pravopis – SP* 2001). The analysis is part of a broader study focusing on the total of 414 entries so labelled in the *SSKJ*[2], of which 274 are nouns, 98 verbs, and 26 adjectives, while 16 belong to other word classes (12 adverbs, 1 pronoun, 1 conjunction, 1 interjection, and 1 particle). The first (already presented) part is a sample comparison of the incidence of (only) those nouns labelled *nar. vzhodno* (*dialectal eastern*). The present article provides an overview of the entries for verbs alone. There are 98 such entries labelled as *nar. vzhodno* (dialectal eastern) in the *SSKJ*[2] these are then compared to Rajh's material for his dialectal dictionary and to the *SP*. We find that the *SP* records 29 entries (69 are not registered), while Rajh's dictionary contains 48 of them (50 are not registered). In addition, 19 entries are included in both the *SP* and Rajh's dictionary, e.g. *bíncati* 'pobrcavati, brcati' (to kick), *bráti* (to gather), *cécati* (to suck), etc. The verbs analysed in the *SP* are labelled as follows: 17 *pokr*(*ajinsko*) *vzh*(*odno*) (*provincial eastern*), six of which do not feature in Rajh's dictionary. These are *címiti* (to sprout), *čemeríti* (to upset), *frlúckati* (to whistle), *fúčkati* (to whistle), *izcímiti se* (to sprout), and *obelíti* (to whiten). Two verbs are labelled as only pokr(ajinsko) (provincial): *dahnéti* 'zaudarjati' (to stink), and *nabútati* 'nabiti, zbiti' (to beat); the first does not feature in Rajh's dictionary, while the second does. One is labelled as neknj(ižno) pog(ovorno) (non-standard colloquial): *zafúčkati* 'zažvižgati, zapiskati' (to whistle, to blow), being an entry in Rajh's dictionary as well.

Even though the analysis covers only one of the eastern dialects, it presents a large number of dialectal words which are currently still in use. The aim of this paper is therefore to point out the importance of incorporating and labelling the current dialectal vocabulary into the normative manuals such as the *SSKJ*[2] and the *SP*. Labelling in particular can be of great help to translators, to language editors in the film industry and in theatre and to all others who, in their professional work, need to distinguish between social and regional varieties of Slovene.

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REVIJA ZA ELEMENTARNO IZOBRAŽEVANJE
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PREDISPOSITION TOWARDS SUSTAINABLE BEHAVIOUR AMONG STUDENTS IN THE PRE-SCHOOL EDUCATION STUDY PROGRAMME

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Abstract/Izvleček Starting from the importance of sustainable behaviour among educators for sustainability in kindergarten, the aim of this empirical quantitative study was to investigate the prevalence of predispositions towards sustainable behaviour among students from the first cycle of the Pre-school Education study programme at three universities. The connection between predispositions, the existence of a difference between cognitive and non-cognitive predispositions, and the absence of a statistically significant difference between the predispositions of the students in relation to home faculty and place of residence were determined.

Predispozicije za trajnostno vedenje študentov dodiplomskega študija predšolske vzgoje

Cilj empirične kvantitativne študije je bil raziskati razširjenost predispozicij za trajnostno vedenje študentov dodiplomskega študija predšolske vzgoje treh univerz. Izhodišče raziskave je bil pomen trajnostnega vedenja vzgojiteljev v izobraževanju za trajno delovanje v vrtcu. S študijo smo potrdili povezavo med predispozicijami, obstoj razlike med kognitivnimi in nekognitivnimi predispozicijami ter odsotnost statistično pomembne razlike med predispozicijami v raziskavo vključenih študentov glede na domačo fakulteto in kraj bivanja.

Keywords:
predisposition towards sustainable behaviour, Pre-school Education

Ključne besede:
predispozicije za trajnostno vedenje, predšolska vzgoja

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Introduction

Education for sustainable development should begin at an early age, so that children can become people who show responsibility and care for others (Lepičnik Vodopivec, 2006; Lindberg, 2007; Pearson and Degotardi, 2009; Siraj-Blatchford and Pramling Samuelsson, 2016). As an educational precondition for early age learning, situational and contextual learning of sustainable behaviour according to models from adults, parents, and educators are important, models which require adequate professional guidance (Pribišev Beleslin et al., 2019) and educational programs with an emphasis on pre-schoolers (UNESCO, 2005). In order to achieve this, it is necessary for pedagogical workers to understand and apply the concepts of sustainable development in everyday life (Borić, Jindra and Škugor, 2008), which is achieved by shaping values, behaviour and people's way of life (UNESCO, 2002), through an integrative way of thinking and acting (UNESCO, 2012). Ličen (2015) highlights the UNESCO (2014) conference in Tokyo, which focused on teacher training to evolve education for sustainable development in local settings.
Huckle points out the connection between values and sustainable behaviour (2008), and research on a sample of 480 students at the University of Rijeka confirms this (Anđić and Tatalović Vorkapić, 2015), although the level of understanding and attitudes is more pronounced than actual behaviour for sustainable student development, as indicated by a study conducted on 823 respondents from the UAE University (Al-Naqbi and Alshannag, 2018). Studies conducted with pupils and students in several countries (Spain, Croatia, BiH and Turkey) indicate an incomplete harmonization of knowledge, attitudes and sustainable behaviour among young people and the need for education for sustainable development in the initial stage of pedagogical study for optimal adoption of sustainable knowledge, attitudes and behaviour through effective didactic and methodological settings of the constructivist type (Alvarez Suarez and Vega, 2002; Alvarez et al. 2010; Borić, Jidra and Škugor, 2008; Pribišev Beleslin et al. 2019, Rončević and Rafajac, 2012). This is especially true, given that we are not fully aware of the role of educators in this process (Kahriman Öztürka and Olgan, 2016). Predispositions towards pro-environmental behaviour are also closely related to situational strength, although Runhaar, Wagenaar, Wesseling, and Runhaar (2019) suggest more research to confirm the relationship between situational strength and predispositions towards pro-environmental behaviour.

Although environmental education is recognized within educational institutions, the research findings of Ntanos, Kyriakopoulos, Arabatzis, Palios, and Chalikias (2018) indicate that support for environmental efforts and higher levels of motivation are more likely to be needed in the context of family and public socialization than within an educational institution. Given that caring for planet Earth is reflected through the ecological, socio-cultural and economic dimensions (Ärlemaln-Hagsér, Berg and Sandberg, 2018; Breβler and Kappler, 2017; Engdahl, 2015; Pramling Samuelsson and Kaga, 2008; Siraj-Blatchford and Pramling Samuelsson, 2016; Somerville, Williams, 2015), approaches both formal and informal, as well as holistic, multidisciplinary, interdisciplinary, intergenerational and lifelong approaches, are important in training through the actions of all individuals in the community (UNESCO, 2005; Borić, Jidra and Škugor, 2008; Brekke, Kipperberg and Nyborg, 2010).

In accordance with Huckle's concept, the school's approach to education for sustainable development is based on a discussion of competences among students and teachers (Huckle, 2005). Raditya-Ležaić, Boromisa and Tišma (2018) estimate that only well-trained and competent teachers will be able to cope with environmental education tasks. We consider the issue of competence to be the main source of meaning in school education for sustainable development. Given the relevance of this construct, questions arise about a whole range of competences in students and teachers. Despite the not-too-optimistic conclusions that follow from overall personal analysis, it is not difficult to understand that the issue of student and teacher competences for sustainable development requires, as is commonly acknowledged, to be worked on continuously. The issue of competences for sustainable development needs to be addressed across a lifetime (Mayer, 2004). Of course, this applies to all levels of its activation. The diversity of partners who appear in the school should certainly be added to this. The role of teachers and the school (Erkilic, 2008), as an institution that primarily, in relation to other partners (factors) influences the development of literacy for sustainability, must, of course, be viewed within a broader social context. Kindergarten and school are just two of the factors to which pupils are exposed.

This is especially emphasized by Bronfenbrenner's theory of ecological development. Bronfenbrenner classified the social environment into multiple concentric circles, where the environments of the inner circles have a greater influence on the individual.

The social environments that have the greatest direct impact on the child are the family and the kindergarten (or school). Bronfenbrenner's ecological theory of development describes child development as being affected by five systems that in turn affect each other (Bronfenbrenner, 1994). The basic systems are those in which a child lives and develops and constitute a microsystem. The basic environments for a preschool child are the family and the kindergarten because the child spends most time there (Ljubetić, 2014). In this environment, children establish direct interactions with important people with whom they have long-term relationships (Peklaj and Pečjak, 2015). Educators play an important role in this, as the third most important factor in children's development. Therefore, teacher education at the undergraduate level is considered the most effective way to promote sustainable development. Borić, Jidra and Škugur (2008) state in this regard that if educators learn to implement the content of education for sustainable development in curricula and use pedagogical strategies related to the quality of education for sustainable development, then the next generations will be able to shape a world that will be more sustainable. Birdsall and White (2020) emphasize that in the field of environmental and sustainability education, it is important to go beyond the idea that a good educational program can achieve the sustainable development goals. They stress the importance of understanding the integrity of the individual as a thinking and sensitive being capable of self-reflection and responsibility for their role in society. According to Tatković, Štifanić and Diković (2015), educators are the main implementers and guides of the educational process in kindergartens; therefore, successful implementation of environmental education in kindergarten depends on their practice and competences. All of this points to the importance of training for sustainable development and the need for empirical research to find the most effective approaches to education for sustainable behaviour.

Method

Starting from the value system as an important link with education, in the context of decision-making and shaping the emotional and behavioural aspect of the individual (Anđić and Tatalović Vorkapić, 2015), we conducted research on the predisposition towards sustainable behaviour among students in the first cycle of the Pre-school Education study programme through the Juárez Nájer model of sustainable behaviour (2010).

In a study conducted at two universities (German and Mexican), the author develops a model of sustainable behaviour that contains four categories of predispositions that lead to sustainability. Taking into account Schwartz's (1994) theory, it derives the universal values and value structures essential to sustainability that build the first category of this model and the subtest of the corresponding research instrument. The second category refers to awareness of the consequences of unsustainable action, while the third category refers to accepting personal responsibility and attributing responsibility as essential elements for activating individual norms (Schwartz, 1970; Stern et al., 1999) for sustainable action (second and third subtest). In the fourth category of Gardner's model of multiple intelligences (2005), he views interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence from the angle of sustainability (fourth subtest) as an important predisposition towards sustainable behaviour.

Recognizing the importance of sustainable behaviour of educators in preschool education for sustainability, we sought, through quantitative empirical research**,** to explore the predispositions towards sustainable behaviour, such as elements of universal and structural value, awareness of consequences, acceptance and attribution of responsibility, and elements of interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence. Starting from the model of sustainable behaviour by Juárez Nájer (2010) and reflecting on different learning contexts and environments, the aim of the study was to investigate the prevalence of predispositions towards sustainable behaviour among students in the first cycle of the Pre-school Education study programme at the Faculty of Pedagogy at the University of Koper, the Faculty of Philosophy at the University of Banja Luka and the Faculty of Educational Sciences at Goce Delčev University of Štip and connect it with various contexts of the learning environment. Two research variables stand out: the predisposition for sustainable behaviour (universal and structural values of a person for sustainable development, awareness of the consequences of unsustainable behaviour, acceptance and attribution of responsibility for sustainable action and interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence components for sustainable behaviour) and elements of social context teachings (state, city, suburb, village).

In the study, we investigated three hypotheses:

H1 There is a correlation between the appearance of the given predispositions towards sustainable behaviour.

H2 The predisposition towards sustainable behaviour is differently represented among students.
H3 There are differences in the prevalence of predispositions towards sustainable student behaviour depending on the given social contexts (country, village, suburbs, or city).
The research sample is appropriate and included 90 respondents, students in the third year of the first cycle of the Pre-school Education study programme, 30 students each from each faculty.
As a research instrument, adaptation of the Juárez Nájer Questionnaire on Sustainable Development (2010) was considered, with a five-point Likert-type scale and four subtests measuring the predisposition towards sustainable student behaviour (universal and structural values of a person in relation to sustainable development, awareness of unsustainable behaviour, acceptance and attributing responsibility for sustainable action, and the interpersonal and intrapersonal components of intelligence in relation to sustainable behaviour). The instrument consisted of 58 items. The first subtest comprised 21 items, the second subtest 8 items, the third 9 items, and the fourth 20 items. We translated the instrument into Slovenian, Serbian and Macedonian. The calculated Alpha Cronbach coefficient, which indicates the internal consistency for the whole instrument, is $\alpha = 0.89$, which is close to the highest reliability on the test. The measured Alpha Cronbach coefficients for each of the four subtests are $\alpha1 = 0.76$; $\alpha2 = 0.83$; $\alpha3 = 0.86$; $\alpha4 = 0.69$. This is very close to the reliability measured on the same instrument in a study conducted in Croatia (Anđić and Tatalović Vorkapić, 2015), which supports the reliability of the test and measurements in both studies. Anđić and Vorkapić, checking the validity of the instrument, calculated, among other things, the reliability of individual subscales and established that for four subscales, the reliability is $\alpha1 = 0.80$; $\alpha2 = 0.87$; $\alpha3 = 0.65$; $\alpha4 = 0.69$, which is very close to the reliability measured on the same instrument in our study.
The research procedure was performed in the following manner: respecting the ethics (voluntary participation and anonymity of students), we applied the questionnaire to a sample of 90 respondents in the academic year 2019/2020.

The collected data were statistically processed using IBM SPSS 20.0 by calculating the Alpha Cronbach coefficient, descriptive statistical measures (frequency and arithmetic mean, Kolmogorov-Smirnov normality test), statistical significance of differences between variables (ANOVA analysis and t-test) and correlation between variables (Pearson's coefficient).

Results and discussion

Applying the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, we found that there was no statistically significant deviation in the spread of the variables from the normal distribution and that we could apply parametric tests for the predisposition variable for sustainable behaviour (universal and structural values of the person in relation to sustainable development, awareness of the consequences of unsustainable behaviour, acceptance of and attribution for sustainable action and interpersonal intelligence and intrapersonal components of sustainable behaviour).

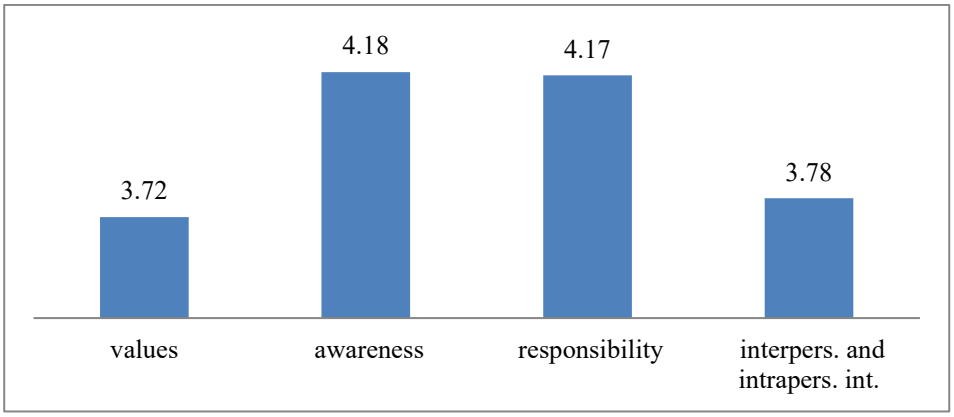
Table 1 shows Pearson's correlation coefficients for these variables because we calculated the correlations for these variables to determine whether there was an interrelationship between the predispositions of students towards sustainable behaviour. The calculated positive and statistically significant Pearson coefficients (Table 1) indicate that there is a proportional, statistically significant correlation between the variables. In other words, if we have a higher value for sustainable behaviour in students, there is a greater chance that awareness of and responsibility for sustainable behaviour will be more emphasized, as well as the development of interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence in relation to sustainability. The reverse is also true. The less salient a given predisposition is in students, the greater the chance that others will also be lower. As we can see, there is an interdependence of predispositions towards sustainable student behaviour, thus proving hypothesis H1. This points us to the need to develop all predispositions for sustainable behaviour, that cognitive insight affects the emotional, social and volitional component and desires, and vice versa. This result supports the promotion of education for sustainable development and behaviour through a holistic approach, where the whole personality and numerous aspects of development (not only intellectual) are taken into account, through which an integrative way of thinking and acting is sought and implemented (UNESCO, 2012).

Table 1. Correlation of predispositions towards sustainable behaviour

Predispositions towards sustainable behaviour	**values**	**awareness of the consequences**	**Responsibility**	**interpersonal and intrapersonal int.**
values	1	0.222*	0.335**	0.339**
awareness of the consequences	0.222*	1	0.521**	0.346**
responsibility	0.335**	0.521**	1	0.546**
interpersonal and intrapersonal int.	0.339**	0.346**	0.546**	1

*. Correlation significant at 0.05 level.
**. Correlation significant at the 0.01 level.

Graphically, we presented the arithmetic means of the representation of each predisposition individually (Graph 1). Notably, there are differences in representation, and awareness of consequences and attribution of responsibility (mostly cognitive) are more pronounced than universal and structural values of the person and emotional and social dimensions for sustainable behaviour and development (mostly non-cognitive).



Graph 1. Arithmetic mean of predispositions towards sustainable behaviour.

Since the predispositions towards sustainable behaviour were investigated in correlation, to determine whether there was a statistically significant difference between them, we applied the t-test for dependent samples and present the results in Table 2.

It can be noted that statistically significant differences are present between most predispositions, except between values and interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence in relation to sustainable behaviour and development, on the one hand (mostly non-cognitive predispositions), and awareness of the consequences of unsustainable behaviour and attribution of responsibility (mostly cognitive predispositions), on the other hand. Thus, the subscale of the instrument related to the universal and structural values of a person in relation to sustainable behaviour explored personality traits and features that are closely related to people's emotional and social nature (discipline, moderation, control, responsibility, honesty, creativity, open-mindedness, leadership, ambition and desires). This could be why the representation of this predisposition does not differ significantly from the representation of the predisposition of interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence in relation to sustainability. In addition, the predisposition towards awareness of the consequences of unsustainability that arise from the knowledge of endangering nature as well as the predisposition based on responsibility, i.e., on the knowledge of who can influence and by what actions the sustainability of water, for example, depend on information and acquired knowledge. Based on this finding, it can be seen that there is a difference between cognitive and non-cognitive predispositions towards sustainable behaviour in favour of the first, as evidenced by other contemporary studies (Al-Naqbi and Alshannag, 2018; Borić, Jidra and Škugor, 2008), which represents a good direction for upbringing and education for sustainable development. Numerous authors have pointed out that the drivers of human behaviour and related decisions are often those arising from emotions and other non-cognitive processes and that they can be improved by adequate educational procedures (Chabot and Chabot, 2009; Goleman, 2008; Goleman, 2010; Katz and McClellan, 2005; Milivojević, 2008). If we respect the holistic approach in educational work, our findings indicate the need for more attention to be paid to the development of socio-emotional and other non-cognitive predispositions towards sustainable behaviour.

Table 2. T-ratio of arithmetic values of predispositions towards sustainable student behaviour

Predispositions towards sustainable development		*M*	*SD*	*SEM*	*t*	*p*
Pair 1	Values	3.72	0.20	0.02	–7.58	0.000
	Awareness	4.18	0.29	0.03		
Pair 2	Values	3.72	0.20	0.02	–8.83	0.000
	Responsibility	4.17	0.38	0.04		
Pair 3	Values	3.72	0.20	0.02	–1.91	0.059
	inter/intraperson. int.	3.78	0.30	0.03		
Pair 4	Awareness	4.18	0.29	0.03	1.10	0.272
	Responsibility	4.17	0.38	0.04		
Pair 5	awareness	4.18	0.29	0.03	6.87	0.000
	inter/intraperson. int.	3.78	0.30	0.03		
Pair 6	responsibility	4.17	0.38	0.04	8.49	0.000
	inter/intraperson. int.	3.78	0.30	0.03		

Based on the results presented graphically (Graph 1) and in tabular form (Table 2), and based on their interpretation, we can conclude that the H2 hypothesis is partially proved.

To investigate the relationship between the prevalence of predispositions towards sustainable student behaviour and the specific learning contexts (village, city, state), we applied one-factor univariate analysis for independent ANOVA samples and calculated the Fisher's coefficients (Table 3 and Table 4).

Table 3 shows, from left to right, the representation of different predispositions towards sustainable behaviour (values, awareness, responsibility, and interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence in relation to sustainable behaviour) by cities / countries (Koper, Štip, Banja Luka, or Slovenia, Macedonia and Bosnia and Herzegovina) number of respondents (N), mean values of predisposition (M), standard deviation (SD), and for each predisposition a Fisher's coefficient (F) and its statistical significance (p). For all the predispositions, the Fisher's coefficient is statistically insignificant ($p > 0.5$), so the differences, although they exist, are statistically insignificant. Lastly, for the overall predispositions, we see that the prevalence of predispositions towards sustainable behaviour among preschool education students at the faculties in Koper, Štip and Banja Luka, are respectively, Mk = 16.35; Mš = 15.69; Mbl = 15.68.

Based on these results (and from other results in Table 3), it can be noted that, although slightly and statistically insignificant, predispositions towards sustainable behaviour in a sample of 30 students at the Faculty of Pedagogy of the University of Primorska (Koper) are more developed than those in students from the samples in Macedonia and Bosnia and Herzegovina. Moreover, it is possible to notice an almost identical representation of these predispositions in the student sample from the Faculty of Educational Sciences at the University of Goce Delčev in Štip and the Faculty of Philosophy at the University of Banja Luka. Furthermore, based on other data, it is evident that students from Koper (although to a statistically insignificant degree) are in the forefront in cognitive predispositions towards awareness of the consequences of unsustainable behaviour and attributing responsibility for sustainable behaviour.

Table 3. Difference in the prevalence of predispositions towards sustainable behaviour among students from three universities (F)

Predispositions towards sustainable behaviour	**City/country**	***N***	***M***	***SD***	***F***	***p***
Values	Koper	30	3.73	0.19	0.796	0.454
	Štip	30	3.74	0.20		
	Banja Luka	30	3.68	0.21		
Awareness	Koper	30	4.47	0.48	2.946	0.058
	Štip	30	4.09	0.28		
	Banja Luka	30	4.15	0.40		
Responsibility	Koper	30	4.34	0.36	2.745	0.070
	Štip	30	4.06	0.39		
	Banja Luka	30	4.10	0.36		
Inter/intrapersonal Intelligence	Koper	30	3.81	0.35	0.256	0.775
	Štip	30	3.79	0.34		
	Banja Luka	30	3.75	0.25		
Predispositions in total	Koper	30	16.35	0.98	2.685	0.074
	Štip	30	15.69	1.19		
	Banja Luka	30	15.68	1.17		

To determine whether there are differences in the prevalence of predispositions towards sustainable behaviour in relation to the place of permanent residence of students from the sample being a village, suburb or city, we applied ANOVA, the results of which appear in Table 4. The Fisher's coefficient is statistically insignificant ($F = 0.134$; $p = 0.875$), and we can conclude that there is no statistically significant difference in the prevalence of predispositions towards sustainable behaviour among students coming from villages, suburbs or cities.

Table 4. Difference in the prevalence of predispositions towards sustainable behaviour among students with different places of residence (village, suburbs, city)

Predisposition towards sustainable behaviour	City/country	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*F*	*p*
Values	village	33	16.00	1.7	0.134	0.875
	suburb	12	15.84	1.43		
	city	45	15.91	1.21		

Although both formal and informal approaches, together with holistic, intergenerational, and lifelong approaches through the actions of all individuals in the community are important for the adoption of sustainable behaviour and the formation of predispositions (UNESCO, 2005; Borić, Jidra and Škugor, 2008; Brekke, Kipperberg and Nyborg, 2010), we did not confirm statistically significant differences in the development of predispositions towards sustainable behaviour in third-year students, given the different types of research communities in which students live and work (state, city, suburbs and village). Based on the results in Table 3 and Table 4 and their interpretation, we can conclude that we have not proved hypothesis H3, and we can therefore reject it.

Conclusion

To study the predisposition towards sustainable behaviour among students in the first cycle of the study programme Pre-school Education, as a starting base for creating an additional university program for sustainability, we conducted empirical quantitative research with students in the first cycle of the study programme Pre-school Education at the Faculty of Pedagogy at the University of Koper, the Faculty of Philosophy at the University of Banja Luka and the Faculty of Educational Sciences in Goce Delčev University of Štip. The results indicate that there is a statistically significant correlation between predispositions towards sustainable behaviour (values, awareness, responsibility, and interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence related to sustainable behaviour) that encompasses the intellectual, emotional and social aspects of personality, as well as traits and features of personality essential to sustainable behaviour. The pedagogical implication of this finding unequivocally indicates the need for a holistic approach to upbringing and education for sustainable behaviour.

The result, which indicates the difference between the prevalence levels of cognitive and non-cognitive predispositions towards sustainable behaviour in students, shows the need for additional training for sustainable development in the direction of encouraging non-cognitive predispositions towards sustainable behaviour and for the creation of optimal training programs. It confirmed that there was no statistically significant difference between students in relation to their society and community, whether by state (Slovenia, Macedonia, Bosnia and Herzegovina) or place of residence (city, suburbs or village).

This paper also raises additional research questions. It indicates the need to study predispositions towards sustainability in the context of other learning environments such as colleges, schools, special courses, electronic media, written literature, organizations that promote sustainability, etc., organizing small action research studies on the effectiveness of specific activities and content in developing and improving sustainable student behaviour.

While acknowledging the recommendation that study programs be updated with the content and learning outcomes of education for sustainable development (UNESCO, 2017), this paper and its results provide valuable guidelines for more effective training programming in this area by shedding light on the representation of and relations among current predispositions towards sustainable student behaviour.

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REVIJA ZA ELEMENTARNO IZOBRAŽEVANJE
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MNENJE VZGOJITELJIC IN VZGOJITELJEV O KOMPETENTNOSTI ZA VODENJE GIBALNIH DEJAVNOSTI PREDŠOLSKIH OTROK, UPOŠTEVAJOČ LASTNO GIBALNO DEJAVNOST

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Izvleček/Abstract Namen raziskave je bil ugotoviti, ali je redna prostočasna gibalna dejavnost vzgojiteljic in vzgojiteljev (n = 177) povezana z njihovim subjektivnim vrednotenjem kompetenc za vodenje gibalnih dejavnosti predšolskih otrok. Za zbiranje podatkov o samoocenjeni gibalni dejavnosti in subjektivni oceni kompetenc za vodenje procesa gibalnih dejavnosti predšolskih otrok smo uporabili vprašalnik. Sklenemo lahko, da prostočasna gibalna dejavnost vzgojiteljic in vzgojiteljev predstavlja dejavnik njihove subjektivne zaznave kompetenc za vodenje gibalnih dejavnosti predšolskih otrok.

Ključne besede:
predšolsko obdobje, vrtec, gibalni razvoj, gibalna spretnost, kompetenca

The opinion of preschool teachers on their self-perceived competence for leading the physical activity process in preschool children in relation to their own leisure-time physical activity The purpose of the study was to determine whether the regular leisure-time physical activity of preschool teachers (n = 177) is associated with their self-perceived competence for leading physical activities among preschool children. For the data collection on self-assessed physical activity and the subjective assessment of competence for leading the process of physical activities among preschool children, we used a questionnaire. We can conclude that the leisure-time physical activity of preschool teachers is associated with their subjective perception of competence for leading the process of physical activity among preschool children.

Keywords:
preschool period, kindergarten, motor development, motor skill, competency

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Uvod

Predšolsko obdobje je za oblikovanje gibalnih navad in vzorcev nadvse pomembno obdobje (Janz, Burns in Levy, 2005). Potreba po gibanju je otrokova primarna potreba, zato ima razvoj gibanja – kot enega izmed področij dejavnosti v vrtcu – še poseben pomen. Otrok preko gibalnih dejavnosti odkriva in zaznava svoje telo ter preizkuša meje svojih sposobnosti ter spretnosti, ki jih hkrati razvija (Pišot in Jelovčan, 2012). Gibalna dejavnost v zgodnjem otroštvu celostno vpliva na razvoj otroka. Pomemben vpliv ima na gibalni, kostno-mišični, srčno-žilni in spoznavni razvoj (Timmons idr., 2012; LeBlanc idr., 2012; Hesketh in Campell, 2010) ter pomembno vpliva na gibalne dejavnosti in dejavnike zdravja v odrasli dobi (Timmons idr., 2012). Otrok je v zgodnjem otroštvu izredno dojemljiv za dražljaje okolja, vpliv gibalnih izkušenj je v tem obdobju največji. Vedenjski vzorci gibalnega udejstvovanja, ki jih človek pridobi v otroštvu, se ohranijo skozi celo življenje in sooblikujejo temelje za aktivno in zdravo življenje (Jančič in Planinšec, 2018). Odrasli so zgled in s svojim vedenjem vplivajo na oblikovanje zdravega življenjskega sloga otroka oziroma mladostnika (Pišot in Planinšec, 2005). Poznavanje osnovnih zakonitosti rasti in razvoja ter razvojnih značilnosti otrok je predpogoj za smiselno načrtovanje dela in izbiro primernih vsebin gibalnih dejavnosti. Vzgojiteljica in vzgojitelj morata poznati biološke dejavnike razvoja otroka, teorijo gibalne/športne vzgoje in pedagoškega dela. Poznati mora tudi najrazličnejše otrokove lastnosti in sposobnosti, da proces usvajanja gibalnih vsebin primerno zastavi in ga po potrebi tudi individualno prilagodi (Pišot in Jelovčan, 2012).

Gibalno izkušnjo otrok v predšolskem obdobju predstavljajo različni vidiki izkušenj gibanja, med drugimi količina in intenzivnost gibalne dejavnosti kot tudi vsebina izvedenih gibalnih dejavnosti. Priporočila o količini gibalne dejavnosti otrok do 5. leta starosti, ki jih je v letu 2019 objavila Svetovna zdravstvena organizacija (ang. World Health Organization – WHO, 2019) navajajo, da ima gibalna dejavnost otrok v zgodnjem otroštvu izreden pomen pri vseživljenjskem zdravju. Svetovna zdravstvena organizacija (WHO, 2010; WHO, 2019) priporočila za gibalno dejavnost otrok v predšolskem obdobju deli v več starostnih skupin (preglednica 1).

Preglednica 1: Priporočila za gibalno dejavnost otrok v predšolskem obdobju (WHO, 2010; WHO, 2019)

Starost	Priporočila Svetovne zdravstvene organizacije za gibalno dejavnost predšolskih otrok
< 1 leto	Otrok naj bo gibalno dejaven večkrat na dan v različnih oblikah, priporoča se dejavnost v obliki elementarnih gibanj; ko je otrok zmožen premikanja, se priporoča čim večja gibalna dejavnost v varnem in nadzorovanem igralnem okolju.
1–2 leti	Otrok naj bo gibalno dejaven vsaj 180 minut dnevno v različnih oblikah dejavnosti in različnih intenzivnostih, vključno z zmerno do visoko intenzivno gibalno dejavnostjo. Velja načelo *več je bolje*; gibalna dejavnost naj bo razporejena čez cel dan, vključujoč igro v naravnem okolju.
3–4 leta	Otrok naj bo gibalno dejaven vsaj 180 minut dnevno v različnih oblikah dejavnosti in različnih intenzivnostih. *Velja načelo več je bolje*; znotraj 180 minut naj bo vsaj 60 minut dnevno gibalno dejaven v zmerni do visoki intenzivnosti gibalne dejavnosti.
5–17 let	Priporočena gibalna dejavnost je vsaj 60 minut dnevno v zmerni do visoki intenzivnosti gibalne dejavnosti; količina gibalne dejavnosti, večja od 60 minut, omogoča zdravju ugodnejše učinke; ečina dnevne gibalne dejavnosti naj bo aerobnega tipa; dodatno se priporoča vadba za krepitev mišično-skeletnega sistema vsaj 3- krat tedensko.

Cilji za področje dejavnosti gibanja, ki so opredeljeni v Kurikulumu za vrtce (Bahovec idr. 1999), za otroke v predšolskem obdobju predvidevajo mnogotero in raznovrstno izpostavljenost različnim dražljajem okolja in nalog, ki spodbujajo pridobivanje bogatih gibalnih izkušenj, opravljanje različnih gibalnih izzivov z namenom razvoja zavedanja lastnega telesa v prostoru in doživljanja pozitivnih občutkov v gibanju ter usvajanje najrazličnejših gibalnih struktur (Videmšek in Pišot, 2007; Lemos, Avigo in Barela, 2012). Kurikulum za vrtce tako predstavlja vsebino in kvalitativno osnovo priporočilom Svetovne zdravstvene organizacije o količini in intenzivnosti gibalnih dejavnosti predšolskih otrok. Številne študije ugotavljajo povezanost med količino in intenzivnostjo gibalnih dejavnosti ter usvojenostjo temeljnih gibalnih spretnosti predšolskih otrok (Foweather, Knowles, Ridgers, O'Dwyer, Foulkes in Stratton, 2015; Barnett, Ridgers in Salmon, 2015; Figueroa in An, 2017; Roscoe, James in Duncan, 2019). Količina in intenzivnost gibalnih dejavnosti otrok sta v upadu (Marques, Minderico, Martins, Palmeira, Ekelund in Sardinha, 2016), zato se veliko vlaga v učinke različnih intervencij za povečevanje količine in intenzivnosti gibalnih dejavnosti (Ling, Robbins, Wen in Peng, 2015).

Raziskave se pogosto usmerjajo v objektivno beleženje in preučevanje količine, intenzivnosti in vsebine gibalnih dejavnosti predšolskih otrok (Cain, Sallis, Conway, Van Dyck in Calhoon, 2013; Pereira, Cliff, Sousa-Sá, Zhang in Santos, 2019) ter preučevanje dejavnikov, ki nanjo vplivajo (Bingham, Costa, Hinkley, Shire, Clemes in Barber, 2016). Na gibalno dejavnost otrok znotraj programa predšolske vzgoje, tako glede količine, intenzivnosti, odmorov, pogostosti gibalnih dejavnosti in vsebine, vplivajo številni dejavniki, in sicer tudi značilnosti vodenja gibalnih dejavnosti s strani vzgojiteljice in vzgojitelja (Chow, McKenzie in Louie, 2015).

Ocena lastne kompetentnosti vzgojiteljic in vzgojiteljev za vodenje gibalnih dejavnosti predšolskih otrok predstavlja enega izmed dejavnikov kakovostnega vodenja dejavnosti. To je odvisno od številnih osebnih lastnosti vzgojiteljic in vzgojiteljev, splošne in strokovne izobrazbe, predanosti poklicu in delu z otroki ter od drugih dejavnikov (Cugmas, 2009). Zavedanje svoje kompetentnosti lahko vodi k uporabi primernejših metod in oblik izvajanja dejavnosti. Na uporabo različnih metod in oblik izvajanja gibalnih dejavnosti se otroci namreč lahko različno odzivajo, tudi s količino in intenzivnostjo gibalne dejavnosti (Van Cauwenberghe, De Craemer, De Decker, De Bourdeaudhuij in Cardon, 2013; Frank, Flynn, Farnell in Barkley, 2018). Za uspešnost v vzgojiteljskem poklicu je pomembna tudi dobra telesna pripravljenost, saj se pri svojem delu vzgojiteljice in vzgojitelji vsakodnevno srečujejo s številnimi obremenitvami (Gregorc, Štihec, Videmšek, Cemič in Meško, 2010). Za večjo vključenost otrok v gibalne dejavnosti v vrtcu je pomemben tudi pozitiven odnos vzgojiteljice in vzgojitelja do gibalnih dejavnosti (Zajec, 2009). McKenzie, LaMaster, Sallis in Marshall (1999) ugotavljajo, da učitelji, ki so gibalno dejavnejši v svojem prostem času, promocijo gibalnih dejavnosti med učenci izvajajo dejavnejše, prav tako ponujajo gibalno bolj dejavne vsebine. Vzgojiteljice in vzgojitelji, ki so sami pogosteje gibalno dejavni, tudi pogosteje organizirajo gibalne dejavnosti v vrtcu (Markovšek, 2014). Le redke študije ugotavljajo gibalno dejavnost vzgojiteljic in vzgojiteljev ter jo obravnavajo kot dejavnik gibalne dejavnosti otrok. Cheung (2019) ugotavlja, da so predšolski otroci pri gibalno dejavnejših vzgojiteljicah in vzgojiteljih med predšolsko vzgojo izvajali gibalno dejavnost višje intenzivnosti. Vzgojiteljice in vzgojitelji se pomena in pomembnosti gibalnih/športnih dejavnosti za otrokov celostni razvoj sicer dobro zavedajo (Gregorc, Štihec, Videmšek, Cemič in Meško, 2010; Sajevic, 2016).

Vloga vzgojiteljice in vzgojitelja v procesu vodenja gibalnih dejavnosti v vrtcu je večplastna, kaže se tudi v njegovem lastnem odnosu do gibalnih dejavnosti, do vloge gibalnih dejavnosti za razvoj otroka, pa tudi v njegovih kompetencah, ki jih ima za področje vodenja gibalnih dejavnosti otrok v predšolskem obdobju. Kompetence vzgojiteljice in vzgojitelja predstavljajo zmožnost uporabe znanja, spretnosti, sposobnosti, izkušenj, veščin, odnosov, osebnostnih lastnosti in motivacije, da posameznik na sebi lasten način uspešno opravi pričakovano delo in vlogo (Retar, Plevnik in Kolar, 2013) in se na področju vodenja gibalnih dejavnosti izražajo v načinih dela, pristopih, odnosih, vrstah in oblikah posredovanja vsebin gibalnih dejavnosti predšolskim otrokom (Retar in Lepičnik - Vodopivec, 2017). Kompetentnost prihaja do izraza, ko je njena vsebina postavljena v okvir fizičnega in socialnega okolja, v katerem posameznik opravlja določeno nalogo. Kompetentnost posameznika določajo standardi in zahteve situacije (Kaslow idr., 2007; Hmelak in Lepičnik - Vodopivec, 2016). Zavedanje in ocena lastne kompetentnosti predstavlja le en del uspešnega vodenja vsebin (Kaslow idr., 2007; Kalin, Peklaj, Pečjak, Levpušček in Zuljan, 2017), tudi na področju vodenja gibalnih/športnih dejavnosti (Retar in Lepičnik - Vodopivec, 2017; Plevnik in Peternelj, 2019). Zavedanje svoje kompetentnosti, ki vključuje tako prepoznavo strokovno močnih kot šibkejših področij vzgojiteljice in vzgojitelja, je pomembno za strokovno nadgrajevanje in bogatitev kompetenc v procesu vseživljenjskega razvoja in učenja. Teoretični model strukture kompetenc inovativnega gibalnega poučevanja (Retar in Lepičnik - Vodopivec, 2017) predstavlja področja generičnih in strukturo specifičnih kompetenc za učinkovito gibalno poučevanje. Med ključne specifične kompetence Retar in Lepičnik - Vodopivec (2017) uvrščata: učinkovito komuniciranje z otroki, oblikovanje varnega učnega okolja, razvijanje strategij za motiviranje, ustvarjalno izbiranje didaktičnih pripomočkov, učinkovito razvijanje gibalnih sposobnosti, prepoznavanje gibalnih potreb in pričakovanj otrok in njihovo uresničevanje, prepoznavanje gibalno nadarjenih otrok in prilagajanje njihovim posebnostim, sodelovanje s starši otrok in drugimi osebami, odgovornimi za otroke, sodelovanje s športnimi strokovnjaki ter prenašanje in uvajanje primerov dobrih praks v svoje delo.

Namen naše raziskave je bil ugotoviti, kako vzgojiteljice in vzgojitelji ocenjujejo svojo kompetentnost za vodenje procesa gibalnih/športnih dejavnosti v vrtcu ter ali predstavlja njihova prostočasna gibalna dejavnost dejavnik njihove zaznave lastne kompetentnosti.

Opažamo namreč, da redna prostočasna gibalna dejavnost vzgojiteljic in vzgojiteljev pogosto ni opredeljena kot dejavnik gibalne dejavnosti otrok v programih predšolske vzgoje.

Metode

Postopki in organizacija zbiranja podatkov

Za namen študije smo oblikovali spletni vprašalnik. Uporabili smo način priložnostnega, neverjetnostnega vzorčenja. Povezavo smo objavili v več spletnih strokovnih skupinah in povabili vzgojiteljice in vzgojitelje k izpolnjevanju. Vprašanja so bila oblikovana v več vsebinsko zaokroženih sklopih, in sicer: (i) osebne značilnosti, (ii) značilnosti gibalnih navad, (iii) značilnosti vrtca, (iv) kompetence za izvajanje različnih vsebin dejavnosti v predšolski vzgoji in (v) kompetence za vodenje različnih faz gibalnih/športnih dejavnosti. Za nadaljnjo analizo je bilo primerno izpolnjenih 35 % vprašalnikov.

Del vprašalnika, ki se je nanašal na oceno kompetenc za posamezne faze vodenja gibalnih dejavnosti (načrtovanje, organiziranje, izvajanje in vrednotenje), je bil sestavljen iz trditev, ki so jih vzgojiteljice in vzgojitelji ocenjevali s pomočjo 6-stopenjske Likertove lestvice, na kateri so stopnje pomenile – ocena 1 (kompetenca ni razvita), 2 (izredno slabo razvita kompetenca), 3 (slabo razvita kompetenca), 4 (razvita kompetenca), 5 (dobro razvita kompetenca) in 6 (odlično razvita kompetenca). Preverili smo merske značilnosti vprašalnika. Vsebinsko veljavnost smo zagotovili tako, da smo vprašalnik sestavili na podlagi teoretičnih izhodišč in pregleda objavljenih raziskav (Erčulj idr., 2008; Zajec, 2009; Retar, Plevnik in Kolar, 2013; Retar in Lepičnik - Vodopivec, 2017; Marinšek, Jurak in Kovač, 2019). Zagotavljanju objektivnosti smo sledili z jasnimi navodili za izpolnjevanje. Svojo gibalno/športno dejavnost so vzgojiteljice in vzgojitelji ocenili subjektivno, in sicer je kriterij gibalne dejavnosti predstavljalo izvajanje redne oblike gibalne/športne dejavnosti, vsaj 2-krat tedensko po najmanj 60 minut. Veljavnost dela vprašalnika, ki se nanaša na oceno kompetenc, smo preverili z metodo faktorske analize, s katero smo skupaj pojasnili 73,83 % variance. Občutljivost smo zagotovili z ustreznim številom stopenj odgovorov za oceno kompetenc. Zanesljivost vprašalnika smo testirali z Cronbachovim alfa koeficientom, ki je pokazal zadostno zanesljivost celotnega vprašalnika v delu ocenjevanja kompetenc ($\alpha = 0{,}871$), kot tudi po posameznih fazah vodenja gibalnih dejavnosti (α vrednosti od 0,853 do 0,950).

Vrednost Kaiser-Meyer-Olkinovega preizkusa (KMO) je znašala 0,941, kar potrjuje vrednost vzorčenja, saj je KMO višja od priporočene (KMO vsaj 0,60). Bartlettov preizkus sferičnosti je pokazal, da so povezave med spremenljivkami dovolj visoke ($p < 0,001$), zato so podatki primerni za analizo. Na podlagi izračuna komunalitet (deleža variance postavk, ki je pojasnjen s skupnimi faktorji), smo ugotovili, da nobena od komunalitet ni nižja od priporočene vrednosti 0,20 (Child, 2006).

Vzorec

Vzorec raziskave predstavlja 177 oseb (98,3 % vzgojiteljic in 1,7 % vzgojiteljev), ki so ustrezno izpolnile vprašalnik (preglednica 2). Zaradi majhnega deleža oseb anketirancev moškega spola, vzorca po spolu v analizi nismo ločevali.

Preglednica 2: Značilnosti vzorca

Skupina	**Velikost**		**Starost (let)**		**Čas zaposlitve (let)**	
	n	%	AS	SD	AS	SD
Gibalno dejavne vzgojiteljice in vzgojitelji	117	66,1	38,8	10,6	14,6	12,98
Gibalno nedejavne vzgojiteljice in vzgojitelji	60	33,9	38,4	10,3	15,07	12,31
Skupaj	177	100	38,7	10,5	14,8	12,7

Legenda: AS: aritmetična sredina; SD: standardni odklon; n: število oseb; %: odstotek vzorca

Glede na kraj zaposlitve je 57 % anketiranih zaposlenih v mestnem vrtcu, 13,4 % v primestnem in 27,9 % v vaškem vrtcu. Z otroki prve starostne skupine dela 39 % ter z otroki druge starostne skupine 61 % anketiranih. Značilnosti njihovega zaposlitvenega statusa so bile naslednje: 84,9 % anketiranih je imelo pogodbo za nedoločen čas, 12,9 % pogodbo za določen čas, 1,1 % pa drugo obliko zaposlitve. Izobrazbene značilnosti so bile naslednje: 34,1 % anketiranih ima končano srednješolsko izobrazbo, 6,3 % višješolsko, 37,5 % visokošolsko, 19,3 % univerzitetno izobrazbo ter 2,8 % zaključen magisterij. Značilnosti delovnih mest so bile: 63,8 % anketiranih je bilo zaposlenih na delovnem mestu vzgojiteljica/vzgojitelj, 28,2 % pomočnica/pomočnik vzgojiteljice/vzgojitelja ter 7,9 % v strokovnem vodstvu. Gibalno dejavni in nedejavni anketirani se po starosti in trajanju zaposlitve niso statistično značilno razlikovali (preglednica 2).

Metode analize podatkov

Podatki so bili analizirani s programom IBM SPSS 23. Uporabili smo metode opisne statistike ter po testiranju predpostavk statističnih testov $\chi 2$-test in Mann-Whitneyjev U-test za analizo razlik. Kot mero velikosti učinka smo uporabili koeficient r ($r = z/\sqrt{N}$), pri čemer predstavlja vrednost 0,1 majhen, 0,3 srednji in 0,5 velik učinek (Fritz, Morris in Richler, 2012). Statistično značilnost smo ugotavljali na ravni tveganja $p < 0,05$. Rezultati so predstavljeni kot aritmetična sredina ± standardni odklon (AS ± SD), v primeru analize z neparametričnimi testi pa kot povprečje rangov.

Rezultati

Za *gibalno dejavne* se je opredelilo 117 anketiranih (66,1 %), kot *gibalno nedejavne* 60 anketiranih (33,9 %), pri čemer je kriterij gibalne dejavnosti predstavljalo izvajanje redne oblike prostočasne gibalne/športne dejavnosti, vsaj 2-krat tedensko po najmanj 60 minut. Preverili smo raven njihove gibalne dejavnosti glede na njihovo preteklo vključenostjo v organiziran proces gibalne/športne vadbe. V skupini gibalno dejavnih jih 39 % navaja preteklo vključenost v redno organiziran proces gibalne/športne vadbe, 27,1 % vključenosti ne navaja. V skupini gibalno nedejavnih anketiranih jih 18,6 % vključenost v redno organiziran proces gibalne/športne vadbe navaja, 42,4 % pa vključenosti ne navaja. Trenutna redna gibalna dejavnost anketiranih ni povezana z njihovo preteklo vključenostjo v redno organiziran proces gibalne/športne vadbe $\chi 2(1) = 0,257$, $p = 0,612$.

V povprečju vzgojiteljice in vzgojitelji svojo kompetentnost za razvoj dejavnosti na področju gibanja, opredeljenem v Kurikulumu za vrtce (Bahovec idr., 1999), v primerjavi z drugimi področji ocenjujejo kot najvišjo. Izrazite razlike se pokažejo po skupinah gibalno dejavnih in nedejavnih. Pri gibalno dejavnih anketiranih zaznamo med vsemi področji oceno svoje kompetence za razvoj gibanja otrok kot najvišjo, pri gibalno nedejavnih anketiranih pa kot najnižjo ($U = 1601,5$; $p < 0,001$; $r = 0,27$) (preglednica 3).

Preglednica 3: Ocena kompetentnosti za izvajanje vsebin področij dejavnosti v predšolski vzgoji

Področje dejavnosti	**Skupaj**		**Gibalno dejavne vzgojiteljice in vzgojitelji**	**Gibalno nedejavne vzgojiteljice in vzgojitelji**	**U**	**p**	**r**
	AS	SD	Povprečje rangov	Povprečje rangov			
Gibanje	*4,87*	*0,9*	*81,82*	*57,53*	*1601,5*	*< 0,001*	*0,27*
Jezik	4,84	0,82	76,36	66,62	2056	0,152	
Narava	4,82	0,9	75,51	69,65	2207,5	0,401	
Družba	4,79	0,82	77,19	66,41	2045,5	0,118	
Umetnost	4,76	0,86	75,20	70,24	2237	0,473	
Matematika	4,66	0,96	75,25	70,14	2232	0,462	

Legenda: AS: aritmetična sredina; SD: standardni odklon; p: statistična značilnost razlik; U: velikost Mann-Whitneyjev U; r: velikost učinka

Vodenje procesa športnih dejavnosti obsega načrtovanje, organiziranje, izvajanje, spremljanje in vrednotenje procesa športne vadbe (ZSpo-1, 2017). V okviru predšolske vzgoje vodenje gibalnih/športnih dejavnosti sicer ne predstavlja procesa športne vadbe, navaja pa Kurikulum za vrtce (Bahovec idr., 1999) načelo strokovne utemeljenosti kurikuluma, tudi z vidika spoznanj znanstvenih ved, ki opredeljujejo področja dejavnosti v vrtcu. V nadaljevanju bomo tako predstavili posamezne kompetence po posameznih fazah vodenja gibalnih/športnih dejavnosti.

Obe skupini anketiranih z vidika načrtovanja ocenjujeta kompetenco oblikovanja posamezne učne ure kot najvišjo, vendar prihaja do statistično pomembne razlike v oceni ($U = 1853{,}5$; $p = 0{,}01$; $r = 0{,}21$). Kot najnižje ocenjeno kompetenco obe skupini ocenjujeta kompetenco priprave letnega programa gibalnih/športnih dejavnosti (preglednica 4).

Preglednica 4: Ocena kompetentnosti za vodenje gibalnih/športnih dejavnosti v vrtcu *z vidika načrtovanja*

Kompetence za vodenje gibalnih/športnih dejavnosti v vrtcu z vidika načrtovanja	**Skupaj**		**Gibalno dejavne vzgojitelji ce in vzgojitelji**	**Gibalno nedejavne vzgojiteljice in vzgojitelji**	**U**	**p**	**r**
	AS	SD	Povprečje rangov	Povprečje rangov			
Znam oblikovati učno pripravo za uro gibalnih/športnih dejavnosti.	5,07	0,88	80,19	62,34	1853,5	0,01	0,21
Znam načrtovati program gibalnih/športnih dejavnosti z didaktičnega vidika.	4,74	0,95	80,20	58,03	1626,5	0,001	0,27
Znam načrtovati program gibalnih/športnih dejavnosti z organizacijskega vidika.	4,71	0,94	81,13	59,28	1697,5	0,002	0,26
Znam prepoznati gibalno nadarjene otroke ter prilagajati delo njihovim posebnostim.	4,71	0,96	80,16	61,10	1790	0,006	0,23
Znam načrtovati svoj strokovni razvoj in vseživljenjsko učenje.	4,68	0,98	78,13	61,91	1820,5	0,019	0,19
Znam prepoznati otroke s posebnostmi v gibalnem razvoju in prilagajati delo njihovim posebnostim.	4,68	0,95	77,71	62,08	1804	0,004	0,24
Znam načrtovati program gibalnih/športnih dejavnosti s količinskega vidika.	4,6	0,94	81,34	58,89	1677,5	0,001	0,27
Znam pripraviti letni program gibalnih/športnih dejavnosti.	4,43	1,04	77,71	65,66	2022,5	0,084	

Legenda: AS: aritmetična sredina; SD: standardni odklon; p: statistična značilnost razlik; U: velikost Mann-Whitneyjev U; r: velikost učinka

Preglednica 5: Ocena kompetentnosti za izvajanje gibalnih/športnih dejavnosti v vrtcu *z vidika organiziranja*

Kompetence za izvajanje gibalnih/športnih dejavnosti v vrtcu z vidika organiziranja	**Skupaj**		**Gibalno dejavne vzgojiteljice in vzgojitelji**	**Gibalno nedejavne vzgojiteljice in vzgojitelji**	**U**	**p**	**r**
	AS	SD	Povprečje rangov	Povprečje rangov			
Znam organizirati gibalne/športne dejavnosti v naravi.	5,07	0,82	77,81	63,86	1918	0,034	0,17
Sposoben/-na sem organizirati izvajanje gibalnih/športnih dejavnosti.	5,06	0,84	80,03	61,33	1802	0,006	0,23
Sposoben/-na sem organizirati sodelovanje s starši.	5,05	0,89	75,61	63,94	1922	0,075	
Sposoben/-na sem organizirati sodelovanje s svojim delovnim okoljem.	5,04	0,76	74,59	69,97	2223,5	0,489	
Znam organizirati didaktične gibalne/športne igre.	5,03	0,77	78,05	63,41	1895,5	0,026	0,18
Znam izbrati primernost gibalnih nalog glede na materialne pogoje dela.	5,03	0,77	78,54	64,11	1943,5	0,030	0,14
Znam izbrati zahtevnost gibalnih nalog, ki so primerne otrokovemu individualnemu razvoju.	4,86	0,89	78,09	64,95	1986,5	0,051	

Legenda: AS: aritmetična sredina; SD: standardni odklon; p: statistična značilnost razlik; U: velikost Mann Whitneyjev U, r: velikost učinka

Najvišje ocenjena kompetenca z vidika organiziranja gibalnih/športnih dejavnosti je kompetenca organiziranja gibalnih/športnih dejavnosti v naravi, v oceni katere se obe skupini statistično značilno razlikujeta ($U = 1918$; $p = 0{,}034$; $r = 0{,}17$). Gibalna dejavnost anketiranih ni dejavnik, ki bi bil povezan z organizacijo sodelovanja s starši in sodelovanja z delovnim okoljem. Prav tako ni povezan z zmožnostjo izbire zahtevnosti primernih gibalnih nalog (preglednica 5).

Vzgojiteljice in vzgojitelji se statistično značilno razlikujejo v oceni svoje kompetence znanja izbire primernih gibalnih nalog glede na materialne pogoje dela $\chi2(2) = 12{,}880$, $p = 0{,}002$. Vzgojiteljice in vzgojitelji, ki imajo v svojem delovnem okolju na voljo več opreme za izvajanje gibalne dejavnosti, omenjeno kompetenco ocenjujejo višje.

Preglednica 6: Ocena kompetentnosti za izvajanje gibalnih/športnih dejavnosti v vrtcu *z vidika izvajanja*

Kompetence za izvajanje gibalnih/športnih dejavnosti v vrtcu z vidika izvajanja	**Skupaj**		**Gibalno dejavne vzgojiteljice in vzgojitelji**	**Gibalno nedejavne vzgojiteljice in vzgojitelji**	**U**	**p**	**r**
	AS	SD	Povprečje rangov	Povprečje rangov			
Sposoben/-na sem zagotoviti varnost otrok.	5,3	0,72	78,51	64,17	1946,5	0,030	0,18
Znam spodbujati otrokov napredek.	5,27	0,66	79,26	62,76	1875	0,011	0,21
Zmorem vzpostaviti varno, prijetno in zaupljivo vzdušje.	5,25	0,71	77,68	64,11	1930,5	0,042	0,17
Sposoben/-na sem ustvariti dobro sodelovalno ozračje.	5,12	0,77	79,57	62,20	1846	0,011	0,21
Znam motivirati otroka s primernimi učnimi športnimi pripomočki.	5,11	0,74	77,92	63,93	1934,5	0,034	0,18
Znam poskrbeti za obvladovanje zmage in poraza pri otrocih.	5,05	0,76	79,89	61,60	1815,5	0,007	0,23
Zmorem izvesti gibalne/športne aktivnosti, ki razvijajo gibalne sposobnosti otroka.	5,0	0,81	79,57	62,19	1845,5	0,008	0,22
Znam prenesti v prakso teoretična didaktična znanja.	4,86	0,78	79,55	62,24	1848	0,009	0,22
Obvladam demonstracijo gibalnih/športnih aktivnosti.	4,79	0,95	79,45	62,42	1857,5	0,014	0,2
Znam uporabljati inovativne učno-vzgojne pristope.	4,79	0,84	76,88	65,84	2032	0,105	

Legenda: AS: aritmetična sredina; SD: standardni odklon; p: statistična značilnost razlik; U: velikost Mann-Whitneyjev U; r: velikost učinka

Najvišje ocenjena kompetenca z vidika izvajanja gibalnih/športnih dejavnosti, tudi v primerjavi z drugimi vidiki, je kompetenca zagotavljanja varnosti (preglednica 6). V oceni kompetence zagotavljanja varnosti se skupini gibalno dejavnih in nedejavnih anketiranih sicer statistično značilno razlikujeta ($U = 1946{,}5$; $p = 0{,}030$; $r = 0{,}18$). Najnižje ocenjena kompetenca v skupini gibalno nedejavnih je kompetenca sposobnosti demonstracije izvedbe gibalnih nalog ($U = 1857{,}5$; $p = 0{,}014$; $r = 0{,}2$). Statistično značilno se razlikujejo v oceni svoje kompetence znanja motiviranja otroka s primernimi učnimi športnimi pripomočki ($\chi2(2) = 7{,}745$, $p = 0{,}021$) tudi glede na dejavnik opreme, ki je na voljo za izvajanje gibalnih/športnih dejavnosti v delovnem okolju. Pri anketiranih z večjo možnostjo izbire opreme zaznamo omenjeno kompetenco ocenjeno više.

Preglednica 7: Ocena kompetentnosti za izvajanje gibalnih/športnih dejavnosti v vrtcu *z vidika vrednotenja*

Kompetence za izvajanje gibalnih/športnih dejavnosti v vrtcu z vidika vrednotenja	**Skupaj**		**Gibalno dejavne vzgojiteljice in vzgojitelji**	**Gibalno nedejavne vzgojiteljice in vzgojitelji**	**U**	**p**	**r**
	AS	SD	Povprečje rangov	Povprečje rangov			
Znam prepoznati otrokov gibalni napredek.	4,98	0,82	82,29	57,13	1587,5	0,001	0,31
Znam ustrezno nagraditi otrokov gibalni napredek.	4,77	0,96	79,89	61,60	1815,5	0,008	0,22
Zmorem samokritično oceniti svoje delo.	4,77	0,85	81,31	57,69	1616	0,001	0,29
Sem usposobljen/-a izmeriti otrokov gibalni napredek.	4,19	1,14	79,11	63,05	1889,5	0,023	0,19

Legenda: AS: aritmetična sredina; SD: standardni odklon; p: statistična značilnost razlik; U: velikost Mann-Whitneyjev U; r: velikost učinka

Z vidika vrednotenja procesa gibalnih/športnih dejavnosti obe skupini anketiranih najvišje ocenjujeta kompetenco sposobnosti prepoznave gibalnega napredka otroka ($U = 1587{,}5$; $p < 0{,}001$; $r = 0{,}31$) ter kot najnižje sposobnosti objektivne ocene oziroma izmere napredka v gibalnem razvoju otrok ($U = 1889{,}5$; $p = 0{,}023$; $r = 0{,}19$) (preglednica 7).

Razprava

Glavni namen predstavljene študije je bil ugotoviti, ali prostočasna gibalna dejavnost vzgojiteljic in vzgojiteljev predstavlja dejavnik subjektivne zaznave njihovih lastnih kompetenc za vodenje gibalnih dejavnosti predšolskih otrok. Rezultati kažejo, da gibalno dejavnejše vzgojiteljice in dejavnejši vzgojitelji svoje kompetence za razvoj področja gibanja kot področja dejavnosti v predšolski vzgoji ocenjujejo statistično značilno višje, prav tako ocenjujejo višje tudi večino kompetenc po posameznih fazah vodenja gibalnih/športnih dejavnosti. Obe skupini, tako redno gibalno dejavnih kot nedejavnih vzgojiteljic in vzgojiteljev, kot najvišje ocenjeno kompetenco ocenjujejo kompetenco zagotavljanja varnosti otrok. Ugotovitev je skladna tudi z rezultati raziskave, ki sta jo opravila Retar in Lepičnik - Vodopivec (2017). Kot najnižje ocenjeno obe skupini anketiranih opredeljujeta kompetenco sposobnosti izmere gibalnega napredka otrok.

Rezultati nakazujejo, da je redna gibalna dejavnost vzgojiteljic in vzgojiteljev povezana z njihovo zaznavo kompetenc za vodenje gibalnih/športnih dejavnosti predšolskih otrok. Pomembna razlika se kaže pri oceni kompetenc za razvoj posameznih področjih dejavnosti v predšolski vzgoji, kjer gibalno dejavne vzgojiteljice in dejavni vzgojitelji ocenjujejo kompetenco za razvoj gibanja otrok, opredeljeno kot področje v Kurikulumu za vrtce, kot najvišjo, gibalno nedejavne vzgojiteljice in nedejavni vzgojitelji pa kot najnižjo. Gibanje je med vsemi področji dejavnosti v predšolski vzgoji edino, kjer prihaja do statistično pomembnih razlik v oceni kompetenc med skupinama gibalno dejavnih in gibalno nedejavnih anketiranih. Najvišje ocenjene kompetence obeh skupin so sposobnost oblikovanja posamezne učne ure gibalne/športne dejavnosti, organizacija izvedbe in dejavnosti v naravi, zagotavljanje varnosti ter prepoznava otrokovega gibalnega napredka, se pa skupini razlikujeta v oceni kompetenc po posameznih vidikih vodenja. Dejavniki, ki pozitivno vplivajo na otrokov razvoj, so različni (Cugmas, 2009). To so varno in zdravo okolje, vključenost v razvojno primerne in spodbudne dejavnosti, interakcije z odraslimi, možnosti za socialno delovanje ter razvoj komunikacijskih spretnosti. Pomen nekaterih omenjenih dejavnikov za spodbuden gibalni razvoj otroka v teoretičnem modelu strukture kompetenc gibalnega poučevanja predstavljata tudi Retar in Lepičnik - Vodopivec (2017).

Rezultati naše raziskave kažejo, da so nekatere ključne specifične kompetence za vodenje procesa gibalnih dejavnosti predšolskih otrok, in sicer ne glede na dejavnik gibalne dejavnosti vzgojiteljic in vzgojiteljev ocenjene zelo visoko. To kaže, da se vzgojiteljice in vzgojitelji zavedajo izrednega pomena vzpostavitve varnega okolja. Med ključne specifične kompetence omenjena avtorja uvrščata tudi sodelovanje s starši otrok in drugimi osebami, odgovornimi za otroke. Rezultati kažejo, da pri gibalno dejavnih in gibalno nedejavnih anketiranih pri oceni omenjene kompetence ne zaznamo razlik. Najnižje ocenjena kompetenca v skupini gibalno nedejavnih z vidika izvajanja gibalnih/športnih dejavnosti je kompetenca sposobnosti demonstracije izvedbe gibalnih nalog. Demonstracija gibanja ima v predšolskem obdobju pomembno vlogo, ne izraža le demonstracije gibanja, ampak gre za način sporazumevanja med vzgojiteljico ali vzgojiteljem in otroki ter med otroki samimi (Videmšek in Pišot, 2007). Kompetenco učinkovitega komuniciranja z otroki Retar in Lepičnik - Vodopivec (2017) uvrščata med ključne specifične kompetence za vodenje procesa gibalnih dejavnosti predšolskih otrok.

Vrednosti velikosti učinkov razlik med gibalno dejavnimi in gibalno nedejavnimi anketiranimi ($r = 0{,}14$ do $r = 0{,}33$) kažejo, da so ugotovljeni učinki majhni do srednji, kar nakazuje statistično moč dejavnika gibalne dejavnosti vzgojiteljic in vzgojiteljev za subjektivno oceno lastne kompetentnosti vodenja gibalnih dejavnosti predšolskih otrok.

Raziskav, v katerih bi kot dejavnik objektivno izmerjene gibalne dejavnosti otrok v času predšolske vzgoje upoštevali tudi objektivno izmerjeno prostočasno gibalno dejavnost vzgojiteljic in vzgojiteljev, nismo zasledili. Sami svojo prostočasno gibalno dejavnost v večini raziskav ocenjujejo subjektivno (Prašnikar, 2011; Markovšek, 2014). Študije sicer nakazujejo odstopanja v objektivni izmeri in subjektivni oceni gibalne dejavnosti (Dyrstad, Hansen, Holme in Anderssen, 2014). Kot uvodoma omenjeno, se vzgojitelji pomena in pomembnosti gibalnih dejavnosti za otrokov celostni razvoj dobro zavedajo (Gregorc, Štihec, Videmšek, Cemič in Meško, 2010; Sajevic, 2016). Opažamo pomanjkanje raziskav, ki bi objektivno spremljale gibalno dejavnost vzgojiteljic in vzgojiteljev ter pridobljene rezultate upoštevale kot dejavnik gibalnih dejavnosti otrok v programih predšolske vzgoje.

Sklep

Študija vsebuje omejitve, predvsem nereprezentativnost vzorca in subjektivnost ocene ter vrednotenja redne gibalne dejavnosti in samozaznanih kompetenc. Kljub temu z ugotovitvami študije lahko poudarimo pomen redne prostočasne gibalne dejavnosti vzgojiteljic in vzgojiteljev, posredno tudi za gibalno dejavnost predšolskih otrok. Rezultati sami po sebi ne nakazujejo, da prostočasna gibalna dejavnost vzgojiteljic in vzgojiteljev predstavlja dejavnik, ki je povezan s količino, intenzivnostjo ali vsebino gibalnih dejavnosti otrok. Nakazujejo pa, da gibalno dejavnejše vzgojiteljice in dejavnejši vzgojitelji izkazujejo večjo stopnjo zaznane kompetentnosti za vodenje, s tem pa tudi za izbiro oblik, metod in načinov izvajanja gibalnih dejavnosti. Opažamo pomanjkanje študij, ki bi prostočasno gibalno dejavnost vzgojiteljic in vzgojiteljev upoštevale kot dejavnik gibalnega udejstvovanja otrok v predšolski vzgoji. V prihodnje bi zato kot enega izmed dejavnikov gibalnih/športnih dejavnosti otrok v predšolski vzgoji veljalo upoštevati tudi prostočasno gibalno dejavnost vzgojiteljic in vzgojiteljev ter dejavnik tudi objektivno spremljati in vrednotiti.

Ključna naloga vzgojiteljic in vzgojiteljev na področju gibalnega razvoja otrok je ponuditi otroku spodbudno okolje in vsebine ter ga s svojim zgledom motivirati za gibalno/športno dejavnost.

Redna gibalna dejavnost vzgojiteljic in vzgojiteljev ni pomembna zgolj zaradi njihove zaznave lastnih kompetenc na področju vodenja gibalnih dejavnosti v vrtcu, temveč tudi kot dejavnik zdravja in splošne kakovosti življenja.

Summary

The preschool period is an important period for the formation of physical activity habits and patterns (Janz, Burns & Levy, 2005). Physical activity in early childhood has an overall effect on the child's development, with a significant impact on physical, musculoskeletal, cardiovascular and cognitive development (Timmons et al., 2012; LeBlanc et al., 2012). Therefore, the development of movement, as one fields of activity in kindergarten, is of particular importance. A child's movement activity in the early years of their life provides the basis for movement activities later in adulthood and has a significant influence on the factors of health in adulthood (Timmons et al., 2012).

The purpose of our study was to determine how preschool teachers evaluate their competence for leading the process of physical activity in kindergartens and whether their physical activity is a factor that influences their perception of their own competence. We noted that the leisure-time activity of preschool teachers is often not defined as a factor affecting the physical activity of children in preschool programmes. One hundred and seventz-seven preschool teachers, aged from 20 to 59 years, participated in the study. For the data collection on self-assessed physical activity and the subjective assessment of competence for leading the process of physical activity among preschool children, we used a web questionnaire. The data was analysed with IBM SPSS 23.0, using methods of descriptive statistics and $\chi 2$ test and Mann-Whitney U test for the analysis of differences. We used the coefficient r ($r = z / \sqrt{N}$) as the measure of effect size, representing 0.1 small, 0.3 medium and 0.5 large effects (Fritz, Morris & Richler, 2012). The statistical significance was set at an alpha level $p < 0.05$. The results show that physically more active preschool teachers assess their competence for the development of the field of movement at a level statistically significantly higher ($U = 1601.5$; $p < 0.001$; $r = 0.27$).

A physically active preschool teacher evaluates the competence for developing the field of movement as the highest, and an inactive one as the lowest. Among all fields of activity in preschool education, movement is the only one where there are statistically significant differences in the assessment of competence between groups of physically active and non-active preschool teachers. Physically active preschool teachers evaluate more highly their competences for planning, organising, implementing and evaluating physical activities. The highest assessed competency is the ability to provide safety, and the lowest is the ability to measure progress in children's movement. The highest assessed competences of both groups according to the stages of the physical activity process are the ability to design individual lessons, the organisation of activities in nature, ensuring safety and the recognition of progress in children's movement. The groups differ in the assessment of competences according to the physical activity process. The results show that physically more active preschool teachers evaluate more highly (to a statistically significant degree) their competences for the development of the field of movement and for leading the process of physical activity. Thus, the results do not indicate that the leisure-time activity of educators affects the amount, intensity or content of the physical activity of children.

They do suggest, however, that more active preschool teachers show a greater degree of perceived competence in leadership, and thus also for the selection of forms and methods for performing physical activity. The key objective of a preschool teacher in the field of movement development is to offer a child a stimulating environment and content, and to motivate them for physical activity. Regular leisure-time physical activity of preschool teachers is important not only because of their perception of their own competence but also as a factor affecting their health and their overall quality of life.

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