Programs and Methods for Developing Entrepreneurial Skills in Higher Education

(Article begins on next page)

Andragoške studije

Časopis za proučavanje obrazovanja i učenja odraslih

Andragogical Studies

Journal for the Study of Adult Education and Learning

AS

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Predgovor urednika

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

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

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

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

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

Univerzitet u Vircburgu, Katedra za obrazovanje odraslih[1] (Julius-Maximilian University Würzburg, Professur für Erwachsenenbildung) i šef Katedre Regina Egetenmajer[2] (Regina Egetenmeyer) od 2015. godine organizuju Zimsku školu pod nazivom „Međunarodno i komparativno obrazovanje odraslih i celoživotno učenje", i to sa mrežom partnera koju čine Univerzitet Aarhus (Danska), Univerzitet u Lisabonu (Portugalija), Univerzitet Helmut Schmidt u Hamburgu (Nemačka), Univerzitet u Firenci (Italija), Univerzitet u Padovi (Italija) i Univerzitet u Pečuju (Mađarska), uz pridružene partnere: Univerzitet u Ljubljani (Slovenija), Univerzitet Minho (Portugalija), Univerzitet Obafemi Avolovo u Ile-Ifeu (Nigerija), Međunarodni institut za učenje odraslih i celoživotno učenje u Nju Delhiju (Indija) i Univerzitet u Delhiju (Indija). Zimska škola u Vircburgu je već postala jedan od najznačajnijih događaja u međunarodnom obrazovanju odraslih, okupljajući svakog februara do 100 polaznika i oko 20 predavača iz celog sveta. Ovaj rad je podržan grantom ERASMUS+ za strateško partnerstvo „Međunarodne i uporedne studije za studente i praktičare u obrazovanju odraslih i celoživotnom učenju" (INTALL) za period 2018–2021. Zimskoj školi se 2020. godine priključilo još nekoliko organizacija – Univerzitet u Dablinu i nevladine organizacije EAEA (Evropska asocijacija za obrazovanje odraslih), nemački DVV International i ICAE (Međunarodni savet za obrazovanje odraslih).

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

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

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[1] https://www.paedagogik.uni-wuerzburg.de/erwachsenenbildung/startseite/

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

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

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

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

Urednici

Editorial

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

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

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

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

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

Since 2015, the Department of Adult Education[1] (Julius-Maximilian University Würzburg, Professur für Erwachsenenbildung) of the University of Würzburg and the chairman of the Department, Regina Egetenmeyer[2], have been organizing a Winter School entitled "International and Comparative Adult Education and Lifelong learning" in cooperation with a number of partners, such as the University of Aarhus (Denmark), University of Lisbon (Portugal), University Helmut Schmidt in Hamburg (Germany), University of Florence (Italy), University of Padua (Italy) and University of Pécs (Hungary), along with the following partners: University of Ljubljana (Slovenia), University of Minho (Portugal), Obafemi Awolowo University in Ile-Ife (Nigeria), the International Institute for Adult Education and Lifelong Learning in New Delhi (India) and the University of Delhi (India). The Winter School in Würzburg has gained recognition as one of the most prominent events in the world of international adult education, taking place in February and welcoming 100 participants and about 20 lecturers across the globe. This work is supported by the ERASMUS+ grant for strategic partnership "International and Comparative Studies for Students and Practitioners in Adult Education and Lifelong Learning" (INTALL) for the 2018—2021 period. The 2020 Winter School welcomed several more participants, such as the University of Dublin and the following non-governmental organizations: EAEA (European Association for the Education of Adults), DVV International (Germany) and ICAE (International Council for Adult Education).

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

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

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[1] https://www.paedagogik.uni-wuerzburg.de/erwachsenenbildung/startseite/

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

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

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

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

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

Editors

Zimska škola Univerziteta u Vircburgu 2020 – članci

University of Würzburg Winter School 2020 – articles

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Learning Cities and Learning Communities: Analyzing Contextual Factors and Their Impacts on Adult and Lifelong Learning in Urban Settings

Abstract: This paper will elaborate upon the contextual aspects of community development in the scope of Learning City and Learning Community related practices of knowledge transfer and sharing in urban environments. Engaged colleagues will provide their critical approaches, reflections and proposals upon how we can understand and recognize adult and lifelong learning through communities trying to reach for peace, understanding, social inclusion and sensitive intercultural and intergenerational aspirations in times of difficulties and challenges affecting our vulnerable relationships. This paper will try to point out matters of equity, human discoveries of collection, sharing and saving values, tradition and dignities through Learning Communities in four different cultural

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environments from the British Isles, India, Palestine and Hungary. Their urban frames might not be necessarily called or considered as Learning Cities, but labels and notions are not the first priority. It is as simple as it sounds: No One Left Behind.

Keywords: learning community, encouragement, trust, sharing knowledge

Learning Cities and Learning Communities

The experience of the last thirty years or more teaches us that responsibility for lifelong learning is too important to be left solely to nation states. Whilst governments make significant progress in the area of structured initial education, they have failed to do anything alike when it comes to supporting young people and adults. This is evident in the outcomes of the UNESCO Education for All (EFA) program, where a commitment to halve the number of illiterate adults over a 15-year period was spectacularly undershot (UNESCO GEM, 2015; Tuckett & Popović, 2015). This is also noticeable in the European Union where member states agreed in 2010 to secure an adult participation rate in learning of 15% by 2020. As the decade ends, the number hovers around 10.5%, which is an increase of just 1.5% throughout the ten years.

Again, in 2015, countries promised in the global Sustainable Development Goals to promote lifelong learning for all—yet the Global Partnership for Education, which was charged with financing the goals, decided it had no money either for adult literacy, or for wider adult learning. In some ways this is unsurprising. Schools need buildings, trained staff, resource materials, to be within safe reach of their pupils and students, or to have technology appropriate for online learning. Making policies, securing funding, and monitoring practice for schools involve tasks the state can both instigate and deliver. In the same way, universities and technological institutions can also be planned for. But things are less clear with lifelong learning.

However, there clearly exists a role for the state in lifelong learning—in developing a clear overall strategy; in supporting literacy, numeracy and digital skills for adults; in supporting second chance provision; in securing an educated workforce and a critically engaged citizenship; and in supporting measures to overcome the marginalization of under-represented groups. However, securing these outcomes is much harder—whereas state support for primary and secondary education is focused on schools, lifelong learning involves a bewildering range of actors. Once again, formal education providers have a role to play, but so do employers, faith-based organizations, civil society organizations, professional associations and the mass media as well. The actors change in different circum-

stances and cannot all be managed from the center. As a result, it is critical that a centrally agreed strategy should then be devolved to regional and sub-regional networks for delivery. As the coronavirus pandemic demonstrates, effective measures to overcome its devastating impact involve the active engagement of civil society as a whole, in adapting behaviors to control the spread of the disease. That engagement involves a national strategy, widespread learning, and effective local partnerships.

Thus, at its heart, the argument for learning cities resides in their ability to match local needs with the coalition of local interests, and the financial resources capable of meeting them. One of the great strengths of city regions is their ability to bring together resources from a variety of different places to address challenges that cross the silos of national policy making. It is one thing to recognize that educating mothers has a positive health impact on their own lives and that of their children, and that increasing financial investment in the education of women will generate disproportionate savings in health budgets. However, it is quite another to argue the case for shifting resources from health to education— at least at a national level. It is far easier to secure inter-agency co-operation at a regional or sub-regional level. Decision-making is local enough to identify real priorities for learning to enhance economic and social development, and where necessary to shift resources across departmental boundaries to that end. They are local enough, too, to secure more effective engagement of firms and social enterprises in strengthening the skills of their employees. Moreover, city regions operate on a large enough scale to marshal sufficient resources to make a difference. But in just the same way that cities can identify more effectively targeted solutions to meet the learning needs of communities, civil society organizations can also contribute, helping to fine-tune city region priorities to identify and reach groups with needs that city region initiatives will otherwise fail to address. The power of city regions in addressing inter-disciplinary, complex challenges of many sorts can be also seen in the proliferation of Smart Cities, Healthy Cities, Creative Cities, Green Cities, as well as in the development of Learning Cities.

Cities are places where innovation, co-operative problem solving, and the harnessing of resources to address challenges coalesce. Their interest in the role learning can play in responding to the challenges of demographic, technological, ecological and economic change have steadily increased over the last thirty years (Facer & Buchazyk, 2019) and, whilst the idea of learning cities can be traced back to Ancient Greece (Osborne et al., 2013), current scholarly focus on cities as places where formal, non-formal and informal learning contribute to urban development, and social inclusion was first stimulated by Hirsch's OECD paper, for the 1992 Educating Cities Conference in Gothenburg in 1992, and by the

Delors' report for UNESCO in 1996 (Hirch, 1992; Delors, 1996). Attempts to codify emergent practice, first in the industrial north and subsequently worldwide (Cara & Ransom, 1998; Longworth, 2000, 2006; Faris, 2005; Duke, Osborne, & Wilson, 2006, Keans & Ishami, 2012) were accompanied by a search for criteria for comparative studies. The task was complicated by the radically different focus adopted in different places. Some, as in Latin America were grounded in "the democratization of social life and in the possibility of creating a community from or within an urban space" (Messina & Valdes-Cortera, 2013, p. 427); others framed the learning city in its relationship with its poorer, rural hinterland (Walters, 2009). Nevertheless, there are initiatives to develop matrices for evaluating the development of learning cities. Notable among these was the Canadian Composite Learning Index, which was used to focus on the learning city's capacity for partnership creation; its ability to foster participation, its progress and sustainability, and the extent of its learning culture (Canadian Council on Learning, 2010). Others include the German Learning Atlas (Bertelsmann, 2012), and the European Lifelong Learning Index (Bertelsmann, 2010). The establishment of UNESCO's Learning Cities network in 2010 (see below) has provided a focus for the sharing of experience among cities, and generated material for scholarly analysis. Nevertheless, as Facer and Buchazyk observe, much remains to be done to establish a robust theoretical underpinning for learning cities' research, given their inter-sectoral and inter-disciplinary impact (Facer & Buchanzyk, 2019). Given this, the approach taken in this paper is to capture similarity in diversity, in much the way that Wittgenstein argued that the Churchill face was recognizable across generations, with a large number of common characteristics present in different faces, despite no single characteristic being common to all (Wittgenstein, 2009, p. 55ff).

The growth of learning cities

From the 1990s, this idea was taken up in a number of European countries, and at the same time was flourishing in Japan and Korea. It was given a major fillip in Europe in 1996 as part of the European Year of Lifelong Learning, and subsequently through Socrates projects (Cara et al., 2002). Learning cities recognized the key importance of place in people's lives. As Faris explained, they are grounded in "lifelong learning as an organizing principle and social/cultural goal in order to promote collaboration of their civic, economic, public, voluntary and education sectors to enhance social, economic, and environmental conditions on a sustainable, inclusive basis" (Faris, 2007, cited in Hamilton & Jordan, 2011).

Many have economic and social regeneration as goals, and a focus on the needs of groups that have benefited least from initial education.

In the UK, perhaps the most developed of the first wave of Learning City initiatives was in Glasgow, a city with considerable poverty, and a high proportion of adult population that had low levels of formal skills. The goals the city set for itself were ambitious, and to some considerable degree achieved, and combined a focus on learning for economic transformation, but also on the development of a culture of learning (Longworth, 1999).

However, the enthusiasm of the 1990s and early 2000s cooled—at least in Europe. A number of cities, like Glasgow, embedded the key strategies developed in their Learning City initiatives into the core activities of Councils. In other cases, like Southampton in the UK, a change of City Council leadership led to the decline and eventual end of the initiative: the new administration perceived the Learning City idea as yesterday's news. A further and related challenge was that dedicated staffing was often at a relatively junior level, without automatic access to key decision makers in different sectors. A key lesson of this period was that ownership of the initiative needs to be shared by a range of stakeholders.

Nevertheless, the dynamic development of learning cities as the heart of national lifelong learning strategies did take off again—in Korea, where 75 cities were approved for support by the government, and following 2000 by 200 learning cities in China, whilst in South Africa the Cape Learning Region pioneered links between urban and rural hinterlands. In 2010, UNESCO's Institute for Lifelong Learning adopted learning cities as a major focus for its work, and an international network of learning cities was established, biennial conferences were held with attendance from more than 250 cities across the globe, and outstanding initiatives were celebrated.

UNESCO defines a learning city as one that:

- effectively mobilizes its resources in every sector to promote inclusive learning from basic to higher education;
- revitalizes learning in families and communities;
- facilitates learning for and in the workplace;
- extends the use of modern learning technologies;
- enhances quality and excellence in learning; and
- fosters a culture of learning throughout life (UIL, 2020).

A particular strength of UNESCO is its capacity to highlight positive examples of good practice. The UNESCO Mid Term Review of CONFINTEA VI—the 12 yearly world conference on adult education—was held in 2017 in Suwon, Korea, the year's winner of the Outstanding Learning City award. It

demonstrated clearly that the enthusiastic endorsement of political support by the local Mayor was central. But its Learning City had a visible presence across the full range of institutions, cultural organizations and local businesses. No one lived more than 10 minutes from a library—which ranged from a modest shelf of books in a metro station or hairdresser's salon, to a learning center at work or public library—and no one lived more than twenty minutes from a learning center. It helped that the city's commitment was supported by Samsung, whose corporate headquarters are in the city. But it was clearly an initiative with a wide engagement of citizens of all ages.

Cork, too, was winner of a UNESCO Outstanding City award in 2017. Its work is focused on inclusion, on "no one being left behind", a commitment demonstrated through its spectacular week-long annual Lifelong Learning festival, where hundreds of organizations contribute to events, where Learning factories open up for groups to discover the work they do and to explore career routes, where applicable. Buses are adorned with images of learners, from pre-school to post-retirement. There are initiatives to strengthen the skills for prisoners on the "Inside" project, and for wives and partners in the "Outside" initiative. A Learning Forest established at the corner of a carpark opens debate about the relationship of growing and consuming. Six learning neighborhoods keep the Learning City vibrant and attuned to the needs of Cork's different communities—at Knocknaheeney, for example and industry-academia and schools project focuses on serious gaps in school achievement, and develops work experience in science, technology, engineering and mathematics, whilst in The Glen the focus is on Mental Health across the age span, and on the development of an oral history of the area. The Learning City has active endorsement from the City Council and the two higher education bodies in the city (Cork Learning City 2019; Tuama 2016; O'Sullivan & Kenny, 2016; Németh 2020).

Like Cork, an early commitment of Wolverhampton's City Learning Region was to co-ordinate an annual learning festival—building on the experience of initiatives like Adult Learners' weeks, where celebrating existing learners is used to encourage others to participate (Tuckett, 2018). The Learning City region was sparked into life through an agreement of the University of Wolverhampton and the City of Wolverhampton, but interest was shown, too, in other parts of the University's footprint—in Walsall, Telford and most recently Stafford, which is establishing a Learning Town. Wolverhampton is a richly mixed community but like the rest of the Black Country faces the challenge of high unemployment, poor health, low levels of formal skills, and substantial areas in need of regeneration. At the Learning City launch, participants agreed to focus on three core themes—securing a healthy city, strengthening the skills in particular of workers in small

and medium enterprises, and to foster inter-agency co-operation through the engagement of faith-based and voluntary sector organizations in raising aspirations and achievements. Each city is different, but they share a need to combine the support of key senior decision makers with mechanisms to engage the active and passionate engagement of citizens. There is no better argument for a learning city than to meet someone whose life has been transformed by engaging in learning.

Learning Communities: giving meaning to community in the context of conflict, the case of Palestine

What does it take for a community to function in uncertainty and fragmentation? Defining a community in the context of conflict is a challenging task. A community is often associated with coherence and shared geographical space, infrastructure and rules. In a complicated and multi-layered conflict zone, characterized by fragmentation in political, economic and social systems, like Palestine, even this basic definition of a community becomes a luxury. Within the reality in which Palestinians live, it is extremely challenging to define entities, boundaries or rules. There is a complex of interrelated factors that lead to this challenge, namely, a prolonged and ongoing Israeli military occupation with no silver lining for a Palestinian statehood in the near future; a difficult (sometimes violent) political conflict on the national level, that has caused estrangement between the West Bank and Gaza Strip since 2007; a deteriorating economy that keeps experiencing one setback after another; and a vulnerable social cohesion that is threatened by patriarchal/ tribal/socio-economic power conflicts. Within such context, it is only natural to assume that people, especially young women and men, struggle with identifying themselves with a clear concept of their community. In numbers, this translates to the following: in 2019, especially with unemployment rates among youth reaching 45%, and 65% in Gaza (before the Covid-19 pandemic); more than one third of youth were seeking immigration (The Palestinian Central Bureau of Statistics, 2019).

In contexts of conflict, human values, especially those related to togetherness and collectiveness, are faced with several crucial questions: the question of identity; the question of priorities/needs/interests; the question of contributions and roles and the question of justice and equality. It becomes difficult to comprehend: Who is the citizen? Who is the authority? What is the group that makes up a community? And what are the relations/ interconnections/ mutual responsibilities/ rights/ boundaries for individuals, their surroundings, their neighbors, their communities, their society, their environment? So, why would the individuals of that community be interested in any work on advancing their community?

Nonetheless, a community can function under conflict and in an effective way. However, there are several factors and conditions that need to exist for a community to survive and thrive. To mention a few, there is a need for optimal investment in local resources; strengthened connectedness among community members to be able to detect, identify, prevent and mitigate problems; collective consensus on a form of community leadership that ensures active participation and inclusivity; strengthened willingness for volunteerism and community work and ensured respect of rights and needs of all groups, especially those at risk of any kind of discrimination.

A bulk of research and field experience has shown that a culture of continuous and ongoing learning, i.e. lifelong learning seems imperative to realize all of the above-mentioned conditions (Azar, 2016). Learning and awareness raising is required on the level of the individual as well as the level of the group. Furthermore, advocates of renewal of thinking of educational concepts in the Arab region (Negm, 2013) emphasize concepts of Tawwaai and Tarabbi (self-driven and self-generated awareness and learning) as opposed to Tawiyeh and Tarbiyeh (one's awareness is being raised by others and one being taught by others). Thus, an influential learning and awareness are those that are locally owned and locally generated, and that stem from the real needs, interests, dreams and ambitions of the community members. Only then, a community would become a learning community, and hence can achieve what it takes to continue and secure abundant life.

A national framework that promotes ALE and LLL within community-based settings

While there is a shy emphasis in Palestine on the concept of a learning community, the National Policy Agenda of the State of Palestine (2017—2022) lists TVET as a major priority. In the midterm review of the NPA, community-based partnerships for lifelong learning were included as well. This reference document states the main policy interventions which require non-formal and further training and learning opportunities in the communities. These includes: improving transition from education to employment; ensuring equitable access to education opportunities, particularly in marginalized areas and for vulnerable groups; providing continuing training programs for workers; improving enrolment in continuing education and literacy programs; developing digital and e-learning programs; aligning TVET and higher education with development and local labor market needs; promoting social integration for groups at risk of exclusion (persons with disability, youth, women, ex-prisoners etc.); strengthening economic

and social empowerment programs benefiting vulnerable groups and the poor; strengthening preventive health care and wellbeing, raising awareness and promoting healthy lifestyles; preserving identity and culture; and enhancing youth participation in the public life.

Non-formal education is considered the fifth component of the Palestinian Education System in the Education Sector Strategic Plan (2017—2022). This reference document defines this sector as: "every objective and organized educational activity and every piece of knowledge, skill, value or behavior outside the framework of official educational systems—such as schools, universities or any other formal educational institution—be they in social, economic or political institutions or in factories or Non-Governmental Organizations" (The State of Palestine, 2017). In the midterm review in 2020, two new goals were added to the Non-formal Education Program: 1. Enhancing recognition of Adult Education as a main component of the Palestinian Education System; and 2. Enhancing partnerships with communities to expand and disseminate Community Centers for Youth and Adult Education.

A learning community for abundant life, even within conflict: the example of the city of Ramallah

While conflicts are a natural part of human society, living under prolonged conflicts, that are worsened and not resolved over time, is not. Therefore, a self-generated and owned learning for a community means also transforming the conflict itself. A culture of a learning community and a lifelong learning community member is as significant and important in conflicts as it is in any other more stable contexts (if not more). Being a lifelong learner helps the learner think of their own continuation and future in life; it humanizes them again, when in conflicts they are dehumanized.

Lifelong learning entails empowered thinking, conscious learning and responsible action. It is one proven and effective way of conflict resolution/prevention; resilience and continuity as individuals (empowerment) and as communities (solidarity and development), and as importantly, it is an effective way of restoring hope.

Within a century of fast-changing realities in Palestine, Ramallah was no exception. In the beginning of the last century, the city's population dropped significantly due to the active migration movement after WWI to reach 4,582 persons in 1922. Following two wars and waves of forced displacement in 1948 and 1967, the population of Ramallah city grew to 32,780 persons before the war

of 1967. However, the second wave of forced internal displacement after the war caused a second significant drop to 25,171. In 1997, when the city became the center of Palestinian politics, economy and administrative authority, the population of Ramallah was 17,851.

Since then, due to recruiting public employees and their families and workers in the private sector and the fast-growing non-governmental sector in the city, the urban population grew to 70,000 in 2019, while the city serves on a daily basis over 370,000 persons, including the surrounding refugee camps, villages and towns (The Municipality of Ramallah, 2019).

UNESCO defines a learning city as a city that "effectively mobilizes its resources in every sector to promote inclusive learning from basic to higher education; revitalizes learning in families and communities; facilitates learning for and in the workplace; fosters a culture of learning throughout life" (UIL, 2019a). Although not officially labelled as a Learning City, Ramallah possesses, within this definition, the characteristics of a learning community in multiple dimensions:

First, shared spaces for community life, learning, action and leisure have been since the 1960s in the core of development work on the level of the municipality, citizens and local institutions in addition to networking, twinning and partnering with other Palestinian and international cities. Throughout the many challenging times imposed by the above-mentioned multi-layered conflict, there were many occasions (that were much needed) of celebrating the community and its values of solidarity, tolerance, togetherness, trust and continuity. In all those occasions, partnership, local ownership, and openness were key. Ramallah used the occasion of the year 2000 to coordinate with the Bethlehem 2000 Project and to organize and launch its Ramallah 2000 celebration as well. The year 2008 marked 100 years of Ramallah municipality. A few years ago, the annual cultural festival "Wein 3 Ramallah" which means: "Where? To Ramallah" was launched as an annual tradition. In 2017, the city launched its strategic plan as a resilient city, and officially opened its municipal theatre.

Second, the city provides for a collective narrative, identity, and cultural heritage that, at the same time, celebrates uniqueness and specificity of different sub-groups. As several other Palestinian localities, Ramallah is distinguished with its mixed layers of urban and rural textures and cultural heritage. Within its architecture that combines the old and the new, the modern life of the city revolves around a historical center that forms its basic structure and radiates possibilities of modern expansion and growth in different directions.

Third, within its strategic plans as a smart city, Ramallah started initiatives to promote smart transportation solutions, information systems, smart green environment and infrastructure and smart education services. The aim is to increase

accessibility, easier communication processes, innovation for comfort, providing for emergency and recovery plans, better connectivity, provision of better support for community-based organizations, and enhancing both green and grey infrastructure in the city. Be it easy access parking lots for persons with disability, shaded waiting areas, safe walking zones, the availability of such infrastructure encourages citizens to use the shared spaces and to invest in different learning opportunities.

Fourth, in its strategic plan as a resilient city (Ramallah Municipality, 2017), the vision for the community of Ramallah is to be "optimistic, sustainable, inclusive, proud of our own culture and in control of our own destiny". The Plan actually uses as a slogan, the words of the late Palestinian poet, Mahmoud Darwish: "*We have on this land what makes life worth living.*" It was developed with vast participation of the community. While this plan elaborates on different types of existing challenges that hinder resilience, such as limited spaces to develop, acute climate changes, restricted resources and all risks that come from the uncertainty of the Palestinian context, it also explores the opportunities to promote and enhance resilience. These include in their core, the cultural identity that must thrive in the face of challenges. To build the resilience of the city, the plan states work will be emphasizing on using resources in the most efficient ways for the benefit of fulfilling the needs of the citizens; enabling two-way dialogue with the community and creating community-centered emergency plans and responses among others. While this plan sets the goal for 2050, it is already a process in the making.

Fifth, it is evident that the city invests in its people as sources and resources of mutual learning and support. Multiple initiatives were realized and are now actively functioning. One good example is establishing the Forum of Expertise of Ramallah by the municipality. The Forum was given a home with an attractive environment that encourages participation and learning. The concept builds on social programming of learning events and activities that are proposed by the citizens, especially senior citizens. The citizens prepare their own activities and the Forum invites interested groups to join the learning. Currently, the Forum is one of the most active community-based organizations in the city, with activities that vary from as simple as breathing classes to as complicated as creative writing or "The Artist Path: Learn How to Release Your Creative Potentials". Another example is the historical Ottoman Court building that was designated by the municipality as an interactive library for children and adolescents, a space for artistic learning for different age groups and a special garden for children. A third example is the Housh Kandah historical building. The building is used for learning workshops that target young craftspersons and visual artists. Products of artists in the yard (the housh) of the building are marketed in a Friday market that is a reintroduction of a traditional market that used to take place in the city—"El Harjeh".

Sixth, a well-functioning learning city should be able to function in times of crisis, not only in times of prosperity. The city of Ramallah is a good example of flexibility and ability to adapt to crisis. Previously, the city managed to cope with extreme circumstances such as the complete control by the Israeli troops over the city in 2002 (United Nations, 2002).

The municipality actively supported, for example, the emergency plan of implementing the general secondary education exams. The citizens implemented, in groups and as individuals, various initiatives to support each other and secure food and basic needs to isolated neighborhoods.

In so many cases, large numbers of students and teachers in schools and colleges and workers who are from the surrounding villages were unable to go back to their homes. Several community initiatives took place to host them and ensure their safety. In 2020, the city has been affected, like every other city in the world, by the Covid-19 pandemic. Although Ramallah has gone through different kinds of emergencies before, this one was new and there was an urgent need for individual and collective learning. The city showcased a strong example of community-based partnership and solidarity. Not only on the formal level, but also among the different active groups in culture, arts, agriculture, information technology and others. Most active community-based organizations, including the Forum of Expertise, launched their learning activities digitally, mainly to help people and families cope under lockdown. Some colleges and schools implemented mobile graduation ceremonies that passed by the graduating students' homes and supported them; some civil society organizations supported the municipality to provide households with vegetable plants and carried out online demonstrations to help families grow their own food supplies; while main festivals and public events were cancelled, different new kinds of digital public events took place, including webinars, exchange activities and live streaming of music sessions and others; new small community-based gardens were opened as well.

Community-based Centers for Youth and Adult Education as catalysts of public partnerships for a sustainable learning community: examples from the towns of Al Karmel, Arraba and Yamoun

Since 2018, new forms of partnerships for the promotion of learning communities have been launched. Palestinian municipalities are joining the Ministry of Education (MoE), with the support of DVV International and Dar al-Kalima University College of Arts and Culture, to establish community-based Centers

for Youth and Adult Education. These new social structures are community-based and they build on the real partnership of various local actors.

To establish these partnerships, an elaborate and participatory process has been conducted, including multiple consultations with education experts, community members and providers of ALE aiming at developing a locally relevant conception of the desired community center for learning and education; calls for community partnerships that include several local actors (mainly local literacy education centers that belong to the MoE and local municipalities and CBOs) aimed at encouraging collective action that can be also sustainable and owned by the communities; and conducting several rounds of rapid participatory assessments to inform analysis of communities' needs and local actors' needs. Before public launching of the partnerships, extensive capacity building programs were implemented with local managements of the newly created centers, members of municipalities and local educators/ facilitators and members and volunteers. The constant capacity building continues to enhance the centers' functionality, quality of provided learning programs and offers and networking and partnerships.

Three towns in the north and south of West Bank, that are distinguished with their locations of historical and modern significance and natural and cultural heritage, are now becoming the seeds for increased interest/ involvement in/ emergence of lifelong learning experiences, and enhanced culture of lifelong learning and understanding of the importance of adult learning and education within the Palestinian society, especially among the youth. Al Karmel is a town to the south of Hebron in West Bank, with an 11,000 population and 24500 dunams of space in a very important geographic location that is considered the main gate to all the unrecognized and vulnerable Masafer Bedouin communities in the South. The municipalities of Karmel and adjacent Yatta continuously support and provide services to the communities of Masafer. The community of Arraba in the north of the West Bank enjoys a mix of unique plain and mountainous natural heritage with great potentials for the development of agriculture. The town has a population of 13,000. The complete old Ottoman town in the historical center of Arraba was preserved, with a number of Ottoman palaces and homes. Arraba Municipality donated one of the buildings in this historic quarter for establishment of the community center. The Municipality is seeking increased visibility of the site. However, the site remains undiscovered by local and foreign tourists. Al Yamoun is another town in the north of the West Bank, with a population of 22,000. The town combines agricultural lands and a significant number of small and medium scale factories and businesses. In addition to the historical sites on the outskirts of the town, there are several educational institutions, but mostly of a formal type.

Results of the full report (DVV International, 2019) of the participatory rapid assessment of the communities' needs and priorities for development in 2018 showed that: the three local communities are very much affected by the surrounding settlements/ security measures and by the fact that many members of the communities rely on work possibilities in Israeli settlements and cities; the communities are constrained by several conservative traditions; there are some issues that risk the rights and well-being of vulnerable groups including early marriage and school dropout; as a general problem in Palestine, the three communities suffer from high rates of unemployment, especially among youth and women; these communities also lack many basic services and professions and there is a need for active awareness raising in terms of environmental responsibility.

The multiple participatory workshops, discussions and conceptualization with various stakeholders in each of the three communities recommended that the desired community centers design the learning offerings and initiatives that respond to those needs in specific ways for all community groups. This includes: learning initiatives for individuals and for groups (including young men and women, persons with disability and senior citizens) for a better and more comprehensive understanding of their rights; provision of more spaces/ opportunities for dialogue about the communities' specific problems and how they can be addressed and provision of popular and participatory programs to enhance social cohesion, solidarity and tolerance. In addition, community members who participated in the conceptualization and need assessment activities demanded provision of more and better-quality services and infrastructure, such as spaces for community action and participation in preserving local identity and cultural heritage and spaces for socializing and active engagement in the public life.

The background of the education system in India in terms of lifelong learning, adult education and skill training

Education is the foremost part of any society helping it grow, develop and advance in the social, economic, political and educational fields. Nations are judged by the educational level of its citizens. According to the Report of Indian Education Commission 1966 (1999) "*Education does not end with schooling, but is a lifelong process. The adult needs an understanding of the rapidly changing world and the growing complexities of society. Even those who had the most sophisticated education must continue to learn; the alternative is obsolescence… Thus viewed the function of adult education in a democracy is to provide every adult citizen an opportunity for education of the type which he wishes and which he should have for his personal*

enrichment, professional advancement and effective participation in social and political life" (Shah, 2019). It is evident that most developed countries have very sound education systems in comparison to developing countries and they have the capacities for acquiring and transferring knowledge in their societies.

India has a very long educational history from ancient times, which covered the period from childhood to adulthood without any limit/restriction of age for education. In the Gurukul system (educational institute) pupils received not only academic education, but also underwent basic skills training, such as archery, horse riding, swimming, war tactics, harvesting, manufacturing of fabrics and other handicrafts items. They received religious knowledge and skill training for their practical life in Madarsas (academic institutions for Muslim pupils) and temples (religious/academic institutions for Hindu pupils) as well. To this end, they lived away from their family until the completion of their education and training. In the British era, the existing government exerted efforts for eradicating illiteracy among adults in order to fulfill the requirement for lower clerks and officers and for spreading Christianity. Mahatma Gandhi himself advocated Nai Talim (New Education) which was directly related to life skills and employability. Students learnt spinning, weaving, leather work, pottery, metal work, and basket-making in order to become future entrepreneurs. Every community needs socio-economic and political balance among its citizens. To this end, equality of opportunity should be given to all and sometimes more to disadvantaged people in order to ensure proper social inclusion. Sometimes positive discrimination is helpful for social justice, peace and understanding among people. Education for all is a must as it is directly connected with employment, social status and well-being.

A caste system has existed in India since ancient times. Jobs were divided according to caste, e.g. Brahmins (most superior class) were deployed as priests, teachers and scholars. Kshatriyas were rulers, administrators, warriors and advisors. Vaishyas performed agricultural activities and businesses. Shudras are called the lowest class of society and performed laborer jobs and services. Their children could do only what their ancestors did. Even they couldn't change their class. After many social reforms—both pre– and post-independence, the castes system was removed but in recent years the lower class became increasingly marginalized and disadvantaged. They became backward socially, financially and educationally. Women's condition and their participation were also very negligible, since they didn't have rights and facilities to acquire knowledge through education. Thus, the need was felt to educate them and their children and to include them in the public. Afterwards, proper legitimacy was required to eradicate these evils of society. Besides this, the change of the community mindset towards education and social inclusion for all was needed.

LLL through learning cities

According to the UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning, a learning city utilizes all its resources in all sectors to promote inclusive learning from basic to higher education in families, communities and the workplace with the help of learning technologies for the best quality of learning throughout life. It will provide a boost to individual empowerment, social cohesion, economic and cultural prosperity and sustainable development. We may conclude that learning cities are the foundation of national development through education from ECCE to the university level and through different formal, informal and non-formal way; enabling people can get employment, retain jobs, receive promotions and ultimately live a satisfactory life which is essential for well-being and for being a good citizen making a contribution for his country.

According to UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning (2015), "Although the idea of a learning city has mostly been conceptualized in developed countries, facilitated by the OECD (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development) since the 1980s and the European Commission since the 1990s, it is now rapidly gaining momentum in developing countries. In more and more Member States, local authorities now claim to be learning cities/ regions/ communities." India is also trying to follow to develop educational system and skill training for lifelong learning and better opportunities in communities.

In India, a non-government organization IAEA (Indian Adult Education Association) was formed in 1939 to promote adult education through its publication workshops, seminars, conferences and training programs. In 1960, work-oriented functional literacy programs were launched to empower skill-based education. In 1968—78, FTFLP (Farmers Training and Functional Literacy Project) was launched to educate farmers in terms of basic literacy and agricultural development education for a green revolution to take place. In 1975—76, a functional literacy program for adult women was initiated which covered women in the 15—45 age group. Its aim was achieving basic literacy and creating better citizens who could participate in the development of society.

The Indian government made a five-year educational plan after receiving independence, but in the Fifth and Sixth five-year plans (1974—85), efforts were made by the directorate of adult education to integrate 65 schemes/ developmental programs under non-formal education for adults, such as Krishi Vigyan Kendras (Agricultural Science Centers), Workers Education Programs,

Nehru Yuvak Kendra (Nehru Youth Centers), Satellites Instructional Television Experiment, Shramik Vidyapeeth (Labor Educational Centers) for professional competency, Rural Welfare Extension and family and children welfare projects concerned with technical literacy. Many other centrally sponsored schemes or government schemes, like the National Higher Education program (Rashtriya Uchchattar shiksha Abhiyan—RUSA), have been launched to encourage skill-based higher education programs intended to make adults competent to attain livelihood.

The NSDC (National Skill Development Corporation) under the auspices of the Ministry of Skill Development and Entrepreneurship is regularly involved in building skill development capacity and forging strong ties with the market. It provides funding to enterprises, companies and organizations that organize skill training. It also develops appropriate models to enhance, support and coordinate private sector initiatives.

For fulfillment that purpose, all universities, technical universities and non-government organizations are also working towards educating adults and making them skilled workers.

India, as a signatory of the Belem Framework, organized a cross-sectoral consultation at Bangalore on 27—28 June 2011 to identify areas and issues of adult education according to frameworks and benchmarks. Hence the theme of the national workshop was Sakshar Bharat, Belem Framework and the LIFE (Literacy Initiative for Empowerment). Its objectives were to advocate for the further strengthening of policy framework for adult education in India programs in context of the Belem Framework and LIFE.

India Education Commission (1971) concluded that the scope of adult education is extremely broad. The Commission stated that the function of adult education in a democracy is to provide opportunity for education to every adult citizen for his personal enrichment, professional advancement and effective participation in social and political life.

In India, literacy is the principal format of adult education. As a sequel to the NPE's Program of Action (1986), the National Literacy Mission (NLM) was launched in 1988 with the aim of imparting functional literacy to 80 million adults in the 15—35 age group by 1995 (Deb, 2015). It started with a mass campaign approach, known as the Total Literacy Campaign (TLC), but evolved into a massive program of adult education. More stress was given on economic reforms through adult education by giving them basic skill development training, especially to the disadvantaged people (Mandal, 2019).

The impact of learning cities in the formation of the Smart City model

In India, the concept of the Learning City is not a well-established and recognized model. Instead, decision makers have been following the concept of the "Smart City". According to the Government's (2016) understanding: "Smart Cities' mission is an innovative and new initiative by the Government of India to drive economic growth and improve the quality of life of people by enabling local development and harnessing technology as a means to create smart outcomes for citizens." According to Facer & Buchczyk (2019), "A smart city is a municipality that uses information and communication technologies (ICT) to increase operational efficiency, share information with the public and improve both the quality of government services and citizen welfare." From this we can assume that the Smart City model considers the city as a "laboratory" and all policies, industries and academic institutions work together to promote and develop learning environments.

Additionally, smart cities try to improve lives by the development of ICT, providing better practices of urban planning, collaborations and coalitions between public and private organizations to form policies. In this regard, the city may focus on cleanliness campaigns through organizations and institutions such as Swachh Bharat Mission (SBM), the Digital India movement for computer literacy, National Heritage City Development and Augmentation Yojana (HRIDAY), skills development for better employment, housing facilities for everyone, setting up museums funded by the Culture Department and other programs connected to social infrastructure, such as health, education and culture. Complete enhancement of people's well-being is the main focus of the city (Government of India, 2016). These are the facilities of a smart city which are to be completed within five years (2015—16 to 2019—20) and will be evaluated by the Ministry of Urban Development (MoUD) and also be reviewed after two years and incorporating the learnings into the Mission in 100 Smart Cities. For that purpose, funds under Atal Mission for Rejuvenation and Urban Transformation (AMRUT) will be given to the stakeholders in the following areas, among others:

- Adequate water supply,
- Assured electricity supply,
- Sanitation, including solid waste management,
- Efficient urban mobility and public transport,
- Affordable housing, especially for the poor,
- Robust IT connectivity and digitalization,

- Good governance, especially e-Governance and citizen participation,
- Sustainable environment,
- Safety and security of citizens, particularly women, children, the elderly and
- Health and education.

Urban life comprises many complexities, such as a large population, inequality in economic conditions, gender inequality, migration, improper education, poor hygienic/sanitary conditions and arrangements for well-being of citizens. After food, clothes and shelter, education is the most important factor that can change the status of society members through awareness. It can solve the above mentioned problems to a great extent. That's why the Indian Government has taken it as a mission towards progress because education has the power to transform the situation and solve issues such as:

In terms of education and population, there is a problem of large population in cities which is a big issue for the government and communities standing in the way of accommodating and fulfilling basic needs. Therefore, through education, people can be aware at what extent they can afford their family responsibilities and will think about family planning and help to control the population.

Education and economic conditions also have direct connections. If people get equal educational opportunities, they will find better economic solutions for themselves. Education enables them to find better employment which will bridge the gap in terms of socio-economic status. Furthermore, financial conditions are the main culprit for school dropout. Education will upgrade income level, which is why people can provide proper and continuous education to their children.

In terms of education and migration, people move from rural to urban areas in search of better education and job opportunities. They live in very poor living conditions without any basic facilities. The landless farmers leave their villages because they only get seasonal jobs which are not sufficient for the survival for their family. If they receive education and find jobs in their own place of living, they will not migrate. Even they can generate their own means of earning for themselves and their families. In this way, rural areas can also be developed.

In terms of education and hygienic/sanitary conditions, education makes people aware about cleanliness. Population control can also affect the change of sanitation conditions in the city.

In terms of education and the well-being of citizens, education gives ease, comfort and financial independence in the life. Hence people can consider a healthy lifestyle, creativity, physical activities, innovation and development. Thus, it affects public well-being.

In terms of education and social changes, education broadens the mind and helps bring about positive social change, such as equality in educational opportunities, gender equality, awareness about health, fitness, hygiene, elimination of superstitions and child marriages, and so on. When a nation is socially developed, it develops in every other aspect.

Therefore, the Indian Government is focusing on enhancing the status of education. India is a very big country from a geographical standpoint. It is divided into 28 states and 8 union territories (Know India) which are again divided into cities to distribute responsibilities and get better results in social, political, educational and economic fields. Every area or city has its unique lifestyle due to its culture and traditions. According to Government of India, Ministry of Urban Development (2015), 31% of the Indian population lives in cities and contributes 63% of GDP. Urban areas are providing accommodation to 40% of the Indian population and will contribute to 75% of India's GDP by 2030. To this end, social, economic and institutional infrastructures are required to improve the quality of life and attract people and investment. Thus, the development of Smart Cities is a very urgent need (Government of India, 2016).

Based on different kinds of educational philosophy, the Indian Government has provided various models for its citizens to step toward the principles of "education for all" and "no one left behind" through the provision of formal, non-formal and informal education.

As regards to formal education, governments and private institutions run schools, colleges and universities. Additionally, many NGOs are also working in this field to provide education in formal ways. These institutions are running in a very systematic manner. After schooling, any adult who wishes to acquire knowledge can get admission into these institutions where he can attend classes, as well as technology-enabled learning to get a proper degree/diploma or certificate from a recognized university.

In the context of non-formal education, there is another way to educate people, e.g. distance education is provided through the proper institutional setup. This form of education offers the flexibility of time, age, place, pace and duration, so that adult learners can learn according to their convenience. In India, the School of Correspondence Courses and Continuing Education was founded at the University of Delhi in 1962. Then the first Open University (Andhra Pradesh Open University, now known as BR Ambedker Open University) opened in 1982 and on 20th September 1985, Indira Gandhi National Open University (IGNOU) came into existence (Kundu, 2014). Now there are one National (IGNOU) and 14 state open and distance learning universities. Nowadays, online learning is a very popular and convenient option in which information and

communication technology plays a very significant role. It made studies quite practical and available for learners to help them in continuing lifelong learning anywhere and anytime, especially in the current pandemic situation.

Informal education is framed to help with its complementary role towards learning communities. In this regard, some NGOs like Participatory Research in Asia (PRIA, 2020) are working to lessen the irregularities in government works for the smooth running of democracy. From 1982, New Delhi-based PRIA has been a global center for participatory research, which is connected with around 3000 NGOs all over India. It creates coordination among citizens, communities, government bodies, policy makers, think-tanks, financers, corporate society, media, learners and institutions. It builds links among all on the local, national and global level to enhance the capacities of people, communities and institutions for better and equality-based societies. It also supports people, especially women and the poor, disadvantaged, Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes to be aware of their rights for increased participation in democracy by knowledge creation about values of equity, justice, freedom, peace and solidarity. (https://www.pria.org/about-pria-3–2–0)

Equality and social inclusion through learning environment—choices and limitations

Steps taken by PRIA (2020): PRIA works in all areas of socio-economic development, maternal health, literacy, skills and non-formal education, lifelong learning, water conservation, hygiene and sanitation awareness, housing schemes for the urban poor, preventing exploitation of women, etc. For example, urban India needs a solution for migrants who live in informal settings without any basic facilities, as they are not present in official documents e.g. in Patna, Chhapra (Bihar state) Varanasi and Rae Bareilly (Uttar Pradesh). It worked with the youth of these communities to map their locations and submit a record to the authorities to legitimate these urban poor communities, and provided them with basic services.

In another example, PRIA researched the reason of poor acceptance of improved maternal mortality scheme in 13 districts on the request of Rajasthan Government and found that fear, traditional belief and non-awareness were the reasons behind the non-acceptance of these beneficial schemes. It gave proper information to the community and bridged the gap between the government and the citizens. It believes in the inclusion of the poor and marginalized for complete participation and breaks the "culture of silence" to ensure equal status in the society.

PRIA (2020) works under these categories: (https://www.pria.org/about-pria-3–2–0)

1. Information sharing and awareness generation
2. Building human and institutional capacities
3. Advocacy with officials at multiple level
4. Co-creation and dissemination of knowledge

Within this approach, let us explore three examples of urban educational structures that enhance learning communities and, simultaneously, help citizens develop their knowledge and skills:

Jan Shikshan Sansthan (JSS)

This NGO basically works in rural and urban slums and arranges skill up gradation of disadvantaged, vulnerable, dropout youths by providing them with academic and technical resource support and preparing them for employment by means of financial support and loans. The scheme of JSS has been collaborating with NGOs, public and private entities over the past 50 years. It coordinates with other agencies who also work on skill development. It creates awareness in communities. (https://jss.gov.in/)

Community Colleges

The Indian Government started community colleges in 1995 (Alphonse, 2012) in 11 states to provide education, life skills, work-related skills, internships and preparation for employment within 52 weeks to disadvantaged groups of society. A certificate program with duration of 26 weeks and a diploma program with duration of 56 weeks are provided. These community-based colleges get to know their learners better and provide them with education according to their needs.

Sakshat

This is the free e-portal where anyone, anywhere and anytime can access course materials, lectures, assignments etc. The Government of India also developed the world's lowest cost computing-cum-access device on October 5, 2011 called AAKASH which is affordable for UG and PG learners. Besides this, an initiative

was launched by MHRD to raise teachers' awareness and literacy regarding the Sakshat portal for lifelong education (Mahat & Nalawadw, 2013).

SWAYAM-NPTEL

It has been offering self-study online certificate courses from the IITs University, such as engineering, humanities and science streams from March 2014. These courses are free for the learners who wish to enhance their capabilities. (https://swayam.gov.in/NPTEL)

National Institute of Open Schooling (NIOS)

NIOS is the largest open schooling system in the world. In 1989 under MHRD, the National Institute of Open Schooling (NIOS) started offering secondary (10th grade), senior secondary (12th grade), vocational courses and Basic Education and Elementary Teacher education programs through open and distance learning (ODL) mode. NIOS operates through five Departments, 22 Regional Centers and more than 6500 Accredited Institutions in India and abroad, which have catered to 2.82 million learners during the past five years. It is very open and flexible in its nature e.g. freedom on the choice of subjects, self-learning study materials, transfer of credits and a flexible examination system with an ICT-based On-Demand Examination (ODES) System are some of the learner-centric facilities with no age barrier. NIOS offers 42 courses on the SWAYAM Platform. (https://swayam.gov.in/nc_details/NIOS)

Challenging issues in promoting educational environment in a very diverse country like India

According to MHRD, in 2001, the overall literacy rate was 64.84%, male literacy was at 75.26% and female literacy rate was at 53.67%, with a vast gender gap. The Census of India (2011) stated the overall literacy rate of 72.98% with an 8.14% growth (64.84% in 2001 and 72.98% in 2011). However, illiteracy still remains a concern for India, especially when it comes to closing the gap between the rates for the male and female population. The government is working on the SKILLING INDIA program. They are trying hard to provide skills to the people of the country. The National Skill Development Corporation (NSDC) is one of

a kind, public-private partnership in India, under the auspices of the Ministry of Skill Development & Entrepreneurship.

India is a multicultural and multilingual society with 22 official languages (Singh, 2020). "According to the Census of 2001, there are 1,635 mother tongues and 122 languages with more than 10,000 speakers" (Jayasundara, 2014). Therefore, it's very difficult to make a single policy for all. This is why the central and state governments jointly work on the implementation of various policies with some modification according to the needs of that particular state. The Government always makes policies in favor of nation's development after deep analysis and research. The think-tank of the country works hard to make policies which institutions have to implement, regarding education, skill development, social cohesion and inclusion, to maintain equality of opportunities. Thus, the government plays a role in theoretical terms, but a practical role is played by institutions/universities. Both of them can bring tremendous and positive changes in the educational field by helping each other.

On other hand, sometimes universities cannot implement all the policies on practical grounds. Various social and economic barriers stop them from applying all policies as is. So, modifications are required but changing policies in short intervals is not possible, which creates imbalance. In the words of the government: the medium of instruction should be in mother tongue which is very good for maintaining cultural diversity. But on practical grounds this is not possible all the time. Sometimes, educators who teach in several languages are not available and not all learners are multilingual. In this case, havoc would be created and learning and clarifying the concept is not ensured. Therefore, policies and implications contradict one another. In another case, government mandates compulsory education up to 14 years of age. All the institutions are trying to implement this, but the socio-economic condition of learners, distance from home to institution, involvement of learners in the workforce, family responsibilities, mindset regarding the non-importance of education, geographical constraints etc. are the factors which influence the enrolment of learners. In this way institutions are unable to implement policies in spite of willingness and all efforts. Thus, targets cannot be achieved.

Adequate and timely financial aids help in the development and implementation of policies. Otherwise, they create hurdles in progress. Moreover, political stability is also a must for the implementation of legislation as every government has its own vision for every field, hence in education. The Government makes national education policies for five years or ten years, but it is not stable itself, it is very difficult to maintain the same rapport with newly elected govern-

ments. To accept sudden changes in the educational sector is not possible for institutions, which creates a situation of imbalance and non-cooperation.

Global organizations like UNESCO and others are working on lifelong learning/ adult learning but then, there is no well-planned policy on LLL. Institutions are basically helpless. They depend on government initiatives and vice versa, government wants something from the institutions e.g. skill-based education for better employment. If institutions don't take initiative to change their curricula, all government policies could fail. Thus, both are dependent on each other for better results and success.

However, limitation of programs and shortage of resources, lack of innovation, excessive documentation, and dissemination of programs hurt the aim of creating learning environments, because of improper and low-quality professional training of educators. Furthermore, there is hardly any research on the impact of lifelong learning. Proper financing can also be a booster. There should be strategies of prior learning assessment and credit transfer facilities for any previous learning acquired somewhere else. Also, there should not be inequalities in accepting these qualifications in the employment sector. In every educational sector there are three levels: Macro, Meso and Micro. The Micro level comprises individuals or participants, the Meso level comprises institutions and the Macro level comprises the government and its policies/legislations. Therefore, the majority of stakeholders are the government and its policies, institutions and their administration, as well as learners and their academic needs. India has not formed any laws on lifelong learning, although it is urgently needed to form policies, clarify the concept and link it to the mainstream of educational policy agenda in India.

Learning City Development in Pécs

Combining Global Initiatives with Community Development

The University of Pécs has always played a key role in the development of the Learning City model in Pécs, Hungary. It started in 2003 when the University, having been a member of EUCEN since 1999, joined PASCAL International Observatory and some of its key EU-funded Erasmus and Grundtvig projects based on the development of learning city-regions across Europe. Such former projects, like LILARA (Learning in Local and Regional Authorities), PENR3L (PASCAL University Network of Regions of Lifelong Learning), and Grundtvig R3L+ accelerated our partnership with the City of Pécs and its local authority together with several other distinguished stakeholders in education, training and

culture (PASCAL Observatory, 2019). Such former PASCAL projects together with a special session of the Commission of Education (EDUC) of Committee of the Regions in 2006 and the 2007 PASCAL Conference in Pécs generated good ground for further platform-building amongst relevant bodies engaged in effective knowledge transfer within lifelong learning activities.

The Pécs Learning City-Region Forum was formally grounded in the year of 2010 amongst thirteen different institutions of education, training and culture, together with the local and regional authorities of Pécs and Baranya County and that of the Chamber of Commerce and Industry. Based on a decade-old international project-based partnership dealing with Learning City-Region innovations in association with PASCAL and UIL, the University of Pécs and its Faculty of Adult Education and HRD re-initiated the establishment of the Pécs Learning City Region Forum in 2013 to develop a direct tool in certain areas of pedagogical/andragogical work targeting trainers, educators and facilitators of learning. The project was incorporated into the project of the University of Pécs, financed by the Hungarian Government's Social Renewal Operative Program (TÁMOP 4.1.2.B—Developing Teachers Educators/Pedagógusfejlesztés), focusing on the Development of Teachers.

Its so-called K4 project's sub-group decided to develop structural models for collecting and sharing good knowledge and experience for teachers, trainers, mentors and facilitators engaged in the promotion of quality learning and skills-development in formal, non-formal and informal settings. Therefore, the Pécs Learning City-Region Forum started its activities in the fall of 2014 in three major fields by accelerating partnerships and dialogues (Németh, 2015):

– *Atypical/Non-formal Learning platform* (This platform tried to help cultural organizers, curators, managers be more successful with their educational programs organized for adults and also for school teachers engaged in the development of cultural programs for children). Such a collaborative framework involved more than 8 organizations/institutions and their representatives in order to identify innovative learning methods, tools, methodologies with atypical contexts.

– *School and Environment platform* (This platform supported the initiation of dialogue amongst professionals developing specific environment-oriented programs for local youth and their parents to help them become nature-friendly, and conscious in protecting their environment). Around nine member organizations/institutions worked actively in the Forum through delegates, professional experts by providing platform-based exchange of ideas upon bringing closer schools,

pupils and their families to the environment and environment-friendly, green thinking, actions and change management with attention to interdisciplinary thinking and human behavior.

– *Inclusion and Handicapped Situations platform* (This platform helped teachers to engage in collaborative actions providing dialogue to understand problems emerging from working with young children with learning difficulties, e.g. autistic children). This community aimed at supporting our urban community of schools addresses problems resulting as a consequence of early school-leaving and matters of basic adult education in the neglected area of second chance schooling.

The Learning City-Region Forum identified some potential issues which accelerated the development of the learning city-region model of Pécs. On the one hand, the Forum renewed its membership in PASCAL International Observatory's Learning Cities Networks (LCN), more precisely, it integrated the Pécs Learning Festival program into the group called "*Harnessing Cultural Policies in Building Sustainable Learning Cities"* in order to continue its ties to this international platform which was formally established in 2007 when Pécs hosted PASCAL's annual international conference on Learning City-Regions (Németh, 2016a).

In 2016, the University of Pécs initiated the realization of close ties to UNESCO's Global Network of Learning Cities so as to prepare for the Global Learning City Award of UNESCO which may help in the further development of collaborative actions amongst key providers of lifelong learning in and around the city of Pécs. In this regard, the University of Pécs and the local authority/municipality of Pécs decided to launch a campaign for using the Learning City Region Forum to establish an annual Learning Festival where both the concept and the three areas of action of the Forum can be multiplied into a real learning community of around seventy institutions and organizations under the same umbrella movement.

The Making and Progression of Learning Festivals in Pécs

The Learning City Program of Pécs identified its first LearningFestival in 2017 as a set of three thematic topics in order to offer flexible platforms which include each and every learning provider, with their particular programs based on the participation of local citizens from school-age to retired members of the community. There were three topics for 2017 set at the beginning of the year to represent a broad range of interests and, simultaneously, to incorporate different interests which are to be channeled into representative topics signaling both

global and local focuses with popular calls. Those 2017 learning city topics were (UIL, 2019b): 1. Culture and arts; 2. Environment, green Pécs; and 3. Knowledge transfer and skills development.

The above topics generated growing participation since more than seventy organizations and institutions got involved into the one-hundred and thirty programs of the first Learning Festival held on 15—16 September 2017. One can estimate whether it was a good decision and direction to get the House of Civic Communities to take a central role in the organization of the Learning Festival. But having evaluated the impact of the first Learning Festival, we can conclude that the learning community of Pécs has gained a lot to start getting used to the formation of the Learning City model and its flagship initiative called the Pécs Learning Festival. I am concerned that this focus cemented a bottom-up approach based on trust and partnership, but the initiative could not avoid the lack of funding and limited political attention, although the City of Pécs received the Global Learning City Award on 18 September at the 3rd UNESCO International Conference on Learning Cities (Németh, 2016b).

The organizers of the Learning Festival had collected public proposals for the topics of the Festival, and it was a great achievement that participating platforms of learning providers came to consensus to provide three authentic topics of lifelong learning which would definitely meet the characteristics of Pécs as a city of high culture influenced by multicultural, multiethnic and multilingual and multireligious dimension. This particular focus was highlighted in the GNLC reporting of Pécs as a Global Learning City and incorporated into the publication of UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning and on its website (UIL, 2019c).

According to the key features of learning cities, the Learning City Program of Pécs and its Learning Festival have emphasized, from the very start, connection and partnership building with local and regional businesses, corporations and other market-led groups like the local Chamber of Commerce and Industry (UIL, 2015). This approach and special attention were lifted up through the organization process of the first Learning Festival in 2017 to initiate and promote the particular angle of business and economy driven narratives, understanding around the benefits of learning and of skills development. Companies like the local forestry group, the local public bus transportation corporation and the local power plant joined the Festival with their programs and learning models, like environmental learning through the forest/woods, learning community skills on buses and learning new dimensions of energy supply for residential and business areas (Németh, 2016c).

A necessary conclusion is that the initiation of the Learning Festival resulted in moving of the notion of learning away from negative meanings and

contexts, moreover, it helped in the raising of participation, the growing needs towards community learning, intergenerational collaborations and the inclusion of depressed, underdeveloped districts of the city. The above three topics helped move Pécs towards smart and creative city directions, with culture-based orientations in a city of culture (Németh, 2016c).

The second Learning Festival of Pécs was planned from February 2018 in association with more than seventy organizations and institutions which claimed that they would continue with their active engagement and participation in the formation of the Festival and its program for the second time. Three topics were dedicated to support the overall theme of Experimental Learning (UIL, 2019c): 1. Environmentally conscious and sustainable environment in and around Pécs; 2. Place and values—the cultural heritage of Pécs; and 3. Is it easier to do things together? Intergenerational learnings and partnerships for skill development.

A great number of people worked on the planning and development of the 2nd Learning Festival of Pécs to be held on 20—22 September 2018 and got together several communities from kindergarten-based harvest-festival programs to special learning activities of senior citizens and their special Senior Academy run by the support and organizational assistance and the third mission of the University of Pécs and its Institute for Human Development and Cultural Studies. The Festival became better-positioned through the UNESCO Global Learning City Award which generated attention, respect and equitable status amongst other culture-based festivals in the City of Pécs.

In accordance with this progress, a special Learning City Conference was organized for 20 September 2018 in the town, with several participants discussing the topic of Learning Cities and Culture Working Together at three strands (UIL, 2019b):

–   The impact of Heritage, Values and Culture in Learning Cities and Regions;
–   Smart and Learning Cities, Technological Innovations and System Developments;
–   Learning Cities to Promote Intergenerational Learning.

The above three strands provided a good opportunity to have a look into the innovative potential of the Learning City initiative and into some particular perspectives of development and challenges of tackling more attention being given to the needs of stakeholders and individuals as local citizens, regardless of age. Pécs could well position its Learning City Program with the support of the University of Pécs to provide research and innovation into this valuable initiative

and, consequently, the Festival concept became recognized through many collaborative actions based on the brand of Learning City by 2018.

More than seventy participating organizations and institutions carried out one-hundred and twenty programs and involved a big part of lifelong learners in the city center of Pécs to participate in colorful programs and interactive, mostly intergenerational events, lectures, presentations, games, concerts, dialogues, platform talks, etc. through which learning was again moved into a better spectrum to demonstrate joy, entertainment, community building, access, inclusion, care and solidarity. One example for this was a little roundtable with short presentations on the Routes of Learningwith special attention to drama-games and motivations for learning, learning as a source of happiness, early childhood integral development, inclusive pedagogy, focus on "a City to Touch", and the Pygmalion effect and its relation to learning (Szederkényi-Németh, 2018).

We have to recognize and pay tribute to the House of Civic Communities that provided the co-ordination and management of most Learning Festival related programs for those two days of action. In this regard, the House became the motor and real headquarters of the Learning Festival in Pécs, providing full capacities and care towards the partners of this respected program, with a view to organizing the 3rd Learning Festival in September 2019 around the theme of Learning Communities and Community Learningembedded into the triangle of art/culture, health and environment. There were more than seventy programs of intergenerational and intercultural actions through learning to highlight the relationships in between formal, non-formal and informal learning.

Finally, the 4th Learning Festival of Pécs in September 2020 was an irregular one due to the COVID-19 situation and its consequences, aimed to help citizens of Pécs organize programs still focused on their learning needs, interests and the growing aim to collect and share good knowledge and experience. The Festival was formulated around fifty different programs to reflect the theme of Learning Together: Culture and Community.

Conclusion

Having collected some particularly important messages of those country, culture and community specific examples of learning communities having been organized into learning cities or regions, one must recognize the impact of responsibility, local partnership through the coalition of interest that can result in the ownership of the learning city initiative amongst a range of stakeholders and citizens to formulate a developing community of inclusion where lifelong learning can

really become an organizing principle. The above practices underline the value of stories of individuals, their cities and communities to recognize learning needs and actively engage each and all for better living through learning.

The discoveries and collections of contextual factors and aspects referring to learning city and community developments in the countries examined may provide good lessons of how different formations of collecting and sharing knowledge and skills may result in strengthening urban settings of adult and lifelong learning. Context is necessary to recognize the value of communities with the aspiration to survive, develop and change in order to respond to growing challenges and societal and economic demands tied to environment. In this regard, learning cities and communities offer a collective ground where members of a community can experience the force of inclusion, equality, equity by engaging into the formation of place through both individual and community learnings and, simultaneously, reflecting upon the learning experience towards the community which thereby recognize the value of learning. Examined models from the UK, Palestine, India and from Hungary are drawing a colorful picture with a same message:

> By exploring life experiences, one learns that solidarity and empathy are binding factors anchored in a community fabric. Not only providing education in formal or non-formal way but helping others by other means as well. Simple encouragement or motivation in this crucial time would also be a contribution for the community. In this scenario, togetherness and trust will be the biggest strength for coping with the situation brought on by the pandemic.

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Gradovi i zajednice koji uče: analiziranje kontekstualnih faktora i njihovog uticaja na učenje odraslih i celoživotno učenje u urbanim okruženjima

Apstrakt: U ovom radu ćemo razmotriti kontekstualne aspekte razvoja zajednice u opsegu praksi gradova i zajednica koji uče u vezi sa prenosom znanja i deljenjem u urbanim okruženjima. Kolege uključene u projekat ponudiće svoje kritičke pristupe, razmatranja i predloge o tome kako možemo da razumemo i prepoznamo učenje odraslih i celoživotno učenje kroz zajednice koje nastoje da ostvare mir, razumevanje, socijalnu inkluziju i osetljive interkulturalne i međugeneracijske težnje u teškim vremenima prepunim izazova koji utiču na naše delikatne odnose. U ovom radu nastojaćemo da istaknemo koncept pravičnosti, ljudskog otkrića prikupljanja, deljenja i očuvanja vrednosti, tradicije i dostojanstva putem zajednica koje uče u četiri različita kulturna okruženja Britanskih ostrva, Indije, Palestine i Mađarske. Tamošnja urbana okruženja možda ne moraju nužno da se nazivaju ili smatraju gradovima koji uče, ali etikete i koncepti nisu naš primarni prioritet. Jednostavno je baš onako kako i zvuči: ne smemo nikoga zapostaviti.

Ključne reči: zajednica posvećena učenju, ohrabrenje, poverenje, deljenje znanja

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Helping to Postpone the Last Whimper: Adult Learning and Education for Sustainable Development in the National Energy and Climate Plans of Poland, Portugal and Slovenia

This is the way the world ends
Not with a bang but a whimper

(T. S. Elliot, *The Hollow Men*, 1925)

Abstract: The article compares discourses of the National Energy and Climate Plans (NECPs) of Poland, Portugal and Slovenia concerning the role of adult learning and education for sustainable development. NECPs are analysed through a theoretical proposal based on Escobar's (2005) and Krause's (2010) contributions, establishing three approaches to development and adult learning and education: a) a progress-oriented and

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aware citizen approach; b) a global, critical and transformative approach; and c) an active global and local participatory approach. Main conclusions highlight a progress-oriented and aware citizen approach in the EU-initiated NECPs. Additionally, a top-down approach is evident in the policy documents, as well as an alignment with the liberal theory of development without a deeper reflection on local contexts, evidencing a marginal role of adult learning and education.

Keywords: education for sustainable development, adult learning and education, climate change, European Union

Introduction

Adult learning and education can be an important means of promoting sustainable ways of living and development. However, it may either be working just as a rhetorical slogan or it may shed a light on the relationships between adult learners' life and learning from the perspective of sustainable development. Within the legacy of liberal theory, a substantial body of scholarship has criticised the hegemonic understanding and liberal theory of development (Escobar, 2005). In this vein, the work of Krause (2010) elaborates the educative roles to raise awareness and to think of established ways of thinking, living and producing. Nowadays, sustainable development is a promising idea in both EU and Member States' policies. As such, the significance of the NECPs has risen to prominence. This article explores ways of thinking, living, and producing from the perspective of other (namely Marxist and post-structuralist) theories of development (Escobar, 2005) and the role of adult learning and education in achieving major changes in people's resulting global education and life skills perspectives (Krause, 2010).

To this end, based on document analysis and content analysis, this article aims to compare the discourse around national sustainable development policies in Poland, Portugal and Slovenia and the role given to adult learning and education in each country, addressing the following research question: How can we understand the policy discourse on adult learning and education in the NECPs of Poland, Portugal and Slovenia?

Development, sustainable development and adult learning and education

Several approaches to development may be found in theory. In the frame of modernisation discourses (Manzo, 1991), development has been a key idea in liberal theory (Escobar, 2005; Sachs, 1999) and the essential concept in plans for the

reconstruction of countries devastated by World War II, as well as those that have become politically independent since then. Following the Bretton Woods agreements, development has been understood as economic growth fostered by states through organised and systematised planning. Programmes and projects implemented also included aims directed at increasing industrialisation and urbanisation; raising public participation in democratic societies and diffusing secular-rational forms of culture; increasing physical and social mobility through the implementation of transport; and fostering a social order for which individuals have to be equipped to function, for instance by means of education (Hart, 2001; Manzo, 1991). According to Krause (2010), this perspective of development may be related to education in terms of public relations and awareness-raising approaches preferred by governments to indoctrinate people concerning the benefits of development and to inform and encourage thinking on issues related to this topic. (Adult) education is given a relevant role in programmes based on a top-down approach to foster citizens' adaptation to existing rules and development guidelines.

After the social, economic and environmental crises of the 1960s and 1970s, this approach to development was strongly criticised. Manzo (1991) refers to 'a theoretical malaise' concerning development approaches, owing to 'rates of economic growth in many countries [...] unimpressive despite foreign aid, and, even in rapidly industrializing states [...] long term prospects of social equality and political democracy appeared poor' (p. 4). The Marxist approach (Escobar, 2005; Kay, 1998) has highlighted the economic disadvantage of countries from the South as a result of exploitation by Western countries (or the North) and of perspectives on development informed by state planning guidelines. In this line of reasoning, Krause (2010) points to the need of development education based on a global, critical and transformative approach. (Adult) education activities based on a bottom-up approach, according to Krause, are intended to raise awareness, to foster social and educational resistance to the hegemonic understanding of development when attempting to better understand the global interdependence between the North and the South, and to promote social and economic change.

Government intervention programmes and projects have shown the impasses created by the application of criteria from liberal development theories, such as the causal effect between economic growth and the increase of social injustice. Globalisation gives rise to new inequalities (social, cultural, political, educational, civic, environmental, etc.) (Sachs, 1999) between regions and countries. In many situations, Southern countries have uncritically adopted directions of development from the Northern developed countries and their economic experience. On the other hand, Southern experts, building on critical pedagogy theory,

have stressed the understanding of development as a self-defined process of self-empowerment of local communities, together with a discourse against oppression, unequal power relations and the lack of self-confidence (Freire, 1968; Said, 1979; Giroux, 2001). The Southern perspective, according to Tandon (2008), brings a new understanding of development based on social and democratic factors, as well as the idea of eliminating imperialism: 'Imperialism is often a taboo word, usually avoided in polite intellectual discourse' (p.14). His view is also linked to the global perspective in education described by Andreotti and its trap of 'promoting a new "civilising mission" as the slogan for a generation who take up the "burden" of saving/educating/civilizing the world' (Andreotti, 2014, p. 22). Like Tandon, Andreotti addresses the origins of assumptions and implications regarding development and global citizenship.

Among those criticizing the liberal theory of development (Escobar, 2005), several authors have raised new approaches, such as those referring to sustainable development. Some of these perspectives pointed at the need to make surgical changes in our societies concerning economic growth. The understanding of sustainable development adopted by the United Nations (UN), despite being considerably broad, follows this path (Sachs, 1999). Selby and Kagawa (2014, pp. 149-152) noted the fundamental problem with the concept of sustainable development, which still refers to economic growth. These authors discuss the vague definition that may be found in the Brundtland Commission's (1987) report, which assumes a clear link between sustainability and the ability to grow, which seems to be impossible given the planet's limited resources. Likewise, the framework of neoliberal growth and globalisation presented in the concept involving top-down decision-making mechanisms requires questioning of the whole idea of sustainable development education and values. To question power relations, to reveal the hidden agendas confirming the *status quo,* and to formulate suggestions to overcome the politically-driven agenda of sustainable development requires shedding light on new alternatives, as a result of the effort to 'ask questions and speak truth to power or capitalise on Trojan horses within the walls of mainstream thinking' (Selby & Kagawa, 2014, p. 153).

Therefore, in recent writings, several authors have argued for the need to overcome the North-South perspective and to consider the social ethics of local and global issues (Krause, 2010); others, sustaining post-structuralist approaches, have stressed the importance of re-inventing life on planet earth, defending alternative forms of thinking, living and producing, like the *buen vivir* proposal (Escobar, 2005, 2012) and the critical thinking and ethical approach of liberation (Dussel, 2015). Other authors call for de-growth (Kallis, Demaria, & D'Alisa, 2015; Latouche, 2012). Despite their differences, these approaches share a strong

criticism of capitalism (as insisting on economic growth), which destroys existing natural resources and condemns life on Earth to extinction. Arguments have focused on the importance of politicizing discourses, above all concerning the unquestioned benefits brought on by technology and science. Likewise, the need for problematising globalisation and political (top-down) decision-making has been raised, with the future of humankind in mind. In present times, liberation through ethics based on critical approaches is central in this effort (Dussel, 2015); (adult) education is significant when stressing the interdependence of the spheres of political decision-making and intervention – by highlighting the connection between thinking globally and acting locally – and the emergence of a (new) political ecology based on a civilisation model that respects differences and the existing *pluriverse* of social and natural worlds that still may be found today in the world (Escobar, 2012). Within this frame, (adult) education has to be based on an actor-centred approach in the search of citizens as agents of social change as part of local and global communities of thinking and practice (Krause, 2010).

The EU's narrow understanding of sustainable development

In the last two decades, and especially since 2015, sustainable development has come to the forefront on policy agendas. Sustainable development as a term refers to two main references in supranational political documents, which should be mentioned when discussing the concept. The UN's comprehensive concept described by Brundtland Commission's (1987) report *Our Common Future* highlights the importance of ensuring the ability of future generations to meet their needs based on four main pillars: society, environment, culture and economy. As a discourse framed on an international level, the concept has been received differently on the national level, depending on the areas and topics prioritised by each country, meaning that the connections between pillars have not been as visible as expected (Sachs, 1999). Since the publication of the Brundtland report, a broader understanding of sustainable development has been presented in several policy documents, including the UN's (2015) *Agenda 2030*, which describes 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), which were launched as a new social contract for a new era, harmonizing three core elements: economic growth, social inclusion and environmental protection. The SDGs address the presence of actions on climate change, the sustainable use of resources, and the need to support marginalised groups to mitigate global inequalities. Still, the implementation process relies on national strategies and public policies as well as on stakeholders, governments, the private sector, civil society and others. These different

actors are expected to contribute to the realisation of the SDGs, although multiple understandings of this concept can be observed, such as in Portugal (Schmidt & Guerra, 2013). The SDGs are also followed by the European Union (EU), as they are 'fully consistent with EU values and principles' (European Union [EU], 2018b, p. 2), although the EU has adopted a narrower understanding even when compared to the UN guidelines. For this purpose, the EU has been promoting different initiatives, including the first ten-year integrated NECPs developed between 2015 and 2020 by all the EU Member States (including the United Kingdom) in a process that, until further notice, will be repeated every decade to establish a 'reliable and transparent governance mechanism without any unnecessary administrative burden and with sufficient flexibility for the Member States' (EU, 2018a, p. 3).

The NECPs set out the national objectives of each EU Member State in five key areas (energy efficiency, renewables, greenhouse gas, interconnections, and research and innovation) and the corresponding policies and measures to successfully address these areas (European Commission [EC], 2019a; EU, 2018a). They represent the EU's commitment to contributing to the UN's 2015 *Paris Agreement on Climate Change* and the UN's development approach; in fact, the NECPs are designed to be 'consistent with, and contribute to, achieving the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals' (EU, 2018a). This commitment aims to keep the increase in global average temperature well below 2°C in comparison with the pre-industrial climate level (although the Paris Agreement does not define this pre-industrial/base climate level); it also includes meeting the EU's ultimate climate goal of making Europe the first continent to achieve net-zero greenhouse gas emissions and carbon neutrality by 2050 and negative emission after that (EU, 2018a). In line with the *Regulation on the Governance of the Energy Union and Climate Action*, all EU Member States were required to submit their first NECPs by the end of 2019 (EC, 2019a; EU, 2018a). Each country will also have to issue a report every two years (the first on 15 March 2023) on their progress in the implementation of the NECPs (EU, 2018a).

The current NECPs are established for the 2021-2030 period (including an outlook on 2040 and 2050) and are directed at contributing towards the three key objectives of the EU's *2030 climate & energy framework* to be achieved by 2030 – to reduce greenhouse gas emissions by at least 40% in comparison to the 1990s levels, to generate at least 32% of energy from renewable sources, and to make a 32.5% improvement in energy efficiency from the 1990s levels, although Member States set their own national targets (EC, 2014, 2018). The EU (2018a) published a detailed template for countries to follow in the development of their NECPs. Although giving Member States some flexibility to accommodate their

national contexts, some main categories have to be followed by all countries and should be included in each national NECP (EU, 2018a):

- an overview of the process of developing the NECP, including effective opportunities for citizens and stakeholders to participate in shaping the NECP,
- the description of the established national objectives, planned policies and measures, and barriers to achieving those objectives,
- the description of the current national situation concerning energy and climate,
- the assessment of the impacts of the planned policies and measures on the established objectives and competitiveness,
- an overview of the methodology and policy measures to achieve the required energy savings as established in a 2012 EU directive on energy efficiency.

The NECPs are a governance mechanism under the Energy Union, a framework/strategy established as one of the ten priorities of the Juncker Commission in 2015 (EC, 2020; EU, 2015) in order to establish a forward-looking climate change policy, to transform the EU's energy system and to make it more sustainable, secure and competitive (Bassot & Hiller, 2019). Climate action and decarbonisation are the 'mutually-reinforcing' objectives of the EU's Energy Union, including other dimensions such as energy security and solidarity; an integrated European energy market; energy efficiency; and research, innovation and competitiveness (EU, 2015). The NECPs should contribute to those goals, while particularly focusing on the EU's commitments on the reduction of greenhouse gas emissions in line with the Paris Agreement (EC, 2020; EU, 2018a).

More recently, the NECPs have also been incorporated into *The European Green Deal* (introduced in December 2019 as the first of the six political priorities of the von der Leyen Commission), which reiterates the goal of making the EU climate neutral by 2050 and promises to strengthen the EU's effort in dealing with climate change and establishing a European Climate Law (EC, 2019b). Although the NECPs currently constitute the main EU climate governance mechanism that needs to be followed by all Member States (in order to receive all the financial benefits of the EU), many more policies and measures may be coming in the next few years, similarly highlighting the transformation of the energy system but also focusing more on mobility and food systems, on preserving and restoring ecosystems and biodiversity, and on adopting a zero pollution plan for air, water and soil (EC, 2019b).

(Sustainable) Development and adult learning and education:
A theoretical framework

EU policy documents do not clearly refer to the role of adult learning and education. However, owing to the importance sustainable development has as a policy in peoples' lives, a link may be established between this concept and adult learning and education within a theoretical framework referring to development, as a broad concept, and education as an embracing idea. For the purpose of this article, following Escobar's (2005) and Krause's (2010) arguments, a theoretical proposal was built. This theoretical proposal is based on the theories of development (Escobar, 2005). Escobar stresses three theories of development, emphasizing several variables[5]. Krause's (2010, pp. 3-7) theoretical proposal takes into consideration the links to be established between (adult learning and) education and (sustainable) development, following several categories of analysis[6]. These two contributions were combined, and the arguments presented below are aimed at offering an integrated proposal of analysis. This proposal is built on ideal-types; however, mixed forms may be found, hence each type does not exclude the others when an object of study is discussed. In this article, the variables used by both authors are combined. The outcome includes the following categories of analysis: *understanding of sustainable development, role of adult learning and education*, and *learners' roles and forms of adult learning and education*.

Concerning the *understanding of sustainable development*, the first approach to development in adult learning and education – the 'progress-oriented and aware citizen approach' – emphasises the role of adult learning and education as a tool for raising awareness of the benefits of development to promote a fairer

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[5] Escobar (2005, p. 21) identifies several variables such as epistemology, key concepts, object of study, relevant actors, questions of development, criteria for change, mechanisms of change, ethnography, critical attitude towards development and modernity.

[6] Krause (2010) identifies several categories such as thematic scope, goal, educative approach, pedagogic thought, target group and context. This author identifies four ideal-types of development education, although he argues that one of these ideal-types is illegitimate. About the non-recognized approach to development education, Krause says the following: 'DE as Public Relations for development aid (PR): DE denotes communication activities aiming at predefined outcomes in terms of public support for development cooperation efforts, e.g. pro-aid campaigns, the promotion of the positive results of development co-operation by aid agencies, fundraising of NGOs. Although some actors do call such kind of Public Relations work "Development Education", there is a consensus among the European community of DE stakeholders that PR should not be recognised as part of DE.' (Krause, 2010, p. 7) In fact, governments in many countries have implemented media campaigns and other information and sensibilization programmes and projects referring to (sustainable) development, being activities promoted not clearly related to adult learning and education. For this reason, in the typology built for the purpose of this article, Public Relations for development aid (PR) will not be included.

society. Regarding the *role of adult learning and education*, adult learning and education activities are directed at informing people about development topics, based on main guidelines raised to follow the progress of societies and leading to economic growth. *Learners' roles and forms of adult learning and education* involve information on the adequate exploitation of natural resources for improving living conditions, namely the conditions known in Northern countries as the ones aimed at social and human development. Giving economic and social organisations the possibility of gaining maximum benefits from science and technology is a strong aim of this approach.

In the second approach to development in adult learning and education– the 'global, critical and transformative approach' – the *understanding of sustainable development* is based on critical thinking about the local and global interdependence of sustainable development, human rights and ecological issues. Adult learning and education aims at transforming existing social relations, which are viewed as instruments to exploit local communities and countries that do not have the power to change (Freire, 1968; Giroux, 2001). Blurring the relationship between 'oppressors' and 'oppressed' is of utmost importance. To resist globalisation is an important trend to be followed; alternatives must be raised, and it is urgent to bring back power to communities. Therefore, *learners' roles and forms of adult learning and education* foster a radical transformation of existing economic and social relations. Owing to this purpose, individual responsibility is a serious concern in adult learning and education projects promoted by state departments and services and non-governmental organisations.

In the third approach – the 'active global and local participatory approach' – the *understanding of sustainable development* focuses on the promotion of knowledge through a wide range of projects and activities, involving large sectors of the population, in order for (adult) learners to foster political ecological guidelines, to have the power to affect changes in local environments and global arenas as well. Knowledge acquisition is valuable to develop social ethics, and local and global issues are part of several cosmovisions. Concerning the *role of adult learning and education*, the emphasis is on the promotion of knowledge that establishes a connection between expert information, respect for nature and local communities' cultural ethics, as well as the practice of freedom, as part of alternative modes of thinking, living and producing. Thinking globally, acting locally is a basis for empowering local communities in what relates to *learners' roles and forms of adult learning and education* in social and individual learning, stimulating respect for the diversity to be found in the world, starting with pluriversal knowledge and attitude. The production of new discourses and meanings directed at the emergence of new ways of thinking and new ways of thinking, living and producing is a central issue for all social actors.

Table 1: Approaches to development and adult learning and education (Adapted from Escobar, 2005 and Krause, 2010)

Approaches *Categories*	Progress-oriented and aware citizen approach	Global, critical and transformative approach	Active global and local participatory approach
Understanding of susstainable development	To raise awareness of the benefits of development To promote a fairer society within existing rules and social and economic structure To foster a Western understanding of development to be adopted by Southern countries To develop a top-down approach	To raise critical thinking on local and global interdependence between the North and the South To foster the links between human rights and environmental issues To promote radical changes in modes of production and consumption To implement a bottom-up approach blurring dichotomous relationships between oppressors and oppressed	To develop knowledge through a wide range of projects and activities To affect changes in local environments and in global arenas To produce new discourses and meanings directed at the emergence of new ways of thinking and new ways of thinking, living and producing To use a bottom-up approach to reinforce local communities' roles
Role of adult learning and education	To inform people of development topics To raise awareness of development by fostering progress of societies through economic growth	To transform existing social relations based on exploitation To promote knowledge and abilities to strengthen adult learners and local communities to create change	To establish a connection between expert information, respect for nature and local communities' cultural ethics To use adult learning and education as a tool within practices of freedom and liberation To foster knowledge and abilities related to alternative modes of thinking, living and producing
Learners' roles and forms of adult learning and education	Informing people in general on the adequate exploitation of natural resources for improving living conditions Raising awareness serves the need of promoting instrumental social and human development within capitalism; adult learning and education activities are in many occasions promoted by professionals and/or adult educators and trainers directed at fostering specific programme aims Promoting small changes that do not challenge the existing economic, political and environmental order	Promoting a broad understanding of the complex relationships between people, the state and the market in the era of global capitalism, which hides the strong links between all subjects involved and the constraints to force changes Blurring the dichotomous relationships between oppressors and oppressed Fostering radical transformation of existing economic and social relations; adult educators and other professionals have to be engaged in social transformation	Empowering and emancipating local communities is considered a major aim Involving a wide range of social actors (individual or institutional), state departments and services, civil society organisations and social movements; adult educators are seen as activists fostering new ways of thinking, living and producing Valuing new knowledge created by local communities and stimulating respect for the diversity to be found in the world, starting by acknowledging pluriversal knowledge and abilities – major changes in meaning given to ways of thinking, living and producing are fostered

Methodology

To gain a meaningful understanding of the role of adult learning and education for sustainable development in policy discourse, a document analysis was performed for this study, based on the method of qualitative inquiry (Denzin, 2018). As Bowen (2003, 2009) shows, document analysis can provide 'contextual richness' (Bowen, 2009, p. 36) to understand the socio-historical and politico-economic background of the topic. It consists of two main stages: selecting the documents to be analyzed and then analyzing the documents. In the first stage – selecting the documents – a selection of national documents, namely the NECPs of three countries (Poland, Portugal, and Slovenia) was made.[7] For the comparative analysis, we took a closer look at how three EU Member States from different parts of Europe developed their NECPs. As the NECPs require coordination across all government departments (EC, 2019), it is expected that they will have an impact on education as well (EU, 2018a). By analysing their NECPs, we could determine how national governments currently see the role of (adult) learning and education in contributing to the UN's Paris Agreement targets to reduce greenhouse gas emissions, and we could identifiy the main similarities and differences between those perceptions, which were developed under the common influence of the EU.

The second stage – analyzing the documents – involves three sub-stages performend in an iterative manner: a) skimming, b) reading, and c) interpreting. Throughout this 'systemic procedure for reviewing and evaluating' (Bowen, 2009, p. 27), the work of Escobar (2005) and Krause (2010) allowed us to build the theoretical framework. Putting the research question at the centre of this process to make the substantial comparison, we followed four steps: a) descriptive juxtaposition, b) analytical juxtaposition, c) descriptive comparison, and d) analytical comparison (Egetenmeyer, 2012). Simultaneously, as researchers from Portugal, Poland, and Slovenia, respectively, we acknowledge our 'ethnocentric perspective[s]' (Mason, 2007, p. 183). However, given the collaborative process, which included a researcher originally from South Korea and currently living in Canada, the process of evaluating documents and writing allows for 'greater confidence in [the credibility] of the findings' (Bowen, 2009, p. 30). In the end, this study produces key findings within the three categories: 1) understanding of sustainable development, 2) the role of adult learning and education, and 3) learners and forms of adult learning and education.

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[7] The NECP discourses were analysed in the respective native language (Ministry of State Assets of the Republic of Poland, 2020a; The Government of Portugal, 2020a; The Government of the Republic of Slovenia, 2020a); their official English translations were used when paraphrasing or quoting from the documents (Ministry of state Assests of the Republic of Poland [Poland], 2020b; The Government of Portugal [Portugal], 2020b; The Government of the Republic of Slovenia [Slovenia], 2020b).

Data analysis

Perception of sustainable development

Climate change and actions mitigating climate changes/the climate crisis are included in the Sustainable Development Goals (Goal 13), interlinked with various other goals related to biodiversity, consumption and wildlife preservation. The topic is even more alarming after the publication of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC, 2019) report entitled *Global Warming of 1.5 ºC.* It is worth noting that sustainable energy is also among the separate goals in the Agenda (Goal 7). Despite the importance such policy documents may have for humankind, all analysed plans narrow down the UN's perspective on sustainable development, highlighting mostly the economic and environmental perspective. Decision-makers emphasise the role of technologies and business in mitigating the negative effects of climate change, giving society and citizens only a marginal role in the process. Still, we found no discussion and reflection based on the causes or consequences of climate change following a broader perspective. Plans do refer to climate change in the title, but most of what can be found in these documents suggests the attempt to solve the issues of decarbonisation and energetic sustainability.

> *This new energy model for carbon neutrality represents a unique opportunity for Portugal. In relation to the economic recovery which the country has achieved in recent years, the challenge of energy transition is seen as an opportunity which will allow the economy to be leveraged. The aim is to achieve sustainable development based on a democratic and fair model which promotes the advance of civilization and technology, the creation of jobs and prosperity, the creation of wealth and territorial cohesion while also preserving natural resources. The path to the decarbonisation of the economy is also an opportunity for economic growth.* (Portugal, 2020b, p. 19)

Overestimating the role of technology and evidencing a lack of a holistic approach towards sustainability, including emissions (?) reduction and limited worldwide resources, the plans seem to be influenced by a market-oriented perspective. The lack of sensitivity to human rights and equal participation in sustainable development makes it even easier to understand the narrow perspective on sustainable development adopted by the EU and by the countries selected for this analysis. The Portuguese plan frequently refers to the Agenda 2030, stressing an advanced understanding when comparing to the EU's way of relating to this important topic.

> *In terms of background, it is important to note that Portugal, in the context of Agenda 2030 for sustainable development, had already defined SDG 13 – Climate Action to be a priority target. The identification of SDG 13 as a priority target is directly related to Portugal's ambitions in terms of complying with SDG 7 – Affordable and Clean Energy for all. In addition to the aforesaid targets, SDG 4 – Quality Education, SDG 5 – Gender Equality, SDG 9 – Industry, Innovation and Infrastructure and SDG 10 – Reduced Inequality were also identified as priorities.* (Portugal, 2020b, p. 24)

And yet, the understanding of sustainable development presented in the document is still broad and vague when it comes to defining the process and much more supportive of technological and economic factors. The energy transition as the key goal to be achieved by 2040 is connected with social factors, although stressing the process towards a carbon-neutral society.

> *[...] the Government of the Republic of Slovenia adopted the Slovenian Development Strategy 2030 (Strategija razvoja Slovenije – SRS 2030), a framework document on national development that places quality of life for all at the forefront. The strategy incorporates globally agreed sustainable development goals as well as five strategic orientations and twelve interrelated development goals that lay down new long-term development foundations for Slovenia.* (Slovenia, 2020b, p. 16)

The Slovenian document quotes sustainable development, but the understanding is focused on the economic and environmental dimension, whereas the social aspect is rather underrepresented in the narrative. The weakest link between global sustainable development and the plan is presented by the Polish one, including references to the role of specific sectors such as agriculture or fishery.

> *Reduction of the civilisation gap between Poland and highly developed economies and improvement of the quality of life of Polish people, as well as the fulfilment of the development aspirations of the present and future generations consistently with the sustainable development principle.* (Poland, 2020b, p. 45)

The role of adult learning and education

The character of the NECPs is based on the European guidelines; these technical policy documents include goals, measurements and market-oriented criteria. Depending on each country's context, education could have an important role in reaching the goals and broadening citizens' understanding of climate change.

However, the plans analysed here never show a strong connection to education, nor to adult education, even though adults are among the main target groups of the proposed activities. For instance, words such as education, training and learning are not much visible in the plans, which shows the marginal status of (adult) learning and education. The NECPs adequately reflect what was decided at the international level in the frame of EU energy policy as part of the fight against climate change, strongly focussing on the correct management of energy systems and tending to overlook some of the other ways that might also help reduce greenhouse gas emissions. For example, the Portuguese Plan proposes actions such as the ones listed below, but there is no subsequent mention of further education and learning guidelines:

> *8.3.1. Promote capacity-building (education and training) to mitigate climate change, develop a low-carbon economy and improve air quality*
> *8.3.4. Promote awareness and capacity-building (education and training) actions for more sustainable production and consumption patterns*
> (Portugal, 2020b, p. 72)

The potential role of adult learning and education to strengthen awareness of climate change and to create a society based on sustainable development is absent. The plans only stress the strategic minimal presence related to market-oriented goals and the professionalisation of dedicated groups of adults, such as workers from different sectors, farmers or research and technology staff. Vocational education and professional training are emphasised in the reports from Poland (2020b), Portugal (2020b) and Slovenia (2020b), albeit concerns for education are lower in the latter country. Therefore, it can be said that these countries' plans reveal the same perspective on professionalizing workers by building knowledge and skills related to new technologies and green solutions but avoid presenting clear programmes and activities directed at other sectors of the population.

It must be stressed that the role of consumers is emphasised in all three national plans; somehow, the main perspective on society in climate change is that on consumers in the market as buyers of services or products. Campaigns targeted at people are generally aimed at raising public awareness of sustainability and development topics, at changing lifestyles and at containing climate change by changing habits. But the value-based part of sustainability is not visible in the analysed plans, and it is not clear how these changes will happen without the support of adult learning and education (formal and non-formal) activities directed at several social sectors. In fact, there are minor differences in the extent to which learning and education are presented in the analysed plans, with the Slovenian

plan being most outspoken of the three when it comes to addressing education and learning, whereas the Polish plan has least to say about this issue.

> *[...] to draw up and carry out a comprehensive national promotion and literacy campaign on the importance and mode of transition to a climate-neutral society [in 2020], e.g.:*
>
>   – *themed ads on TV and web content,*
>   – *organisation of thematic events (kindergartens, schools, universities, local communities, non-governmental organisations, etc.),*
>   – *climate week (3rd week of October).* (Slovenia, 2020b, p.106)

In the Slovenian plan, the connection to formal education is highlighted at some stage; to some extent, we can also see this in case of Portugal, but in this plan, the relationship is much more fragmented. In Poland, some funds for ecological education are referred, but these are not seen as strategic priorities. Also, the narrative is slightly different, because the Polish focus is on mitigating the risks and negative effects of climate change by strengthening innovative and technological contributions based on vocational education and training/professional training and expert capacities.

> *Providing investment support for farms along with training and technology advisory services, taking into account issues concerning the adaptation of agricultural production to an increased climate risk and climate change prevention.* (Poland, 2020b, pp. 73-74)

Learners' roles and forms of learning

The learners' roles in various adult learning and education activities mentioned in the plans vary significantly among the countries considered. The only two groups of learners that appear in all three plans are commuters and consumers (groups that should include most adults). The immediate aim of addressing commuters is the same in Portugal and Slovenia – to decrease the number of vehicles on the roads and promote public transportation and biking, while in Poland the focus is on the (potential) users of electric vehicles. The Slovenian NECP (Slovenia, 2020b) also mentions travelling (and not just commuting), planning to implement adult learning and education activities 'to reach the widest possible public and change travel habits' (p. 65). Regarding consumers, the immediate aim is the same in all three plans – to make them more aware of their position on the energy market. There are a few learners' groups throughout the NECPs that should

include most (if not all) adults. Two such groups are local communities in Poland, targeted in order to become energy producers and to 'change their negative attitude towards investment projects' (Poland, 2020b, p. 101), and household members in Portugal and Slovenia, addressed in the Portuguese plan as (potential) energy producers and in the Slovenian plan in the context of transitioning to the use of more sustainable heating appliances. The Slovenian NECP also generally targets people that do not (yet) use clean energy or use more energy than needed, while the Polish NECP emphasises people from areas prone to natural disasters as a special adult learning and education target group.

Another quite broad category of learners in the Portuguese and Slovenian NECPs are the professionals that work in different areas with a high potential of contributing to energy efficiency (e.g. workers in the energy and transport sectors, sellers and installers of energy-efficient appliances, chimney sweepers, first responders, building managers). Different occupations seem to be the most specifically addressed, as medical workers and entrepreneurs are also mentioned as special adult learning and education target groups (in the Polish plan in particular), as well as farmers and civil servants (in the Polish and Slovenian plans). The Portuguese NECP (Portugal, 2020b, p. 53) similarly states that the 'public administration also plays an important role in leading the way toward decarbonisation' and even argues that the role of state departments is 'equally essential' as the role of research and innovation; and yet, the Portuguese plan does not specify any adult learning and education activities for public servants. In sum, generally, there seem to be two main categories of adult learning and education target groups to be addressed in line with the analysed NECPs: 1) the all-encompassing target groups and 2) the specific vocational target groups.

All three countries mention various forms of adult learning and education in their plans. The contribution to sustainable development through formal and non-formal education is present in all of them, as well as support for informal learning on relevant topics. In connection with the latter, all three NECPs refer to different information/media campaigns in order to reduce energy poverty, promote cleaner energy and encourage energy efficiency through the transformation of behaviours and attitudes. One way of achieving such a transformation, found in all analysed NECPs, is to raise awareness about the rights of the consumers on the energy market. Additionally, information campaigns in Poland aim to promote greener technologies and other relevant ways of increasing energy efficiency; in Portugal, to promote sustainable production and consumption (with a focus on certain industries), low-carbon economy and use of greener means of transportation; and in Slovenia, to 'improve overall energy and climate literacy' (Slovenia, 2020b, p. 215). Slovenia is also the only country to (already) have out-

lined a media campaign featuring television and online advertisements, different thematic events in educational institutions and local communities, and an annual climate week.

Among more structured forms of education and learning, vocational education and training/professional training is the main one, although Portugal and Slovenia specify plans to introduce more environmental topics into schools (also in pre-school education) and universities. Training is even mentioned more times than education in all three NECPs, often in relation to certain target groups. Training is not always directed at tackling climate change, for instance in the Polish plan of planning special programmes to achieve '[a]n increase in the sale of technologies by Polish companies in international markets' (Poland, 2020b, p. 47). The Polish and the Portuguese plans additionally mention re-training (especially for workers from sectors heavily dependent on fossil fuels), whereas the Polish and Slovenian NECPs also plan to facilitate vocational education and training/professional training through counselling, mainly on the topic of sustainable forms of farming. For this reason, the Slovenian government plans to organise 'training[s] [for] agricultural advisers on the latest approaches in sustainable agriculture' (Slovenia, 2020b, p. 68). Besides that, all three countries are planning to establish digital (learning) platforms to make learning content on energy and climate widely accessible. Through them, Portuguese citizens will be able to compare different energy providers or get information about energy-efficient building(s), Polish citizens will be able to access general information about climate change or learn about clean technologies, and Slovenian citizens will be able to see their current options of public transportation and co-travel or learn about sustainable business models.

Discussion

The compared NECPs show a similar understanding of (sustainable) development, which is a narrow one based on liberal theory (Escobar, 2005). This understanding is mostly focused on clean energy and new technologies to reach green transformation. From an educational perspective, the thematic scope is also narrowed to raise awareness among citizens, who are seen as potential consumers, of the benefits of the green energy available on the market without encouraging a deeper understanding of global and local interdependencies (Krause, 2010). Critical approaches to development (Escobar, 2005) or holistic and ethical perspectives on living on planet Earth (e.g. Dussel, 2015) are completely absent from the documents. Additionally, the policy process was initiated at the European level

and then implemented on the national level, based on existing evidence of the role of the state, the market and civil society and local groups of citizens in consultation. The top-down approach is visible not only in the process of adapting the EU guidelines to the national contexts but also when considering the lack of understanding concerning the role local communities can play in the implementation process towards significant changes in energy consumption and lifestyles (Escobar, 2005, 2012; Krause, 2010). The strong role of the neoliberal market and innovative technologies in shaping the agenda changed the focus from local sustainability to worldwide green competition, where Western countries would like to retain their economic predominance. The perception of sustainable development is in fact the weakest point of the NECPs, as it influences further understanding and questions the possibility to reach meaningful changes in a long-term perspective. The missing role of (adult learning and) education is clear; the lack of consultation of civil society organisations working on sustainable development is also evident, as well as local communities referring to people's interests and wills when it comes to the future of humankind. Global interdependencies based on a neoliberal agenda hamper the ambitions of doing business and even fostering big business; and have a negative impact on shaping the plans. Therefore, the progress-oriented and aware citizen approach identified earlier in our typology (Escobar, 2005; Krause, 2010) is clearly predominant in the perception of sustainable development, with all the implications of this model.

The plans' emphasis on economic growth influences the understanding and role of adult learning and education by focusing mostly on training of adults to deliver innovative products on the market to reduce energy consumption and mitigate the negative impact of climate change. This leads to the progress-oriented and aware citizen approach (Escobar, 2005; Krause, 2010). The educational approach towards societies is concentrated only on awareness-raising aspects, which influence consumer behaviours and change habits towards a more sustainable environment, but still under the existing model of consumption. There is no deeper and critical knowledge and practice to reach significant changes in a long-term perspective; there is not even an attempt to work with people in general and local communities in particular on real alternatives opposed to the neoliberal market rules. The lack of a transformative approach in the role of adult learning and education seems to be the lost opportunity in the policy documents analysed here; the plans seem to stress mostly the tools to be used rather than the main goals related to the link between development and education.

The progress-oriented and aware citizen approach (Escobar, 2005; Krause, 2010) is, therefore, the dominant approach also when it comes to the identified adult learning and education target groups and forms of learning in the NECPs.

Even though the specified target groups of learners essentially include adults in general (which should generate a broad need to implement diverse adult learning and education activities), the identified forms of adult learning and education still seem to be more or less superficial, with a minuscule extent focused on influencing the development of certain citizens' behaviours, rather than addressing the roots of crucial environmental and social problems. At the same time, vocational education and training/professional training appear as the main ways of addressing different target groups (or at least the most clearly outlined), as different occupations are emphasised, whereas (non-vocational) adult learning and education is directed only at broad, anonymous social and educational sectors. Consequently, vocational education and training/professional training is the preferred adult learning and education form in all three countries, which is also indicative of the NECPs' instrumental understanding of adult learning and education. The aim of addressing different target groups, as planned in the NECPs, is to make learners more energy-efficient and to promote the transition to the use of clean(er) energy (or make people do something that directly contributes to that) in the frame of the current economic, political and environmental order. Therefore, the goal is not to radically change the economic system that brought us to the current social and environmental conditions, as, for example, proponents of degrowth (Kallis et al., 2015; Latouche, 2012), *buen vivir* [well living] and the *pluriverse* (Escobar, 2012) approaches would argue, or even as proposed in the more ethically based perspectives of development (Dussel, 2015), but to adapt citizens in a way that allows, or even accelerates, further economic development, while not damaging the environment (too much) in any irreversible way. In fact, in all three NECPs, even in regard to more structured adult learning and education forms, citizens are mostly perceived as entities that need to be informed in order to behave properly and develop the right attitudes. It is through such positioning that the top-down approach to adult learning and education is most clearly exposed.

Although the Polish, Portuguese and Slovenian plans refer to utilizing different adult learning and education activities to transform the behaviours and attitudes of their citizens regarding energy efficiency and clean energy, they all give great importance to some rather superficial forms, such as media campaigns and informing through digital platforms. Reaching as many people as possible on the topics of sustainable development is certainly important, but it should not come at the cost of diminishing the critical role of adult learning and education or neglecting the active role of the learners in making substantial changes to build alternative forms of thinking, living and producing.

Conclusion

The analysis of the NECPs has revealed the hegemonic and narrow understanding of sustainable development, following the liberal theory (Escobar, 2005) and the awareness raising approach in (adult learning and) education (Krause, 2010); following this line of reasoning, the absence of critical and holistic approaches of adult learning and education were noticed. The top-down approach presented in the policy documents follows the modernisation paradigm in development that still supports market-oriented and Eurocentric perspectives, without deeper reflection on regional contexts and local communities' ownership. The documents from Poland, Portugal, and Slovenia support a neoliberal development agenda, where economic growth is considered the core value. Nevertheless, there are questions that need to be raised in order to examine the lost opportunity of implementation and to summon the opportunity which the next NECPs in 2030 can represent. The questions are: What are the roles of adult learning and education in postponing 'the last whimper' on this planet? In order to promote the influential role of adult learning and education for sustainability, what kind of ontological, epistemological, and axiological foundation should be suggested for the new understanding of development in future EU (initiated) policies, namely the 2030 NECPs?

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Kako odložiti „jecaj" pred kraj: učenje i obrazovanje odraslih s ciljem održivog razvoja u nacionalnim energetskim i klimatskim planovima u Poljskoj, Portugaliji i Sloveniji

Ovako svetu dođe kraj.
Ne s tutnjem već s jecajem.

(T. S. Eliot, *Šuplji ljudi*, 1925)

Apstrakt: Ovaj rad upoređuje diskurse nacionalnih energetskih i klimatskih planova (NECP) Poljske, Portugalije i Slovenije u pogledu uloga učenja i obrazovanja odraslih s ciljem održivog razvoja. Nacionalni energetski i klimatski planovi su analizirani kroz teoretski predlog zasnovan na Krauseovim (2010) i Escobarovim (2005) doprinosima, pri čemu su uspostavljena tri pristupa razvoju, učenju i obrazovanju odraslih: a) osvešćeni građanski pristup koji je orijentisan na napredak; b) globalni, kritički i transformativni pristup i c) aktivni globalni i lokalni participativni pristup. Glavni zaključci ističu osve-

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šćen građanski pristup koji je orijentisan na napredak u NECP planovima iniciranim od EU. Uz to, pristup odozgo nadole je očigledan u dokumentima o politikama, kao i u usklađivanju sa liberalnom teorijom razvoja bez značajnijeg odraza na lokalne kontekste, pri čemu se zapaža marginalna uloga učenja i obrazovanja odraslih.

Ključne reči: obrazovanje s ciljem održivog razvoja, učenje i obrazovanje odraslih, klimatske promene, Evropska unija

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Entrepreneurship Education Around the World: A Possible Comparison

Abstract: Technological changes and innovation trends are quickly transforming jobs and professions. What is the added value of humans in a technological world? Many studies highlight the relevance of creativity and an entrepreneurial mindset for an individual to be able to seize opportunities and generate new ideas and values for the society, community, and economy. The main aim of this article is to illustrate the policies and programs of entrepreneurship education in Italy, South Korea and India. Starting from a review of definitions and based on the comparative method, our findings indicate that entrepreneurship education is emerging as an educational concept that could support students' growth to face new challenges today and in the future.

Key Words: entrepreneurship, adult education, educational policy, higher education

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Introduction

Talking about entrepreneurship in education is always an apparently subversive act, in contrast with the highest purposes of building citizenship, continuous training, and research on the development of sustainable environments. Above all, it seems that in the field of adult education the issue of entrepreneurship education has no reason to be debated. Instead, the article supports the idea that entrepreneurship education is a research field highly connected with adult education, and it has a key innovative role for the development of specific training programs for young adults.

The first element to be considered concerns the context that defines what is meant by entrepreneurship education and why the connection with adult education is so evident. There are two conceptualizations that are proposed by scholars about the term entrepreneurship. On the one hand, the concept underlying the term is considered in relation to the building process of a business. Accordingly, entrepreneurship education can represent the training path to build the sense of business in young adults:

> According to earlier research on formal education, both the 'narrow' and the 'broad' approach of entrepreneurship are 'ultimately committed to, serving the interests of business, albeit through some intervening process of "personal development" (Pantea, 2014, p. 36).

On the other hand,

> The broad meaning of entrepreneurship is not only about business: entrepreneurial education 'is not only an economic competence, but it is a competence of citizens' [...]. It needs to focus on development instead of business management, and thus, to create new ideas to solve social problems. Indeed, there might be nothing wrong in assisting young people to develop creativity, and be responsible. It goes without saying that the set of negative characteristics linked with entrepreneurship (individualism, opportunism, boldness, excessive interest in decreasing costs and increasing profits, risk taking,[...]) remain less theorized in the arguments that invariably support the 'broad' meaning of entrepreneurial learning (Pantea, 2014, p. 36).

According to this second conceptualization, the article will assume that the introduction of entrepreneurship paths within the contexts of formal and non-formal learning is actually a perspective that allows the combined construction of

the professional self and the personal one. Still using Pantea's words (2014), entrepreneurial learning solicits creativity, flexibility, a sense of initiative, proactivity, imagination. It is not a matter of building a business or opening a company, but of assuming a posture towards the world and towards work.

In this perspective, the sense of initiative is the focal point to look at when talking about entrepreneurship. The commercial and financial dimensions of this kind of education, the corporate forms, are not that relevant compared to the way in which entrepreneurship education and learning stimulate human development. And surely, it is not enough to say that transversal or soft skills are necessary for this kind of development. What is needed instead is to reflect on the commitment to train well-made minds and heads (Morin, 2000, 2001).

Entrepreneurship education looks at work as the founding moment of human education with everything that follows. And in this perspective, is important to reflect on the fact that important authors such as John Dewey have based their thoughts on the relationship between school, as a place of learning, and life, as a place of work and production. A production for the advancement of human beings. A production of goods and services for the benefit of evolution, with what it entails. For example, we can recall how UN sustainability goals look precisely at human well-being in the direction of an evolution for the benefit of humans and the environment they have in custody.

Without fear of being too emphatic and without fear of going back to the fundamental texts of this author, between the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, (Dewey, 1899, 1916), we can say that Dewey covered an inspired role for the scientific production in adult education. In this sense, it is relevant to note how entrepreneurship education differs from enterprising education for its focus on the subject of adult education. The culture that is built around the theme of entrepreneurship, rather than the curricula to educate entrepreneurship, should be focused. Entrepreneurship could be, in fact, a sine qua non condition for developing adult skills that will allow any young graduate to enter working contexts effectively, with determination, with creativity, but also with empathy and awareness. Moreover, some authors think that without entrepreneurship it is not possible to think of building a responsible autonomy which generates value for oneself and for others (Morselli, 2016).

The article, therefore, will focus the reflection precisely on identifying elements of entrepreneurship education in the adult training programs in the countries considered in order to evaluate the level of diffusion of the notion as a competence for the future.

In a historical moment in which the change in work questions us, considering the uncertainty we face worldwide, we must anticipate the dramatic change

in work considering the emergency and urgency of equipping children, adolescents and adults with alternative transversal skills. We have a great responsibility in facing the Covid-Sars-2 pandemic. It's not about providing tools to open a business, it's about considering our ability to overcome it in a context of rapid and dizzying change. A transformation that is well-suited to adult education. As Mezirow taught us, in fact, education serves transformation and it is transformation itself. A transformation that passes through practice and experience (Kolb, 1984) and interprets entrepreneurship education as a way to innovate teaching and learning experiences.

Universities have the duty to create transversal programs of professional self-construction which aim to deliver the best tools to learn transformative skills. Using methods such us design thinking, creating curricula to teach entrepreneurship, overturning traditional teaching methods, working in small groups, financing programs to transform research ideas into ideas that are potentially useful for start-ups, bridging labor market needs and university ones, applying research ideas for the development of innovative products are just some of the pathways that may be taken.

Entrepreneurship education cannot exclude enterprising paths, none of the greatest ideas of innovation have been detached from a business concept, however, the interest is not on business models.

Indeed, the main purpose is to reflect on some educational key factors that emerge from the analysis of entrepreneurship education policies and programs in Italy, South Korea and India.

The analysis work was started in the comparative group "Entrepreneurship in Higher Education for the Development of Innovation and Creative Thinking" that took place during the 2020 International Winter School program of INTALL project.

The following comparative research questions guided this discussion:

- What are the policies for entrepreneurship education that influence strategies in higher education?
- Which programs have been implemented for entrepreneurship education in higher education?

The discussion presented in the article is based on document analysis (Bowen, 2009), and was conducted using the comparative method.

Egetenmeyer (2020) identifies a three-step model to develop the comparative method in adult education. The model "starts at descriptive juxtaposition, moves on to analytical juxtaposition, and ends at analytical interpretation" (p. 26).

According to this model, the article presents the three national contexts and then discusses the similarities and differences between comparative categories observed in all three countries: the perspective of entrepreneurship education, the level of development in higher education of entrepreneurship education and the entrepreneurial programs featured at universities, developed or partially developed, to bolster innovation and creativity. Finally, it provides an interpretation of the comparative categories identified.

Given the above arguments, the article reflects on the importance of innovative learning as the foundation of the development of every country, because without innovative development, there is no future, without future there is no education.

Entrepreneurship Education in Italy

In recent years, the debate on entrepreneurship education was included within the educational sphere (Fayolle, Benoît & Lassas-Clerc, 2007; Gibb, 2005; Lackéus, 2015). What is entrepreneurship education? Why is it so important that higher education deals with this subject?

Entrepreneurship education is defined as "content, methods, and activities supporting the creation of knowledge, competencies, and experiences that make it possible for students to initiate and participate in entrepreneurial value-creating processes" (Moberg, Stenberg & Vestergaard, 2012, p. 14) and it "provides a mix of experiential learning, skills building and, most importantly, mindset shift" (Wilson, 2008, p. 2). Entrepreneurship education is recognized as the most promising activity to foster an entrepreneurial mindset (Costa, Santos, Wach & Caetano, 2018) and to keep pace in a rapidly evolving and changing world, with the introduction of increasingly complex and high-tech elements (European Commission, 2020). Nowadays we live in a knowledge-based economy where "creative tasks and innovation have become more prominent" (Fyen et al., 2019, p. 3).

In this context, it is becoming increasingly essential that universities promote programs to foster the development of entrepreneurial skills. Entrepreneurship education is fundamental for the citizens of the knowledge-based society helping them become architects of their destiny (Strano, 2016).

In 2006, the European Commission recognized the considerable importance of entrepreneurial skills and their character of life skills, including entrepreneurship and the spirit of initiative among the key skills for lifelong learning for full personal development, fulfilment and effective insertion and progress in the world of work (European Commission, 2006). In this direction, the Euro-

pean Commission, starting from 2006, has placed this theme at the center of numerous actions, communications, calls to action and more recently, the European Skills Agenda for sustainable competitiveness, social fairness, and resilience (2020). The European Skills Agenda underlines the European Commission's attention on this topic and the constant commitment to develop and promote an entrepreneurial culture within education and labor contexts. Entrepreneurial skills allow students, and citizens in general—considered as lifelong learners—to act and transform ideas and opportunities into shared value and keep the future in their own hands (McCallum, Weicht, McMullan & Price, 2018). To promote and raise awareness of entrepreneurship education at all levels of education, the European Commission developed the EntreComp model (Bacigalupo, Kampylis, Punie & Van den Brande, 2016) for the definition of a shared European framework, in which the actors involved in entrepreneurship can recognize themselves through a common language.

Therefore, this represents the reference context for Italian universities, which are called to put into practice the directives of the European Commission. Higher education has the primary task of educating the generations of the future and preparing young people to face challenges and changes, equipping them with the necessary skills. As Fyen et al. (2019) stated "universities do not need to become "entrepreneurial" themselves, but they should be aware of their role in entrepreneurial ecosystems, namely to educate students that can create value in the organizations, economy, and society they will join after graduation and that can tackle (societal) problems in an innovative way" (p. 3). Undoubtedly, the responsibility for developing education and training initiatives for entrepreneurship must fall on various actors of civil life, but higher education must feel called to the fore to help promote this paradigm shift in education and training and to the construction of an entrepreneurial culture (European Commission, 2015).

In Italy, entrepreneurship education has developed in recent years and it is still closely linked to the economic dimension and therefore to the development of a new business. The presence of entrepreneurship courses within higher education is a recent phenomenon, almost absent until 2004 (Iacobucci, Micozzi, 2010). The entrepreneurship courses are mainly present in the faculties of business and economics and engineering (Iacobucci, Micozzi, 2010).

However, contrary to this trend:

It seems reductive to think of entrepreneurship education as the exclusive prerogative of the economics departments. Rather, it should represent an integral part of all university courses [...], especially if we consider that entrepreneurship, taking initiative (to be enterpris-

ing), as an aspect of entrepreneurship education, is a training objective, closely connected to learning processes and, therefore, valid for multiple contexts (Piazza, 2015, p. 82).

According to this broader concept of entrepreneurship education, the entrepreneurial skills "are not the subject of specific lessons but are simply inserted among the key skills that students should have acquired at the end of their studies" (Strano, 2016).

However, recently, universities have increased attention towards entrepreneurship education as a part of their third mission (Fiore, Sansone, Remondino & Tamborrini, 2019). In this direction, the Italian Ministry of University and Research started to promote the diffusion of entrepreneurial culture and innovation in higher education, "aimed at facilitating the creation of value by focusing on concrete opportunities for interactions between universities, research entities, enterprises, and other societal actors" (OECD, 2019).

In particular, the National Research Program, the plan that guides research policy in Italy, in 2016 provided a strengthening of funds in the Contamination Lab (CLab) program, born in 2013 ("MIUR, Start-Up Call"—Directorial Decree of 13.03.2013 no. 436) as a pilot program in four southern regions. The CLab program is a nationally funded program that now has 22 CLabs in Italy (Fiore et al., 2019).

> Contamination Labs are places of contamination between university students and PhD students of different disciplines. The Contamination Labs are places of impulse of the culture of entrepreneurship and innovation, aimed at promoting interdisciplinarity, new learning models and the development of innovation projects with an entrepreneurial and social vocation, in close connection with the territory (MIUR, 2016b, p. 2).

They are places where opportunities and ideas meet with creativity of students and entrepreneurial projects. Indeed, they are considered midway between an incubator and a university laboratory.

CLabs therefore fall within the field of application and research of entrepreneurship education, and appear to be in line with the spirit of creation of the entrepreneurial culture of the European Commission (MIUR, 2016b). This culture does not remain closed within university contexts but opens up to the territory, thanks to the connection with stakeholders.

CLab is a recent program, and for this reason, not many studies have been carried out yet. Recent researches (Fiore et al., 2019; Secundo, Mele, Sansone

& Paolucci, 2020) have examined some case studies to understand the impact of CLab on students in developing entrepreneurial skills and an entrepreneurial mindset. Those researches underline the success factors as interdisciplinarity, virtuous contamination of knowledge and experience between students and the stakeholder, soft skills development such as teamwork, communication, and networking skills.

In conclusion, it is possible to affirm that higher education in Italy is taking steps towards building an entrepreneurial culture that tends to form a mindset, rather than the creation of a new business. The CLabs are an important step, but still, there is a long way to go. In fact, "the uncertainty about the meaning to be assigned to entrepreneurship education, the lack of adequate training of university staff, the difficulties in involving entrepreneurs in training and evaluation paths, the traditional academic evaluation of knowledge rather than skills and behaviors are only some of the impediments that limit the inclusion of entrepreneurship education" (Piazza, 2015, p. 85) in higher education in Italy.

The commitment of adult education in higher education on entrepreneurship education must go in the direction of occupying a position of dialogue and comparison with different disciplines to provide their own pedagogically oriented perspective. Entrepreneurship education is one of the many paths of pedagogy, because even this type of education acts on the increase of the person's freedom, on the strengthening of his capacity for active citizenship and the promotion of democratic learning environments (Jones, Iredale, 2010).

Therefore, looking at the models of the European Commission and the rest of the world, adult education in Italy must work to support the creation of an entrepreneurial culture, which places the student and the development of his skills at the center and provides him with the necessary mindset to face the challenges of the future.

Thus, working on entrepreneurship in adult education is an attempt to connect higher education with the value creation process to innovate the cultural, social, employment and economic context (Terzaroli, 2018).

Entrepreneurship Education in South Korea

Entrepreneurship education can be a major contributor to a better life and a better world by preparing citizens for the challenges they will face as new entrepreneurs. Although many people have creative ideas, it can be difficult to turn those dreams into a solid business. However, if an entrepreneur is enabled via education, it is no longer just an unrealistic fantasy. Timmons, Spinelli, and Tan

(2004) state that through entrepreneurship education, one can cultivate confidence and the ability to launch a successful start-up by enhancing motivation and the start-up spirit.

South Korea faces many challenges in order to maintain economic growth in the coming years. According to a 2017 report from KISDI (Korea Information Society Development Institute), the aging population is increasing and the economically active population will have declined greatly by 2040. Furthermore, the potential growth rate is expected to decrease 3.0% by 2020 and 1.4% by 2035. Unfortunately, the youth unemployment rate increased sharply from 8.3% in 2012 to 12.5% in 2016. Thus, the Korean government must develop policies to meet these circumstances. Targeting both short-term and long-term outcomes, it must facilitate an "innovation ecosystem" to stimulate entrepreneurship with creative and innovative technology.

Policies in South Korea

The Korean government has created various policies to fuel job creation through SMEs (small and medium-sized enterprises) since the Korean financial crisis of 1997. The Ministry of SMEs and Start-Ups (MSS), which was established in 2017, has systemically structured six categories of start-ups: Commercialization, Start-up R&D, Facilities and Spaces, Education, Mentoring and Consulting, and Events and Networks.

Entrepreneurship education is widely considered an important factor in a successful SME, as well as research and technology commercialization in universities. Accordingly, the government has been working on a Five-Year Plan for University Entrepreneurship Education (2018—2022) to encourage the creation of university start-ups. There are several specific reasons why the government targets specifically the promotion of university entrepreneurship education. First, university-centered technological innovation entrepreneurship would provide a solution to the youth unemployment rate. Second, laboratory start-ups based on advanced technology can generate higher economic ripple effects compared to general technology start-ups. Third, universities often play a role in local innovation ecosystems as they can create new opportunities using fresh technology.

In South Korea, the age distribution of entrepreneurs in 2019 was as follows: 32.4% were people in their 40s, 29.3% were in their 50s, 21.7% were in their 30s, 13.3% were in their 60s and older, and 3.4% were in their 20s and younger. The percentage of founders in their 40s and 50s accounted for 61.7% of the total (2019, Start-up Statistics, the Mistry of SMEs & Start-ups: MESS).

As far as business education, 17.2% of entrepreneurs reported they had experience in education related to start-ups before starting their own businesses, while 82.8% reported they had no prior education. In terms of the level of education, more than 50% entrepreneurs held at least an associate degree. Based on this statistical analysis, many entrepreneurs are lacking business education. Since start-up education improves the ability to develop creative qualities such as the spirit of challenge, initiative, and innovation, specific business training can assist individuals as they embark upon a new career owning and operating a start-up.

Recently, the number of start-ups by college students has been increasing as the number of students who have completed start-up educational programs has also continued to increase (Joe, Shin, 2020). Yet, the number of student start-ups is still relatively small which signals they encounter several hurdles to overcome, including the high risk of failure. Social norms in Korea tend not to tolerate failure, making young people more risk-averse. In addition, since there are few social safety nets to assist business owners, it is not easy to find support if your business faces unexpected financial issues (Joe, Shin, 2020).

With these circumstances in mind, local governments are making efforts to support youth start-ups and thus, the economy. Support for those whose start-ups have failed was established in 2010, in the hopes of increasing tolerance for failure. Furthermore, Moon Jae-in's government is actively pursuing business innovation as part of the national agenda by creating policies and expanding budgets. With these efforts, quantitative indicators such as the number of new corporations and venture companies are on the rise. Yet, Korean start-ups are still underperforming (Ko, 2019). This is because many are focused on quantitative performance and have failed to manage qualitative performance. In order to combat this, the government must continue to invest in start-up education.

The Korean start-up ecosystem has been mainly spearheaded by the Korean government. KISED is steering the government's policies toward action (see Appendix, Table A). The main structure of Korea's start-up ecosystem can be summarized as below:

> Universities, research institutes, and technology parks offer their own professional services, and business angels and venture capital investment evaluate start-up performance. The structure of the start-up ecosystem is similar worldwide because it is based on the triple helix model. Nonetheless, in the Korean start-up ecosystem, government policies and budget support are crucial, and KISED is characterized by its role as a gateway between the start-up and the government (Ministry of Economy and Finance of the Republic of Korea, 2018/2019, p. 109).

Status of University Start-up Support in South Korea

Entrepreneurship activities and entrepreneurship education create an environment conducive to productive start-ups. The Korean government has made the decision to support entrepreneurial universities by establishing policies to support these institutions such as K-startup (since 2011), Leaders in Industry University cooperation (LINC+, since 2012), The Entrepreneurial University Education 5-year Plan (since 2013), and I-Corps (since 2016). By the end of 2017, local and central governments had funded over 800 start-up support programs including 76 projects, entrepreneurship education programs and facilities, mentorships, and R&D consultancy (Shin et al., 2018, as cited in Ko & An, 2019, p. 97).

Support for start-ups in universities can be given to students, teachers, graduates, and local communities (Lee, Lee, Lee & Chang, 2020). Start-up support for students mainly consists of building infrastructure, offering financial support, opening courses related to start-ups, and operating educational programs. Generally, infrastructure construction is undertaken to provide space for start-ups. Support for faculty staff can extend to the evaluation of teachers' performance or the implementation of the start-up sabbatical year system. Universities also support self-disciplined graduates and communities. They value the connections they have built with local governments which can help them provide assistance to those looking to start a business. Universities make efforts to collaborate with businesses within local governments, circulate start-ups and manpower in the region, and share experiences and know-how.

Taken together, student start-ups are in their relative infancy and continue to face many challenges. Entrepreneurship has not yet entered mainstream culture at universities, despite the government's efforts. Most importantly, there is a lack of entrepreneurship competency in universities, and motivated talents capable of engaging in entrepreneurship (Ko & An, 2019). An entrepreneur's competence plays a pivotal role in entrepreneurial decisions for product roadmap and strategies (Masurel, Lentink, 2003), which is the critical determinant of the level of success, sustainable growth and performance. Thus, competences for entrepreneurship are the determinants of creative and innovative entrepreneurship, and need to be developed through entrepreneurship education, which will support a generation as they embark on the creation of an innovation ecosystem.

Entrepreneurship Education in India

Entrepreneurship is an important element for any country to be competitive and developed in today's knowledge-based global economy. Entrepreneurship education has a crucial and significant role in developing entrepreneurial attitudes, aspirations and activities. It includes creativity, innovation and risk-taking. The multidimensional nature of entrepreneurial skills in education involves a combination of critical, creative and empathetic thinking that fosters job creation, encourages innovation, and improves global competitiveness (Ilayaraja, Ganesh, 2016). To inculcate a culture of entrepreneurship, linkages between academia, industry and research and development institutes are fostered; and for this, imparting such skills starts from school. The critical aspects of entrepreneurship in the context of higher education includes professional and vocational education and training and skill development (National Knowledge Commission, 2008).

India is a budding center for entrepreneurship. According to the *Global Entrepreneurship Monitor* (GEM) India Report for the 2019/2020 period, only 15 percent of India's adult population is engaged in *"total early-stage entrepreneurial activity (TEA)",* and only five percent of the country's population goes to establish their business (Statista, 2019). India has witnessed a transition from an agrarian into a mixed economy (Rehman, Elahi, 2012). From the time of its independence, entrepreneurship education in India has been focused on various measures designed to encourage self-employment. For three consecutive decades, entrepreneurship education remained distributed exclusively in the form of training programs, offered by various institutions. However, from 1980s onwards and a further push from liberalization, entrepreneurship education entered technology, management, and financial institutions under the aegis of state and central governments.

Policies

The *Government of India* (GOI) recognizes the importance of entrepreneurship education, and the relation of education, innovation, and entrepreneurship in the development of an entrepreneur, which depends on the quality of education in institutions, innovative qualities (National Knowledge Commission, 2008). In India Central, state and local governments play an important role in the implementation of education policies and in the diversion of funds required for the development of educational research centers, teacher training institutes, entrepreneurship devel-

opment cells. Various initiatives like *Make in India*[5], *Start-up India*[6] and *Skill India*[7] aim to transform the Indian economy from "entrepreneurial" to "managerial". The GOI's *Start-up India* campaign focuses on job creation, and has launched 50+ start-up schemes in the past few years, which is missioned towards promoting the Indian start-up ecosystem. It also offers various workshops, events, trainings, etc. including incubators and accelerator programs. The *Ministry of Skill Development and Entrepreneurship* (2015)[8] provided a new shape to the already existing *National Policy on Skill Development* (NPSD) *2009* as *National Policy for Skill Development and Entrepreneurship 2015,* which is focused on integrating entrepreneurship education into formal education (p. 13). And, to bring uniformity in Indian Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) in terms of intellectual property, ownership management, technology licensing and institutional policy, the *Ministry of Human Resource Development* (2019) (MHRD) through *National Innovation and Start-up Policy 2019* is focusing on creating a strong innovation and start-up ecosystem in HEIs. *Atal Innovation Mission* (AIM) by *NITI Aayog*[9] is promoting innovation and entrepreneurship which focus on setting up *Atal Tinkering Labs* (ATL) in schools in all districts across the country to create innovative solutions using technologies. *All India Council of Technical Education*[10] (AICTE) is also partnering with *AIM* to ensure that the nearest universities of a school can also refer to the students of *ATL*. To promote entrepreneurship education at the levels of universities, NGO, SMEs and corporate industry, there are *Atal Incubators* (AICS) enabling the successful development of sustainable start-ups in every state of India for a mentoring network in India called *Mentor India* from the professional and industry community that can help mentor students in *Atal Tinkering Labs* and *AIC incubators/start-ups*. Women-led incubators, active collaboration between government, education, industry, individuals, society-focused NGOs, and grants are focused on enabling a vibrant ecosystem of innovation.

Entrepreneurship Education in Indian HEIs

The University Grants Commission (UGC) developed an under-graduate curriculum way back in 2000 and circulated it to all the universities and colleges

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[5] More information: <www.makeinindia.com/home> (09/2020)

[6] More information: <www.startupindia.gov.in> (09/2020)

[7] More information: <www.skillindia.nsdcindia.org> (09/2020)

[8] More information: <www.msde.gov.in/pmkvy.html> (09/2020)

[9] More information: <www.niti.gov.in>(09/2020)

[10] More information: <https://www.aicte-india.org>(09/2020)

for their consideration for basic entrepreneurship teaching (Ilayaraja, Ganesha, 2016). Subsequently, the idea of developing entrepreneurship in the higher education pathway has led to many different PG programs (Agrawal, Agrawal & Bhasin, 2020). There are premier technical and management institutions called *Indian Institutes of Management* (IIMs) and *Indian Institutes Technology* (IITs) in various parts of the country. At present, 23 IITs and 20 IIMs across India have recently launched *Innovation-Venturing and Entrepreneurship in India Network* (iVEIN)*,* which is a new consortium to support entrepreneurship ecosystem through high quality research in innovation, venturing and entrepreneurship. The Indian School of Business, Indian Institute of Management, Bangalore also offer courses through the International MOOC. An online education module on Entrepreneurship is also offered by *Swayam*[11]. In India, entrepreneurship education is offered as a core compulsory course or an open elective course (Ranjan, Gautam, 2019). Presently, almost every university is imparting entrepreneurship education. *Indira Gandhi National Open University* (IGNOU) provides 20+ certificate/diploma programs on entrepreneurial skills in the form of distance learning. Some universities have an entrepreneurship cell that organizes business planning competitions and interacts with entrepreneurs. In India, some institutes have introduced entrepreneurship courses that use a blended approach to aid adult learners, using faculty facilitation in HEIs. The *National Innovation and Start-up Policy 2019* leans on education and learning interventions for entrepreneurship development and aims to adopt diverse approaches to produce desirable learning outcomes, including mentor, laboratory, case studies, disciplinary teaching using games, etc. in place of traditional lecture-based delivery. Furthermore, there is a focus on pedagogical processes (Roy, Mukherjee, 2017) imparting entrepreneurship education at the curriculum/co-curricular/extra-curricular level through optional/short term or long-term courses on innovation, entrepreneurship and enterprise development (Basu, 2014). According to Dana (2001), NGOs in India are involved with Small Business Management (SBM). Moreover, the *Entrepreneurship Development Institute* (EDII) promotes it through training and other activities (Hulugappa, 2013). The industry can make alliances with educational institutions to provide entrepreneurial activities and monitor the required curriculum in institutions for the development of entrepreneurial skills among students (Gautam, 2015). In this way, the private sector plays an important role (Panigrahi, Joshi, 2015). Thus, various stakeholders, institutions, industry, society in general and knowledge masters put their efforts in building an entrepreneurial education from the grassroots level.

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[11] More information: <www.swayam.gov.in> (09/2020)

Skills and Competences in India

The entrepreneurship education system in India is mainly aimed to enhance the entrepreneurial potential (Mukesh, Rao & Rajasekharan, 2018) of the self-reliant unemployed persons and impoverished persons in rural surroundings through technical courses, vocational courses by various District Industries Centre (DIC), Rural Development and Self Employment Training Institute. Current entrepreneurship education in India focuses on related courses; existing entrepreneurship courses comprise general business courses, technical and managerial courses. Through various entrepreneurship education programs soft skills are strongly supported, as well as technical skills and a holistic understanding of the social and business environment. The emphasis is also on managing risks in an appropriate manner, making quick decisions and thereby building competences (Modi, 2014). In many educational institutions in India, student leadership and faculty supported activities have been able to create awareness about entrepreneurship and create the necessary mindset. Consequently, more than 60 percent of Indian youth consider entrepreneurship as a good possibility to earn a livelihood. Students in various institutes have set up various entrepreneurship cells which provide a platform for expert consultancy, conduct business planning/idea competitions as well as interact with the respective incubation cells. Through the Public Private Partnership (PPP) mode, many educational institutions, student leadership and faculty supported activities have been able to create awareness about entrepreneurship and create the necessary mindset. Currently, incubation centers provide support to selected start-ups. Enterprise centers at major educational and research institutions provide institutional support for entrepreneurship. Various efforts in skill and employment development include *National Vocational Education Qualification Framework[12]; Public Private Partnership (PPP) to promote vocational education, Admission to Polytechnic under coordinated action for skill development.* The GOI has also approved 20 new IITs based on PPP which is targeted to be completed in nine years, i.e. from 2011—2012 to 2019—2020. Education and training as well as government policies are focused on the innovation capabilities of budding entrepreneurs in order to support innovation, ensure high success ratio, and to develop and strengthen the entrepreneurial ecosystem (Sharma, 2019) in India.

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[12] More information: <www.mhrd.gov.in/nveqf> (09/2020)

Comparison and Interpretation

This article provides a comparative analysis in terms of policies and programs from the Italian, Indian and South Korean perspective. The choice of these countries was informed by in-depth knowledge of the higher education system in the three countries, where the authors practice as researches. Indeed, as mentioned, the authors shared their perspectives during the International Winter School that took place in Würzburg in February 2020.

Starting from the comparative research questions and aiming at answering them, authors identified, "in an inductive way", three comparative categories: the perspective of entrepreneurship education, the development of entrepreneurship education in higher education and entrepreneurial programs (Egetenmeyer, 2020, p. 23).

In presenting the juxtaposition of situations in the three countries some similarities and differences emerge.

The perspective of entrepreneurship education within higher education is considered as a standpoint for the comparison reflection.

South Korea and India's entrepreneurship education perspective is more directed to focus on the specific context of setting up a venture and becoming self-employed.

Indeed, Indian entrepreneurship education is provided in the form of technical and managerial training within engineering or business administration courses. In South Korea the business's focus is traceable in entrepreneurship education's purpose, that is, business innovation nation-building as a national agenda.

In Italy, although an entrepreneurial culture is not yet widespread, the entrepreneurship education is acquiring a meaning "on personal development, mindset, skills and abilities", embracing the European Commission definition of entrepreneurship and the focus on value creation (Lackéus, 2015, p. 7). In this sense, it is possible to speak of a "creation of value" perspective, where the meaning of value is not only economic, but also cultural and social (Lackéus, 2015).

The second comparative category observed between the three countries is the development of entrepreneurship education in higher education. Regarding this category, it is possible to detect the main difference between the three countries.

South Korean entrepreneurship education development is advanced. The Korean government is running a business to support entrepreneurial universities and has established several policies to support these institutions. The development of Indian entrepreneurship education is average, because it is still in its nascent age but over the last decades many programs have been launched. In Italy, the development is still low because entrepreneurship education programs are not spread in all Italian higher education institutions.

The category of "entrepreneurship education programs" is considered the last comparative category since they are very important from a pedagogical point of view for the study of the dynamic processes for innovation and creativity.

A similarity between the entrepreneurship education programs can be detected concerning the effort to promote an innovation ecosystem in the local dimension. This ecosystem emerges from the collaboration between government, higher education institutions, industry, individuals, and society, in order to support opportunities for young people and to create an entrepreneurial culture.

Moreover, regarding entrepreneurship education programs, the South Korean University Entrepreneurship Center (including Business Incubator, Leaders in Industry University Cooperation, and K-startup) and Indian Tinkering Labs, Incubators, iVEIN can be classified as start-up education. Of course, the successful factor of these programs consists in supporting the transformation of ideas into action and reality, thanks to a number of governmental funds.

Contamination Labs deviate from the traditional perspective of incubators and accelerators that are also present in Italian higher education institutions. Indeed, CLabs aim primarily "to build a network that allows to gather the human capital needed for highly innovative projects" (Boffo, Adebakin & Terzaroli, 2017, p. 130).

Table 1 aims at summarizing the comparative categories observed in all three countries, to give an overview of similarities and differences identified from the comparative work discussed above.

Table 1: Comparison between entrepreneurship education in Italy, South Korea and India [Source: authors]

Category	Italy	South Korea	India
The perspective of entrepreneurship education	Creation of value	Creation of start-ups	Encouraging self-employment and creation of start-ups
The development of entrepreneurship education in higher education	Low	Advanced	Average
Entrepreneurial programs	Contamination Lab	University entrepreneurship Center (Business Incubator, Leaders in Industry University Cooperation, K-startup)	Tinkering Labs, Incubators, iVEIN consortium

In conclusion, it is important to underline a common similarity between the three countries. Despite the different perspectives and programs, Italy, South Korea and India agree to affirm that entrepreneurship education is a fundamental pillar required to spread an entrepreneurial culture at the higher education level. Further-

more, entrepreneurship education within the academic context gives to students the possibility to develop their skills to face the challenges of the future. Skills such as creativity, problem solving, transdisciplinarity, critical thinking, finding opportunities and innovative attitude are at the center of the mentioned entrepreneurship education programs. This set of skills creates a link between entrepreneurship and employability, not only as a solution for youth unemployment rate; but also to make students the main actors of their professional and personal life projects.

Conclusion: the Future and Challenges for Education

What are the policies for entrepreneurship education that influence strategies in higher education? Which programs have been implemented for entrepreneurship education in higher education? Those were the research questions that guided the comparative work. Starting from the definition of the construct of entrepreneurship education, which is the starting point of our reflection, we adopted the broader meaning (Brock & Steiner, 2009). We opted for a wider definition that is less linked to economic research, a definition that looks at the meaning of building skills for life.

The comparative method, which guided our work, allowed us to share perspectives and understandings about the construct of entrepreneurship education, as an innovative one in the field of adult education.

The choice of the categories of comparison—*the perspective of entrepreneurship education, development of entrepreneurship education in higher education, and entrepreneurial programs*—has allowed us to observe how there is still a long way to go. Indeed, this sector of study and research needs to proceed towards a sharing and reflection on an educational level. Indeed, the comparison's findings indicate that entrepreneurship education is emerging as an educational concept that could support students' growth enabling them to face new challenges today and in the future.

At the end of this article, it is possible to underline again some evidence that emerged and to draw some considerations about the future challenges of higher education and the entire academic world.

First of all, the topic. It is already an important step having traced a reflection on the topic of entrepreneurship education as a critical field for the development of a reflective, innovative, creative vision. Having drawn these perspectives connected to the field of adult education is of even greater importance, and it can be counted among the findings of our work. The first challenge which needs to be faced is to open up to new fields of study. Embracing the reflection on

entrepreneurship does not mean studying how to create a start-up, but rather investigating how to acquire the skills of creativity, spirit of initiative, innovation. It means understanding how to act in formal education systems to introduce those life skills needed to face a completely new world (Gardner, 2007). The pandemic that we are experiencing all over the world, since March 2020, has forced us to move our work, our schools, our training, and our lives to digital platforms. How many adults, how many young adults, how many teachers feel comfortable with the use of new technologies? Looking at the digital future means increase the ability to interact with new thinking models, with new training approaches.

We still have a long way to go, but we are sure that the acceleration given by the serious times we are living has helped us to understand the urgency of the innovation of new schemes and matrices of the mind.

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Appendix

Table A: Major Business of Korean KISED [Source: KISED, <www.kised.or.kr/_eng/>]

Classification	Business program
Start-up education	Youth Bizcool for elementary, middle and high school students
	Maker Culture Diffusion Program: supporting various maker activities and networking
	Online Entrepreneurship Education
	Practical Entrepreneurship Education: idea development → business model planning → lean start-ups
	University Entrepreneur Center – Functionality improvement for the organizations in charge of entrepreneurial affairs; support for the management capacity improvement – Start-up lecture and education programs – Contents development and research – Networking
Facilities and space	17 Centers for Creative Economy and Innovation (CCEI)—Startup consulting: – Support in terms of law, patents and finances, and management Maker Space Founding Support Program: – Public Lab/ Professional Lab – Start-up Park: startup facilities and networking space – Pangyo Start-up Zone-shared office space and conference rooms – One-Man Creative Company Support Center: office space, management support, commercialization, and facilities – Technology-Based Start-up Center for Seniors: discovery, education, providing space, supporting incubation
Start-up Commercialization	Providing vouchers up to KRW 100 million for commercialization
Mentoring and consulting	Universities and research institutions with industry-specific experts are selected as mentoring institutions R&D, investment, and financing in support projects
Events and networks	K-Start-up Week ComeUp: Support for global start-up networking, IR, partnership, etc. Challenge K-Start-up: awards excellent items from promising start-ups and supports commercialization

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Preduzetničko obrazovanje u celom svetu: moguće poređenje

Apstrakt: Tehnološke promene i trendovi inovacija ubrzano transformišu poslove i profesije. Koja je dodata vrednost ljudi u tehnološkom svetu? Mnoge studije ističu relevantnost kreativnosti i preduzetničkog mentaliteta s ciljem da se iskoriste prilike, čime se stvaraju nove ideje i vrednosti za društvo, zajednicu i privredu. Osnovni cilj ovog rada jeste da ilustruje politike i programe preduzetničkog obrazovanja u Italiji, Južnoj Koreji i Indiji. Počev od pregleda definicija i polazeći od komparativne metode, naša saznanja ukazuju na to da preduzetničko obrazovanje privlači sve više pažnje kao obrazovni koncept koji može podupreti razvoj studenata u suočavanju sa novim izazovima danas i u budućnosti.

Ključne reči: preduzetništvo, obrazovanje odraslih, obrazovna politika, visoko obrazovanje

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Programmes and Methods for Developing Entrepreneurial Skills in Higher Education

Abstract: The development of entrepreneurial competences among graduates is considered an important resource in many countries, not only because through these competences graduates can better contribute to the economic well-being of their communities by creating enterprises but also because through them, they can better direct their career development in any sector. The most successful entrepreneurship education programmes combine the development of technical and transversal skills using specific methodologies. In this paper, we evaluate in a comparative way the extent to which university-based entrepreneurship education programmes in Italy, India and Nigeria use methods that develop participants' ability to move from ideation to the implementation of something new. The literature review shows some differences between the programmes and methods developed in the three countries but also some shared strategies in adopting lines of development aimed at increasing students' entrepreneurial skills.

Key Words: Entrepreneurship education programmes, higher education, university programmes, methods, skills

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Introduction

Entrepreneurial initiative is understood as individuals' ability to transform ideas into action. It is a key capacity of young people that helps and motivates them to be more creative and self-confident. As such, it ought to be present throughout their educational processes. The entrepreneurial spirit bolsters a nation's economy by fostering innovation, generating competition, creating jobs and wealth, and increasing purchasing power (Holmgren & From, 2005).

Entrepreneurship has been in a difficult position within higher education across the globe. In higher education, entrepreneurship has long been understood to belong to business management, meaning that entrepreneurship education used to focus on business basics such as market analysis, business plans, franchising, and new enterprises management until the 1970s, when the focus shifted to entrepreneurship basics (Pitso, 2019).

In other words, entrepreneurship education should emphasise action-oriented attention: in this perspective, practical learning activities and responsibility towards professional career growth are the processes underlying the development of entrepreneurs.

This approach focuses on self-learning, strong action-oriented learning, real-life experiences of trying out things, and the motivation to hold something tangible at the end of the learning process.

There is growing evidence that the social and organisational context at universities has a substantial impact on the entrepreneurial attitudes and activities of academics and students (Bercovitz & Feldman, 2008; Hunter et al., 2011; Kenney & Goe, 2004; Walter et al. 2013).

The vast majority of youths go through college every year without gaining the employability and entrepreneurial skills required by the labour market. This indeed creates an imbalance between required and available resources, as well as increasing unemployment.

More and more universities have implemented measures to improve their programmes with the aim of fostering the entrepreneurial propensity of students and researchers (Eickelpasch & Fritsch, 2005).

In light of all this, the need to train students for entrepreneurship through the formative process is evident in order to develop their capacity to create, recognise opportunities and assess the risks of the labour market (Detienne & Chandler, 2004).

The objective of the present paper is to discover, through an analysis of the literature, the programmes and methods implemented for the development

of entrepreneurial skills in higher education in three different countries: Italy, Nigeria, and India.

The methodological perspective that guides the work is the comparative method, which enabled us to identify three main categories of to compare the three countries: (i) *university programmes in entrepreneurship education*, (ii) *methods and strategies,* and (iii*) skills development.*

In addition to highlighting possible shortcomings and possible developments, we present a global picture of the progress related to educational programmes in terms of entrepreneurship development and employability. We ask what universities are doing and review the implementation of existing programmes with an eye on possible improvement in the future.

Entrepreneurship programmes and methods in Italian higher education

As part of the *New Skills Agenda for Europe*, the European Commission in 2016 paid particular attention to entrepreneurship, which was understood as a transversal competence necessary to help people be more creative, innovative, and proactive to transform ideas into values. 'These values can be of a financial, cultural or social nature.' (Moberg et al. 2014, as cited in Terzaroli, 2018, p. 36)

As Moberg et al. (2014, as cited in Terzaroli, 2018) affirm, developing entrepreneurial skills offers citizens the great opportunity to grow and develop on a personal, professional, and social level. Citizens can become people capable of seizing the opportunities that arise, knowing how to be proactive, knowing how to enter the job market.

These subject matters are central to the social and political debate, but they are also extremely relevant within the university context. The university has the ambitious goal of training students, workers, adults and young adults, participating in the process of building a personal identity and their own career, taking an interest in the individual and the world of which the individual is part. In this regard, developing tools to create this value therefore means empowering people, citizens and workers to innovate their environments, generate an effective contribution, and respond to increasingly emerging needs.

As already reported in the *2020 Entrepreneurship Action Plan*, contained in the *Small Business Act Review of 2011*, the European Commission identifies three main pillars in which governments should invest to support the construction of an entrepreneurial Europe. Among these, we find in the first place 'entrepreneurial education and training'. Here, point A is particularly important: 'The usual

curricula, starting from primary education up to secondary, professional, higher education and up to continuing education, are enriched with the key competence "entrepreneurship".' (Eurydice Italia, 2017, p. 29)

What are Italian universities doing to support entrepreneurship development?

In general, students believe the most important experience for developing entrepreneurship skills is an internship, especially abroad and in collaboration with companies and organisations from all sectors. In fact, this was stated in an article in Corriere della Sera:

> Internships open a privileged channel for work in 37% of cases: those abroad are the most effective for employment purposes. The most enterprising students right from the educational path earn more when they find a job (from 1,265 to 1,352 euros, against the 1,164–1,212 euros earned by the less enterprising). More than half of the graduates surveyed present themselves as highly adaptable to the needs of the job market, an adaptability that can be rewarding in terms of earnings. (Testai, 2013)

Internships represent the privileged channel offered by universities, so in recent years universities have accepted the need to train their students in entrepreneurship, offering them different and/or parallel paths to the degree course in order to acquire these entrepreneurial skills.

An example of this is *il Progetto i Bicocca, studenti intraprendenti per affrontare il lavoro* proposed in 2015, divided into several points. Specifically for developing entrepreneurship, we find the following two sub-projects *iStudent, ambasciatori dell' innovazione,* in which 32 students help other students to come up with the most suitable skills to face the challenges of the future: knowing how to manage time, how to work towards objectives, and how to be results-oriented to transform one's ideas into concrete projects (University of Milan-Bicocca); and *StartUp Stage con Assolombarda,* which is an internship programme organised among the growing start-up scene of the Lombardy region with the aim of allowing students to collaborate in the planning stages and thus increase their skills in the entrepreneurial sector. To this end, Lackeus (2015) identifies three possible approaches to entrepreneurship that universities may adopt:

- teaching about,
- teaching for,
- teaching through (Lackéus, 2015, p.10, as cited in Terzaroli, 2018, p. 37).

The author explains:

Teaching 'about' entrepreneurship means a content-laden and theoretical approach aiming to give a general understanding of the phenomenon. It is the most common approach in higher education institutions. (Mwasalwiba, 2010, as cited in Terzaroli, 2018, p. 37)
Teaching 'for' entrepreneurship means an occupationally oriented approach aiming at giving budding entrepreneurs the required knowledge and skills. (Terzaroli, 2018, p. 37)
Teaching 'through' means a process-based and often experiential approach (Kolb, 1984) where students go through an actual entrepreneurial learning process. (Fayolle et al., 2005, as cited in Terzaroli, 2018, p. 37)

In the last perspective ('teaching through'), it seems necessary to introduce design thinking as a method for developing entrepreneurship education in higher education.

What is design thinking?

Design thinking is conceived as a complex thought process that leads to the transformation of new realities, evolution and innovation, offering new models and tools that help improve, accelerate and visualise every creative process. Design thinking is not only a cognitive process or a mental attitude, it has become an effective method for every innovative process that connects the creative approach, typical of design, to traditional business thinking, based on rational planning and resolution of problems (problem-solving) of variable contexts.

Design thinking is based on the ability of designers to consider at the same time:

- human needs and new visions of living well,
- material availability and technical resources,
- the limits and opportunities of a project or a business (Pombo & Tschimmel, 2005, p. 70).

The integration of these three factors requires designers to be at the same time analytical and empathic, rational and emotional, methodical and intuitive, aware of planning and the various limits but at the same time spontaneous.

Another fundamental characteristic of design thinking is the *human-centred approach*, which is expressed in the collaborative way in which designers work in the participatory method of co-creation. We are at the beginning of a shift from designing 'for users' to designing 'with users': designers develop innovative solutions not only by working in teams with colleagues (designers, engi-

neers, marketing specialists, etc.), researchers and stakeholders, but increasingly also with end users and the users of their creations themselves. In this participatory approach, the user of the future product is seen as a partner throughout the entire creation process, from data collection to prototyping new ideas and designing solutions (Azzalin, 2013).

In addition to improving the image of the product and instilling a sense of belonging in the end users, co-creation increases the effectiveness of creative and innovative processes (Azzalin, 2013). This concept originated in the early 1960s and was subsequently articulated and developed in the 1990s, mainly thanks to Buchanan's publications (1998), and finally, today, it has found its own definition and modelling. The current model of design thinking, proposed by Stanford University and used most frequently around the world, is the following:
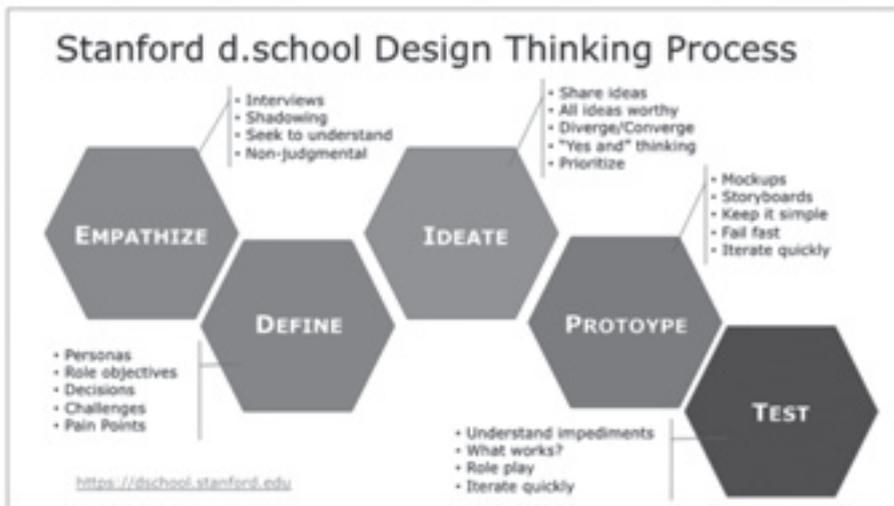
Figure 1: The design thinking process by Stanford University.

[Source: D.school Standford]

What is the link between design thinking and university?

Italian universities are increasingly supporting the existence of a link between design thinking and the development of entrepreneurship by offering courses and ad hoc activities. In this regard, the University of Florence offers a supply chain of services aimed at the development of entrepreneurship, including the so-called *Palestra di Intraprendenza*, a two-day workshop in which students of different degree courses (bachelor's, master's, and PhD) collaborate in a creative process to produce innovative solutions in response to real problems.

The purpose of this activity is to involve students through an experiential path in the field ('teaching through', Lackéus, 2015, p. 10), in line with the daily challenges of the labour market (University of Florence). The creation process is guided precisely by the design thinking method proposed by Stanford University.

> To encourage group sharing and out-of-the-box thinking, the LEGO Serious Play® method is also used, which was created precisely to facilitate communication, sharing and idea generation processes: through the use of LEGO bricks it's possible to create metaphors that portray imaginary scenarios by putting ideas into small models. (University of Florence)

For approximately two years, the University of Florence has expanded its challenge to entrepreneurship, offering this type of activity in collaboration with Italian organisations, institutions, and companies.

Students thus have the opportunity to see the real needs of the context in which they are guests and generate a creative process under the guidance of and together with experts in the sector. This refers to the 'embedded approach of teaching "through" entrepreneurship [that] can be relevant to all students and on all levels of education' (Lackéus, 2015, p.10 as cited in Terzaroli, 2018, p. 37).

Not only has the University of Florence launched paths aimed at developing entrepreneurship and resourcefulness, but another example is represented by the spin-off *Epoca* of the University of Modena and Reggio Emilia, a reality that was born in 2007 and figures as a 'turning point of innovation between the university and the business world' (Pagliuca, 2017).

The spin-off has seen the establishment of quarterly projects in collaboration with large Italian companies with the aim of creating multidisciplinary groups composed of students and employees of the company working side by side to generate innovative products, services and solutions (Pagliuca, 2017).

The founder of the spin-off, Professor Diego Macrì, says:

> One of the most interesting cases concerned Barilla: an experience that involved over 200 people from different countries and with the most varied skills, to create a design thinking area and come up with a new approach for product development, recognised in 2016 by the SMAU award for innovation. (Pagliuca, 2017)

These examples represent some of the contributions that Italian universities are offering on entrepreneurship education in higher education.

The paths of entrepreneurial education born in recent years bring with them very solid pedagogical foundations, recalling approaches such as Kolb's (1984) experiential learning and Lave and Wenger's (1991) situated learning, as well as embedded learning (Federighi, 2018) and service learning (Jacoby, 2015; Terzaroli, 2018).

As Dewey suggests in *Experience and Nature,* to describe the relationship between science, art and practice, 'knowledge is no longer achieved by direct conformity of ideas with the fixed orders of nature; knowledge is achieved by a new kind of art directed toward orders of change' (Buchanan, 1998, p. 11).

In this perspective, Italian universities are also accepting the challenge of entrepreneurship training by reviewing and transforming traditional teaching, offering practical tools capable of making their students increasingly participate in their own learning.

Entrepreneurship programmes and methods in Nigerian higher education

In 2004, the National Policy on Education (NPE) promoted adult education and non-formal education as an instrument of excellence for lifelong education. In Section 6 of the National Policy that outlines the goals of adult and non-formal education that include providing functional literacy and continuing education for adults and the youths, providing education for different categories of completers of the formal education system to improve their basic knowledge and skills, providing in-service, on-the-job, vocational and professional training for different categories of workers, and giving the nation's adult citizens the aesthetic, cultural and civic education necessary for public enlightenment.

Higher institutions are conceived as places for the transmission of knowledge and skills to learners. Whatever skills are acquired, they must be translated into practicality if individuals and society at large are to benefit from them. The world today needs solutions providers and not solutions consumers and problem creators! Surprisingly, Nigeria has not seen serious and rigid adherence to the implementation of the NPE recommendations. Many of students at the institutions of higher learning do not graduate with employable skills. Hence, the high rate of unemployment in the country has become the order of the day. Higher education in Nigeria needs to be rejuvenated to comply with the provisions of the NPE as regards skill acquisition and skill development.

Adult education is a developmental kind of education which embraces all forms of educational experiences needed by men and women according to their varying interests and needs.

Higher education is also referred to as tertiary education. The National Policy on Education of the Federal Republic of Nigeria defines tertiary education as 'the education given after secondary education in universities, colleges of education, polytechnics, monotechnics including those institutions offering correspondence courses' (FRN, 2004: Section 8, No. 58, p. 30). Based on the above definition, higher education is provided by: (i) universities, (ii) colleges of education (iii), polytechnics, (iv) monotechnics, (v) other correspondence institutions. For the purpose of this study, we only talk about universities as an example of higher education.

Technically speaking, university education in Nigeria has crucial roles to play in ensuring that their prospective students acquire relevant skills. Sharma (2013) further noted that universities are coming under increasing pressure to ensure that their graduates are employable. According to Burnett, as cited by Sharma (2013), unemployment grows because people do not have the right skills.

The existence of the discipline in universities across Nigeria provides a better context for this discussion. Presently, there are 40 federal universities in Nigeria, and after a thorough scanning of the existence of adult education programmes, 17 of them were found (with some degree of certainty) to be running the programme. The universities selected are:

Table 1: Universities in Nigeria with functional entrepreneurship programmes and methods in higher education
[Source: Author's own]

Higher institutions	Department name	Methods of teaching	Strategies of adult education mentoring in Nigeria universities
Adekunle Ajasin University, Akungba-Akoko	Adult Education	Lecture, project method,	Students Industrial Work Experience Scheme (SIWES),
Bayero University, Kano	Adult Education	discussion method,	Industrial Training (IT), Practicum,
Ekiti State University, Ado-Ekiti	Adult Education		
Enugu State University of Science and Technology, Enugu	Adult Education	questioning Socratic method,	Teaching Practice
Ibrahim Badamasi Babangida University, Lapai	Adult Education	team teaching method,	
Niger Delta University, Wilberforce Island	Adult Education	talk chalk	
Nnamdi Azikiwe University, Awka	Adult Education	recitation method,	
University of Benin, Benin City	Adult Education	field trip	
University of Calabar, Calabar	Adult Education	escort method,	
University of Ibadan, Ibadan	Adult Education	project method,	
University of Ilorin, Ilorin	Adult Education	microteaching method.	
University of Jos, Jos	Adult Education		
University of Lagos	Adult Education		
University of Maiduguri	Adult Education		
University of Nigeria Nsukka	Adult Education/ Community Development		
University of Port-Harcourt	Adult & non-formal education		
Usmanu Danfodio University, Sokoto	Adult education		

For the purpose of this analysis, it is important to pay attention to the methods and strategies implemented by the Nigerian universities to support adult education and promote employability and labour market entry.

Below are detailed descriptions of four programs adopted, in a homogeneous way, by the 17 Nigerian universities selected:

- *Practicums*: Also called internships or work placement programmes, these are programmes designed to provide students with practical work experience in adult education in Nigeria. The emphasis is on the importance of having students learn by doing. This is a place and avenue where students can transfer the knowledge they gained in the classroom to actual work.
- *Students' Industrial Work Experience Scheme (SIWES)* is a skills training programme designed to expose and prepare students at universities, polytechnics, colleges of technology, colleges of agriculture and education for industrial work situations they are likely to encounter after graduation.
- *Industrial Training (IT):* Industrial Training exposes students to real-world work experience to gain the knowledge through hands-on observation and job implementation. From the training, the students will develop skills that relate to work ethics, management, communication, and other issues.
- *Teaching Practice:* This is a temporary period of teaching/facilitating in an adult education centre under the supervision of an experienced facilitator for persons who are training to become adult education facilitators.

The choice of content of the listed schools with an adult education program was based on major thematic areas of adult education programmes, as reflected in the National Minimum Standards of the National Universities Commission (NUC). These are (i) functional literacy, (ii) ICT, (iii) women education, industrial/labour education, (iv) administration, (v) community development, (vi) cooperative management, (vii) teaching subjects, and (viii) environmental education. Suffice it to mention that some relevant courses/themes are already covered by the general studies programmes at these universities; hence they were not considered in the contents listed. Some of these courses are about entrepreneurship education, peace, and conflict resolution.

The prospects of adult education as a programme of study in Nigerian universities cannot be overemphasised. Adult education as a course of study and programme is vital in this employment-seeking generation because it has the ability and capacity to employ many people, thereby increasing the volume of employment in Nigeria. This is possible because it plays the role of accumulating the seasoned human capital of individuals who have developed themselves in one capacity or another and are ready to contribute their share to national development.

Entrepreneurship programmes and methods in Indian higher education

Education is one of the major factors influencing the supply of entrepreneurs (Henry, Hill, & Leitch, 2005b; Nabi, Holden, & Walmsley, 2006). The education system, especially higher education, plays a critical role in framing the graduate entrepreneur career (Trivedi, 2016). Levenburg and Schwarz (2008) have analysed the role of culture, education, and business environment towards the graduate entrepreneurial decisions of Indian students. The Indian education system is still characterised by colonial influence and criticised for hindering entrepreneurial culture (Dana, 2000; Shivani, Mukherjee, & Sharan, 2006). Most of the pre-liberalisation period in India witnessed the negative influence of social structure, colonial influence, religion, culture, and government regulations on entrepreneurship (Dana, 2000; Shivani, Mukherjee, & Sharan, 2006). This appears to be a deterrent to an entrepreneurial orientation in the Indian ethos.

Entrepreneurship education has gained attraction and importance in modern higher education (Gibb & Hannon, 2006; Blenker et al., 2014). Many researchers have highlighted the significance of evaluating entrepreneurship education and the role of entrepreneurship education in higher education (Curran & Stanworth, 1989; Young, 2000; Storey, 2000). Assessing and evaluating the education system is a big challenge (Henry, Hill, & Leitch, 2005b; Blenker et al., 2014).

The problem with entrepreneurship education in India is that it does not necessarily endorse entrepreneurial thinking among the students (Dana, 2001). Graduates in India are ill-prepared for taking up an entrepreneurial career, primarily because they lack an education and job-oriented mindset (DNEP, 2012). Another observation is that students who do want to pursue an entrepreneurial career are discouraged by various factors, such as lack of information on business ventures, ease of doing business, lack of start-up financing, lack of support system, lack of access to technology, and fear of failure (DNEP, 2012). In the Indian context, the entrepreneurial element in higher education is still underdeveloped, and there are no independent courses related to entrepreneurship. Such courses are usually part of the business and commerce faculty and very marginal in engineering and other faculties.

It should be noted that entrepreneurship development programmes (EDP) were initiated in 1960s with an intention to promote small businesses, and there has been a steady contribution from these programmes towards entrepreneurship (Ram, 1998). However, the EDPs have specific target groups, specialise on entrepreneurial opportunities, and are not designed for mass training through higher

education institutions (Naik, 1998). Further, there are multifaceted challenges to teaching and developing entrepreneurs, including India's large population, discrepancies in the level of basic education, a lack of experienced teachers, a lack of proper pedagogy, and a lack of an institutional focus towards entrepreneurship (Shankar, 2012).

At the graduate level, entrepreneurial career choices or the idea of pursuing an entrepreneurial career will come to students' minds. Such entrepreneurial career perceptions can be assessed. Intention models, backed by the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991), are designated as the best tools for predicting entrepreneurial career decisions among students (Krueger & Carsrud, 1993; 1994). Entrepreneurial potential is the state of preparedness among students to take up an entrepreneurial career in the future or after graduation (Krueger & Brazeal, 1994).

Recent comprehensive theories relating to the entrepreneurship option include 'career construction theory' (Savickas, 2002) and the 'theory of circumscription, compromise, and self-creation' (Gottfredson, 2002). Career construction theory divides the entire career into five broader stages: growth, exploration, establishment, management, and decline (Savickas, 2002). From an entrepreneurship point of view, the growth and exploration stages are critical. The theory further explains the exploration stages, which involve the development of attitude, intentions, beliefs, and skills needed for an entrepreneurial career. It also involves the detailed scrutiny of various career choices available and efforts towards pursuing the best career option. The theory focuses on two essential elements. The first is the state of readiness, or a pre-existing mindset towards career options. The second is career maturity, that is, the expectations regarding career options gained from the education curriculum. Thus, this theory builds a strong relationship between an individual's psychological state of readiness, education, and career options. Gottfredson's (2002) theory is more dynamic and looks at change. The theory argues that circumscription or constraints assessment is the starting point of career decision making. The individual tends to eliminate unacceptable alternatives; in this process, the subjective perception of choices plays a substantial role. The perception of alternatives is similar to 'perceived feasibility' (Krueger & Brazeal, 1994), as proposed in the entrepreneurial potential model.

Connecting the intention models to the theory of planned behaviour offers another dimension on entrepreneurial careers. The theory of planned behaviour gives a compressive measure of an individual's intention. It has the ability to assess long-term intentions, which are unique compared to other intention models. This has made the theory of planned behaviour the most preferred model for predicting entrepreneurial intention (Krueger & Brazeal, 1994; Autio et al.,

2001). Further, it is widely used as a tool to study the career intentions of graduate entrepreneurs among university students (Nabi, Holden, & Walmsley, 2006).

There have been many efforts to understand the compatibility of the theory of planned behaviour and Shapero's entrepreneurial event. Krueger and Brazeal (1994), in their work *Entrepreneurial Potential and Potential Entrepreneurs*, combined Ajzen's theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991) and Shapero's model of the entrepreneurial event (Shapero, 1975) to develop the concept of entrepreneurial potential. Autio et al. (2001) developed an integrated model of the theory of planned behaviour and entrepreneurial event along with other demographic variables, experience, and attitude towards entrepreneurship and institutional support. Krueger, Reilly and Carsrud (2000) tested both the models with university students, finding both models to be highly validated, with slightly higher exploratory value for Shapero's model. The test also highlighted the importance of combining different theories for better understanding graduates' career decisions and students' entrepreneurial intentions.

A university supports entrepreneurial behaviour and career development through awareness creation and stimulation of ideas, from development through execution. Entrepreneurial behaviours are supported through extracurricular activities and teaching. Entrepreneurship education is also delivered by real entrepreneurs using various methods like real-world experience, games and stimulation, and case studies. This is also done through formal and informal learning. In addition, entrepreneurial universities validate outcomes of entrepreneurship learning by regular reviewing and updating the course content of entrepreneurial studies. Furthermore, expected outcomes are codified in relation to competence, skills, and knowledge in all programmes. Learning outcomes are validated at the institutional level. This is done using appropriate mechanisms such as internal and external moderators (O'Connor, 2012).

Engaging and collaborating with external stakeholders is a significant component of learning and teaching in an entrepreneurial university. However, various universities do not recognise the importance of external stakeholders such as the local government, local organisations, and communities (Audretsch, 2012). This collaboration can generate a new relationship that acts as a source of new expertise and experience to be used in entrepreneurial education. It also offers updated information to entrepreneurial universities. Finally, research results are integrated into entrepreneurial training and education. Integrating the results of research into learning and teaching is useful because it updates programme contents. However, this should be done using the current and relevant research results (O'Connor, 2012).

Entrepreneurial universities encourage students and staff to develop skills, behaviours, and a mindset that are entrepreneurial at an individual level. Nevertheless, it is the role of the university to provide platforms upon which students and staff experience entrepreneurship, which happens once they have understood the importance of entrepreneurship and developed an entrepreneurial mindset. Such platforms may provide exposure to both students and staff, exposing them to different challenges that encourage them to develop entrepreneurial skills. It includes exposing them to real-life problems, allowing them to interact with entrepreneurs and trainings, and may also include the integration of enterprise activities in education strategies.

Universities should provide opportunities and services to act on these ideas, meaning that the universities assist students from idea creation to idea implementation. In addition, universities should link students to the external ecosystem of entrepreneurship. Institutions of higher learning should provide both industrial and academic mentorship. Mentorship is an efficient learning process used as a support tool to reinforce entrepreneurial skills acquired by students, and matching students with appropriate entrepreneurs will increase their chances of developing adaptive entrepreneurial skills required in the dynamic environment. Mentoring services should be provided to both graduates and students through alumni and other external stakeholders.

The entrepreneurial university is committed to knowledge exchange and collaboration with public sectors, society, and industry (Guerrero & Urbano, 2010). Collaboration and partnership should be integrated into a university's institutional policies to manage relationships with all sectors. Furthermore, these policies have support mechanisms to coordinate partnerships. However, among all sectors, the university should demonstrate an active role in partnership, which means that an entrepreneurial university takes the leading role in supporting partnership with other stakeholders. In addition, the university should be involved in a range of partnerships at local, regional, and global levels.

An entrepreneurial university has a strong link with external initiatives, such as science parks and incubators, to develop opportunities for dynamic knowledge exchange. This creates added value through establishing a partnership with external environments and is done because universities are surrounded by many knowledge-intensive institutions. Therefore, a university develops mechanisms to capitalise on the knowledge acquired. This mechanism facilitates the cross-development of knowledge, collaboration space, the organisation of joint workshops, and other networking opportunities and is enhanced further when universities create opportunities for its students and staff to take part in the external environment or entrepreneurial activities. This means that universities pro-

vide opportunities for their students and staff to take part in extensive entrepreneurial activities in the external environment. Knowledge exchange mechanisms developed by the university support collaboration with the external environment.

In addition, the entrepreneurial university provides a link to the wider community, education, and research to promote the knowledge ecosystem. Therefore, universities should have a mechanism to absorb knowledge, information, and experience created in the wider ecosystem. In teaching, this includes using strategies such as inviting guest teachers and internships. In research, contract work and collaborative partnership are used to enhance these links. However, universities should provide mechanisms to exploit entrepreneurial opportunities with industrial and commercial partners.

Comparison, interpretation, and conclusion

The goal of this article was to investigate pathways developed in Italy, Nigeria, and India to enhance entrepreneurial skills in the field of higher education. Specifically, the authors considered the use of programmes and methods offered by universities in the three countries examined. These countries were not chosen randomly but as a result of comparisons undertaken during the last edition of the Winter School 2020, held in February at the University of Würzburg.

In recent years, it has been extremely important to reflect on the implementation of entrepreneurship education, especially because of the current changes proposed by the United Nations, which affect societies all over the world. In fact, universities play a central role between education and society; in this context, entrepreneurship education represents a point of connection: entrepreneurship training creates a change of mindset, a strong attitude to innovation, and the ability to respond to emerging needs. It is possible to read this interconnection in the *17 Sustainable Development Goals*, in particular objectives 4 (Quality of education), 8 (Decent work and economic growth), 9 (Industry, innovation and infrastructure), 11 (Sustainable cities and sustainable communities) (United Nations, 2020).

Our comparison confirmed the importance of entrepreneurship education in higher education in all three countries and the increasingly progressive approach to programmes aimed at enterprise.

Current Nigerian policies review the importance of higher education, especially the programmes offered, teaching strategies, and the skills of young adults. The main goal of this change of perspective is to improve basic knowledge and skills, but above all the aim is to address the great lack of employability skills in young graduates.

For this reason, more targeted courses are activated, such as internships (called *practicum* in the Nigerian higher education system), which certainly seems to be the primary activity for developing this competence. Internships are considered the key vehicle for enterprise in Italy, too, especially if carried out abroad. In fact, students who complete this programme show themselves as more skilled in entering the job market, in playing an active role in society, and being more creative.

Regarding other programmes implemented in the Nigerian context, we find three more specific training programmes: the *Students' Industrial Work Experience Scheme (SIWES),* the *Industrial Training (IT)* and the *Teaching Practice*, all of which aim to give students the opportunity to develop skills as trainers and facilitators of adult education. The dimension of enterprise is transversal to all proposed activities.

The Indian context has seen growing reflection on the relationship between education for entrepreneurship and the development of students' professional careers, thanks to the contribution of some theories that focus on the importance of building one's career from an entrepreneurial perspective. It consists of five broader stages, including growth, exploration, establishment, management, and decline (Savickas, 2002).

Despite the great interest in these issues, Indian universities have not developed real programmes aimed at entrepreneurship.

The reason for the lack of such programmes can be found in the colonial, cultural, and religious origins, which represent a real obstacle to the development of entrepreneurship among young people. Some research (Dana, 2000; Shivani, Mukherjee, & Sharan, 2006) points out that, due to the lack of a system that supports entrepreneurship education (economically and culturally), students find themselves unprepared to pursue a professional career aimed at entrepreneurship and innovation.

Another important element is represented by a failure to recognise the importance of involving external stakeholders such as local government, local organizations, and communities (Audretsch, 2012). Integrating business activities into the proposed educational strategies could help students understand real companies' problems by interacting with entrepreneurs in the sector. These activities, by contrast, are widely used in the Italian context, which promotes collaboration initiatives between students and local organisations.

Examples include the internship courses organised in start-up companies (*StartUp Stage with Assolombarda* at the University of Milan-Bicocca, *StartUp 'Epoca'* at the University of Modena and Reggio Emilia), and the *Palestra di intraprendenza* offered by the University of Florence Career Service, with the aim

of increasing students' employability and entrepreneurial skills. The final analysis concerns the methods and tools used by universities to facilitate an atmosphere aimed at enterprise and collaboration.

In this sense, in Nigeria, the methodologies adopted by universities mainly concern teamwork, shared planning, participation in themed conferences, stimulation of discussion, acting and exploration of specific case studies.

Italy fits into this perspective by encouraging teamwork and collaboration between students and other stakeholders. With regard to methodologies, design thinking represents the opportunity for students to experience an experiential path capable of preparing them for the daily challenges of the job market, placing the emphasis on the innovative and creative process. Regarding this methodology, there is no counterpart in the other two countries examined in this article.

India, on the other hand, emphasises the importance of non-formal and informal learning, encouraging young people to search for extracurricular activities to develop entrepreneurship, such as the real-life experiences of entrepreneurs, case studies, and role play.

A summary of the comparison and interpretation is presented below:

Table 2: Comparison between entrepreneurship education programmes and methods in Italy, Nigeria, and India
[Source: Authors' own]

Entrepreneurship education programmes and methods in higher education			
Categories	**Italy**	**Nigeria**	**India**
University programmes in entrepreneurship education	Internship and internship abroad Collaboration with stakeholders (*Progetto iBicocca, studenti intraprendenti per affrontare il lavoro, iStudent, ambasciatori dell'innovazione StartUp Stage con Assolombarda, Palestra di Intraprendenza, Spin-off Epoca*)	Internship (Practicum) Training programmes with stakeholders (Students' Industrial Work Experience Scheme, Industrial Training, Teaching Practice)	Stimulate reflection about entrepreneurship and about extracurricular experiences (no programme)
Methods and strategies	Design thinking Teamwork Co-work students with students Field trips	Lecture Discussion Field trips Recitation	Study cases
Skills development	Employability skills Entrepreneurial skills Career awareness Creativity and innovation Proactivity	Employability skills Proactivity	A reflection about: Employability skills Career awareness Entrepreneurial skills

In conclusion, it is important to underline what the three countries have in common. Despite some differences regarding the programmes developed by Nigerian, Italian, and Indian universities, they all agree in affirming the need for an increase in the development of entrepreneurship education in order to provide students with new opportunities for personal and professional growth.

The comparative work proposed here has shown the relevance of the topic of entrepreneurial education in higher education, underlining how the universities in particular are moving towards a new way of conceiving the acquisition of skills by students. Asking what universities are doing to support entrepreneurship development is a first step to understanding the development potential of the programmes they offer.

Internships, collaboration with external stakeholders, and the creation of start-ups and projects aimed at the development of entrepreneurship certainly represent a first step towards an expansion of the concept of entrepreneurship education that, we hope, universities can adopt by offering increasingly specific programmes by supporting not only the professional careers of graduates but also their integration into society as active citizens.

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Programi i metode za razvoj preduzetničkih veština u domenu visokog obrazovanja

Apstrakt: Razvoj preduzetničkih kompetencija među diplomcima smatra se važnim resursom u velikom broju zemalja, ne samo zato što kroz ove kompetencije diplomci mogu da pruže značajniji doprinos dobrobiti privrede svojih zajednica stvaranjem preduzeća već i zato što kroz njih mogu efikasnije upravljati razvojem svoje karijere u bilo kom sektoru.

Najuspešniji programi edukacije o preduzetništvu nude kombinaciju razvoja tehničkih i transverzalnih veština koristeći specifične metodologije. Ovaj rad nastoji da na komparativan način proceni u kojem opsegu univerzitetski programi preduzetničkog obrazovanja u Italiji, Indiji i Nigeriji koriste metode koje razvijaju sposobnosti učesnika da ostvare pomak iz sfere ideja na konkretnu implementaciju novog.

Interpretacija literature ukazuje na razlike između programa i metoda razvijenih u tri zemlje, ali takođe i na deljenje pri usvajanju pravaca razvoja usmerenih na poboljšanje preduzetničkih veština kod studenata.

Ključne reči: programi preduzetničkog obrazovanja, univerzitetsko obrazovanje, univerzitetski programi, metode, veštine

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Uloga formalnog obrazovanja za preduzetništvo u kreiranju nove generacije preduzetnika

Apstrakt: Preduzetništvo je izvor privredne dinamike, inovacija, kreiranja novih proizvoda i usluga, proaktivnog stava o traženju posla umesto pasivnog čekanja na zaposlenje. Predmet istraživanja u ovom radu je utvrđivanje odnosa između obrazovanja za preduzetništvo i kreiranja nove generacije preduzetnika. Cilj je pružanje odgovora na pitanje da li je obrazovanje za preduzetništvo u sistemu formalnog obrazovanja faktor oblikovanja preduzetničkog ponašanja mladih odraslih, koji pripadaju takozvanoj novoj generaciji. Da bismo dali odgovor na postavljeno pitanje sproveli smo anketu među populacijom studenata. Rezultati su pokazali da postoje statistički značajne razlike među grupama studenata koji su imali preduzetničko obrazovanje u nekom delu formalnog obrazovanja u njihovom preduzetničkom ponašanju u nameri da otpočnu sopstveni biznis i u iskazivanju preduzimljivosti, odnosno realizaciji preduzetničkih aktivnosti. Ispitanici koji su imali preduzetničko obrazovanje u sistemu formalnog obrazovanja pokazuju nameru da osnuju sopstveni biznis u većoj meri od onih koji nisu imali preduzetničko obrazovanje i u odnosu na njih češće pokazuju preduzimljivost.

Ključne reči: obrazovanje odraslih, preduzetništvo, preduzetničko obrazovanje

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Uvod

Preduzetništvo je prepoznato kao vitalno društveno pitanje i predstavlja ključni izazov, ne samo u lokalnom i nacionalno-ekonomskom već i u obrazovnom sistemu. Ono se smatra važnim pokretačem ekonomskog rasta i inovacija (Badulescu & Badulscu, 2013), uglavnom zbog njegovog uticaja na smanjenje nezaposlenosti putem otvaranja novih radnih mesta i profesionalne integracije mladih (Badri & Hachica, 2019). U tom smislu, u ekonomskom kontekstu obeleženom rastom nezaposlenosti, posebno među mladima, rad na povećanju preduzetničkih aktivnosti mladih važan je društveni zadatak. Taj rad se, između ostalog, odnosi na kreiranje povoljnog društvenog konteksta za otpočinjanje posla, kreiranje novih mogućnosti zaposlenja mladih i unapređenja programa obrazovanja za preduzetništvo u formalnom sistemu obrazovanja.

Predmet ovog rada je utvrđivanje odnosa između formalnog obrazovanja za preduzetništvo i kreiranja nove generacije preduzetnika. Cilj rada je da pruži odgovor na pitanje da li je obrazovanje za preduzetništvo u sistemu formalnog obrazovanja faktor oblikovanja preduzetničkog ponašanja mladih odraslih, koji pripadaju takozvanoj novoj generaciji. Preduzetničko ponašanje se procenjuje kroz prizmu namere mladih da osnuju sopstveni posao i realizacije preduzetničkih aktivnosti.

U ovom radu pod preduzetničkim obrazovanjem podrazumevamo oblikovanje znanja, veština i motivacije mladih ljudi neophodnih za pokretanje sopstvenog posla (Lee, Chang, & Lim, 2005) sa ciljem promena njihovih stavova u odnosu na inovativne i rizične aktivnosti u poslovanju (Jones, Penaluna, & Pittaway, 2014). Takođe, pod preduzetničkim obrazovanjem podrazumevamo proces stvaranja novih veština, znanja, ideja i menadžerskih sposobnosti kako bi se u mlađem starosnom dobu osnažila sposobnost samostalnog traženja posla umesto pasivnog čekanja na zaposlenje (Owoseni & Akambi, 2010).

Pod novom generacijom preduzetnika smatraju se mladi ljudi koji u svet rada stupaju odmah nakon formalnog školovanja. Međunarodna organizacija rada, kao afilijacija Ujedinjenih nacija, u analizama koje se tiču mladih uključuje osobe starosti između 15 i 24 godine (United Nations, 2013). Isti opseg u analizama koristi i Svetska banka, dok, za razliku od ove dve institucije, Eurostat za potrebe svojih analiza gornju granicu mladih pomera nagore, pa ih definiše kao pojedince čija je starosna dob u rasponu između 15 i 29 godina (Eurostat, 2020). Prema tumačenju autora, s obzirom na specifične okolnosti u Srbiji, koju karakterišu nepovoljne ekonomske prilike i visoka nezaposlenost mladih, kao i kasno odvajanje mladih od roditelja, granica mladosti u Srbiji je pomerena nešto više od granice Eurostata – na 30 godina (Viduka, 2014).

Formalno obrazovanje i preduzetništvo

Jedan od ključnih političkih ciljeva EU predstavljaju razvoj i podsticanje preduzetničkog obrazovanja. U tom smislu, donete su brojne strategije i mere sa ciljem njegovog promovisanja kako bi, između ostalog, postalo sastavni deo formalnog obrazovanja. Tako je 2002. godine usvojena Evropska povelja za mala preduzeća za zemlje članice EU u kojoj se naglašava „negovanje preduzetničkog duha i stvaranje novih veština u ranijem starosnom dobu" (European Comission, 2000, str. 2). Očigledno je da su razvoj digitalnih tehnologija, zahtevi tržišta rada i izmenjen kontekst poslovanja uslovljen društvenim kretanjima i krizama ostvarili pritisak na kreatore ekonomskih i obrazovnih politika da ulože dodatni napor kako bi uspešno odgovorili na izazove adekvatnog obrazovanja koje bi mladim odraslim ljudima omogućilo uspešnu pripremu za svet rada. U tom smislu, u dokumentu „Evropski okvir za ključne kompetencije za doživotno učenje" vidi se da su date preporuke za osnaživanje inicijative za preduzetništvo, koje se definiše kao sposobnost pojedinca da pretoči ideje u dela (Official Journal of the European Union, 2006/962/EC). U narednom dokumentu iz 2012. godine „Ponovna promišljanja o obrazovanju: ulaganje u veštine za bolje socioekonomske rezultate" fokus je stavljen na formalno obrazovanje, pri čemu se ističe njegov značaj u razvoju preduzetništva i kreiranju održivog ekonomskog okruženja. Naime, u dokumentu se apeluje na obrazovne institucije da putem formalnog obrazovanja usvoje kreativne načine učenja i obrazovanja, počevši od osnovnog, preko srednjeg i visokog sistema obrazovanja. Uporedo sa tim, akcenat je stavljen i na praktični deo obrazovanja kako bi svi mladi ljudi u svom iskustvu imali najmanje jedno praktično preduzetničko iskustvo pre nego što završe obavezno obrazovanje (Communication from the Commission, 2012a). Obrazovanje za preduzetništvo zauzima značajno mesto i u Akcionom planu za preduzetništvo 2020, s tim što se ističe podsticanje preduzetničkog duha mladih u smislu kreiranja potrebnih veština za nova radna mesta (Communication from the Commission, 2012b).

Kao što smo mogli videti, preduzetničko obrazovanje doprinosi društvenim i tehnološkim transformacijama i pokušajima razvijanja znanja, veština i kompetencija učenika, kako bi se prilagodili konkurentnoj ekonomiji zasnovanoj na inovacijama i znanju. Tako, osim evropskih institucija, i savremeni preduzetnički univerziteti svojim obrazovnim strategijama značajno doprinose promociji inovacija i preduzetništva u svojim regionima (Klofsten et al., 2019; Clark, 1998) i postaju glavni akteri u preduzetničkom ekosistemu (Siegel, 2013). Kako autori primećuju, univerziteti preduzetničkim obrazovanjem doprinose da studenti razmišljaju na preduzetnički način, pomažu u sticanju preduzetničkih veština i pomažu u širenju mreža i kontakata (Fayolle & Gailly, 2008). U nešto starijoj studiji

utvrđeno je da su studenti koji su učili o preduzetništvu imali veće interesovanje da postanu preduzetnici i da su imali više preduzetničkih aktivnosti koje su dovele do pokretanja novog posla nego studenti koji nisu učili o preduzetništvu (Kolvereid & Moen, 1997).

Procena preduzetničke orijentacije, namere i interesovanja studenata za preduzetništvo važna je za obrazovne institucije i kreatore politika jer je preduzetnička namera najbolji prediktor preduzetničkog ponašanja ili akcije otvaranja novog preduzeća (Krueger, Reilly, & Carsrud, 2000). Namere su definisane kao motivacioni faktor koji utiče na nečije ponašanje. One su takođe pokazatelji o pojedincima, o njihovom intenzitetu spremnosti ili o naporima koje nameravaju da ulože da bi se postiglo određeno ponašanje (Drnovsek & Erikson, 2005).

Otkriveno je da formalno obrazovanje i prethodno iskustvo u preduzetništvu povećavaju samopouzdanje učenika vezano za preduzetništvo, što je u korelaciji sa studentima koji imaju preduzetničku nameru (Zhao, Seibert, & Hills, 2005). Pojedini autori su ispitivali uticaj preduzetničkog obrazovanja na preduzetničke namere među studentima koledža koji se upisuju na odsek za menadžment Fakulteta za ekonomiju u Indoneziji. Njihovo ispitivanje je pokazalo da na preduzetničke namere indirektno utiče preduzetničko obrazovanje, što znači da su preduzetnička motivacija i stav dve važne posredničke varijable (Mehandra, Djatmika, & Hermawan, 2017).

U literaturi koja se bavi analizom preduzetničkih aktivnosti koriste se dva modela preduzetničkih namera, teorija preduzetničkog događaja (Shapero & Sokol, 1982) i teorija planiranog ponašanja (Ajzen, 1991). Prema teoriji preduzetničkog ponašanja, na preduzetničke namere utiču percepcija ili lične poželjnosti (privlačnost), izvodljivosti (sposobnosti) i sklonost delovanja na prilike (spremnost). Prema teoriji planiranog ponašanja, namere ponašanja određuju tri ključna faktora: lični stav, lične norme ili društvene norme i percipirana kontrola ponašanja ili percipirana samoefikasnost. Osim tih faktora, određeni autori navode i druge faktore poput sociodemografskih i ostalih faktora okruženja i ekonomije (starost, pol, bračni status, zanimanje roditelja, prihod domaćinstva, kultura prepoznavanja mogućnosti, strah od neuspeha, socijalno poreklo, prethodno zaposlenje, obrazovanje, preduzetničke veštine i sposobnosti, finansijska podrška, etnička pripadnost, religija) koji utiču na preduzetničke namere (Wang & Wong, 2004; Liñán, Urbano, & Guerrero, 2011). Interakcija psiholoških i fizičkih (starosna dob, pol i ostalo) osobina, kao i profesionalno i preduzetničko iskustvo izazivaju preduzetničke namere (Learned, 1992). To nas dalje upućuje na zaključak da je obrazovanje za preduzetništvo, kao deo sistema formalnog obrazovanja, samo jedan od mogućih faktora za kreiranje preduzetničke namere.

U različitim studijama autori su ispitivali ulogu preduzetničkog obrazovanja i nastave na preduzetničke namere i stavove. U nešto starijoj studiji ispitivan je uticaj preduzetničkog obrazovanja i nastave na preduzetničke namere i stavove 250 studenata sa Londonskog i Grenobl univerziteta. Studija je pokazala da su kursevi o preduzetništvu pomogli daljem unapređenju namera studenata da započnu posao promovišući određene stavove (Souitaris, Zerbinati, & Al-Laham, 2007). Poboljšanje odnosa studenata prema preduzetništvu često je posledica preduzetničkog obrazovanja (Gautam & Sing 2015), imajući u vidu da većina studenata koji su pohađali preduzetnički kurs pokazuju pozitivnu percepciju o preduzetništvu (Kubberød & Petersen, 2017). Preduzetničko obrazovanje povećava verovatnoću pokretanja novih preduzeća i samozapošljavanja, što zauzvrat donosi samozadovoljstvo i ekonomsku korist (Kassean, Vanevenhoven, Liguori, & Winkel, 2015). Istraživanje među studentima stomatološkog fakulteta u Sjedinjenim Američkim Državama pokazalo je da je više od 50% studenata koji su imali preduzetničko obrazovanje nameravalo da pokrene biznis po završetku studija (Zhang & Cain, 2017).

Nadalje, ispitivan je uticaj preduzetničkog obrazovanja na preduzetničke namere studenata u Turskoj (Kalyoncuoğlu, Aydıntan, & Göksel, 2017). Na osnovu specijalnih testova napravljenih na početku i na kraju kursa, čiji je cilj bilo merenje preduzetničkih namera 338 studenata, postignuti rezultati su pokazali da postoje statistički značajne razlike među studentima u odnosu na preduzetničke namere pre i posle obrazovanja o preduzetništvu. Ispitujući različite ishode iz sličnih predavanja o preduzetništvu koje se pružaju različitim studentskim grupama, autori su došli do rezultata koji ukazuju na postojanje kontekstualnih razlika i dokazuju da je preduzetničko obrazovanje generalno efikasno za studente iz poslovnih oblasti kao i za studente inženjerskih nauka (Maresch, Harms, Kailer, & Wimmer-Wurm, 2016). U Tunisu je istraživanje sprovedeno na dva velika tunižanska univerziteta iz Sfaksa i Susa sa ciljem analize uticaja preduzetničkog obrazovanja na namere studenata da pokrenu novi posao, odnosno identifikacije značajnih faktora koji utiču na preduzetničku nameru. Autori su otkrili su da su najvažnije varijable koje utiču na nameru da se bave preduzetničkim aktivnostima profili njihovih teorijskih i praktičnih znanja o načinu pokretanja novih poslova i lične karakteristike – starosna dob, pol i, pre svega, obrazovni nivo (Badri i Hachicha, 2019).

U kontektu kreiranja obrazovanja za preduzetništvo, definisani su i obrazovni ishodi da bi se utvrdilo da li se ponašanje studenata promenilo kao rezultat preduzetničkog obrazovanja. U tom smislu, važno je usmeriti se na kreiranje preduzetničkog učenja na način koji obezbeđuje sticanje afektivnih, kognitivnih, konativnih i ishoda na osnovu razvijenih veština (Fisher, Graham, & Compeau,

2008). Afektivni ishodi preduzetničkog obrazovanja odnose se na promene u stavovima u smislu želje za pokretanjem novog posla ili uključivanjem u inovacije u okviru postojećeg posla (Kyro, 2008). Afektivno učenje treba da obezbedi promene u emocijama i percepcijama koje proizlaze iz iskustva stečenog obrazovanjem. Kao rezultat takvog učenja pojedinac se bolje upoznaje sa blagodetima i poteškoćama preduzetništva (Jones, Jones, Packham, & Miller, 2008). Kognitivni ishodi uključuju kritičko razmišljanje proizišlo iz novih saznanja. To podrazumeva razumevanje informacija dobijenih o razlozima pokretanja posla (Jones & Colwill, 2013). Ono, takođe, treba da obezbedi dobijanje novog seta veština koje se mogu koristiti u poslovnom kontekstu (Koronios, Kriemadis, Dimitropoulos, & Papadopoulos, 2019). Ishodi zasnovani na veštinama znače ovladavanje alatima potrebnim za preduzetništvo. Naposletku, konacija uključuje osećanja koja ljudi imaju prema procesu preduzetništva (Fisher et al., 2008).

Percepcija uloge preduzetničkog obrazovanja u Srbiji

Preduzetništvo bi trebalo da predstavlja izbor koji zavisi od odrednica preduzetničkih težnji koje uključuju obrazovanje, profesionalni status, individualne i porodične karakteristike, prihod od sadašnjeg zanimanja (Hyytinen & Ilmakunnas, 2007), ukupnu ekonomsku i preduzetničku kulturu i okruženje. Međutim, u zemljama sa plitkim i nerazvijenim tržištem rada, preduzetništvo je često neophodnost. Tako, na primer, u Srbiji i zemljama u okruženju, Šumpeterovu slikau preduzetnika kao dinamičnog pojedinca koji preuzima rizike zamenjuje slika osobe koja mora da preživi i obezbedi porodicu te se upušta u preduzetničke aktivnosti.

Fenomen preduzetnika i preduzetništva nije bio karakterističan za bivše socijalističke i komunističke zemlje. Međutim, proces tranzicije, masovne privatizacije i restrukturiranja stvorio je uslove, ali i neophodnost da svest o potrebi razvoja preduzetništva raste. Kao posledica privatizacije, restrukturiranja i zatvaranja preduzeća sa društvenim kapitalom značajan broj ljudi je ostao bez posla. To je stvorilo prostor za razvoj preduzetništva, u okviru koga zaposleni u državnim preduzećima koja su zatvorena dobijaju mogućnost da kreiraju posao za sebe, da zapošljavaju druge ljude i da otvaraju nova radna mesta. U periodu tranzicije novi trend otvaranja privatnih preduzeća trebao je da bude jedan od glavnih pokretača ekonomskog rasta i razvoja Srbije. Takođe, u periodu tranzicije trebalo je stvoriti mogućnosti za promociju preduzetništva, uključujući i preduzetničko obrazovanje, što je počelo da se ostvaruje.

Nakon uvođenja preduzetničkog obrazovanja u formalni obrazovni sistem u Srbiji, vremenom se otvorila mogućnost ispitivanja efekata tog procesa, ali su

istraživanja sporadična. Analizom značaja preduzetničkog obrazovanja na fakultetima u Srbiji na osnovu preduzetničke spremnosti studenata istraživana je veza između pojedinih karakteristika studenata i njihove spremnosti na preduzetništvo, koje je mereno u pet dimenzija: preduzetničke namere, sposobnost za preduzetništvo, atraktivnost preduzetničkog zanimanja, orijentacija ka učenju i strast za radom. Rezultati su pokazali da studenti menadžmenta imaju veću spremnost i izraženije preduzetničke namere u odnosu na studente inženjerstva (Rakićević, Omerbegović, & Ljamić Ivanović, 2015). Nešto ranije istraživanje preduzetničkog potencijala studenata Fakulteta tehničkih nauka u Novom Sadu pokazalo je da je stav studenata prema promenama pozitivan, ali je skoro polovina ispitanika navela da izbegava neizvesne situacije. Takođe, rezultati su pokazali da postoji različit stepen zastupljenosti preduzetničkog potencijala studenata i da oni smatraju da je preduzetničko obrazovanje nedovoljno da bi se omogućilo razvijanje pozitivnog stava prema preduzetništvu. Samo 44% ispitivanih studenata je izrazilo želju da nakon završetka studija osnuje sopstveni biznis (Mitrović, Borocki, Sokolovski, Nesić, & Melović, 2013).

Metodološki okvir istraživanja

U ovom istraživanju primenjen je deskriptivno-empirijski metod.

Opšta hipoteza glasi da postoji povezanost između formalnog obrazovanja za preduzetništvo i razvijanja preduzetničkog ponašanja mladih odraslih. Preduzetničko ponašanje se odnosi na namere mladih da osnuju sopstveni posao i realizaciju preduzetničkih aktivnosti.

H1: Postoji statistički značajna razlika između ispitanika koji su dobili i onih koji nisu dobili preduzetničko obrazovanje u namerama da započnu vlastiti biznis nakon završetka školovanja.

H2: Postoji statistički značajna razlika između ispitanika koji su dobili i onih koji nisu dobili preduzetničko obrazovanje u iskazivanju preduzimljivosti u smislu realizacije preduzetničkih aktivnosti.

U istraživanju, *nezavisna varijabla* predstavlja obrazovanje za preduzetništvo. Imajući u vidu da su studenti formalno preduzetničko obrazovanje sticali u srednjim školama i na fakultetima, osnovni indikator preko koga je ispitivana ta varijabla uvažavao je tu činjenicu. U obradi, brojčana vrednost 0 označava ispitanike koji nisu stekli preduzetničko obrazovanje, dok vrednost 1 označava ispitanike koji su stekli takvo obrazovanje.

Istraživanjem su dobijeni podaci koji se odnose na to da li su ispitanici tokom formalnog sistema školovanja dobili preduzetničko obrazovanje. Nije se

utvrđivao nivo preduzetničkog obrazovanja koje je stečeno već samo da li su ispitanici stekli takvo obrazovanje ili nisu.

U našem istraživanju *zavisna varijabla* se meri putem sledećih indikatora:

a) preduzetnički potencijal – namera da se osnuje sopstveni biznis i
b) preduzimljivost – realizacija preduzetničkih aktivnosti.

Preduzetnički potencijal je varijabla koja meri nameru mladih odraslih da osnuju vlastiti biznis u toku ili nakon završetka školovanja.

Varijabla preduzimljivost ispituje da li su preduzete preduzetničke aktivnosti do trenutka realizacije anketnog istraživanja.

Za potrebe ovog istraživanja, kao tehnika za prikupljanje podataka korišćen je posebno dizajniran upitnik, s obzirom na definisane hipoteze, pregled literature i identifikovana ograničenja istraživanja. Takođe, važno je istaći da je ovaj rad deo jednog opsežnijeg istraživanja te su u njemu izneti samo oni rezultati koji su relevantni za temu koja je predmet istraživanja.

Osnovni merni instrument se sastoji od pet delova. Prvi deo upitnika se odnosi na prikupljanje osnovnih podataka o studentskoj populaciji (pol, starost, socijalna sredina, naziv fakulteta koji pohađaju, godina studija i dosadašnji uspeh na studijama). Drugi deo upitnika meri da li je preduzetničko obrazovanje stečeno u dosadašnjem formalnom obrazovanju, a treći deo samopercepciju sposobnosti koje određuju preduzetničko ponašanje. Četvrti deo upitnika sadrži set pitanja kojima se ispituju preduzetničke aspiracije i planovi, dok je poslednji deo usmeren na identifikaciju budućih, generalnih planova ispitanika.

Prikupljanje primarnog statističkog materijala sprovedeno je u periodu februar–jun 2019. godine na području severnog Kosova i Metohije (sKiM), a uzorak čine studenti na svim fakultetima (sKiM). U momentu objavljivanja ovog rada, više od godinu dana nakon urađenog istraživanja, ispitanici iz studentske populacije su, završivši fakultete, prirodno prerasli u generaciju mladih odraslih koji su uveliko prisutni na tržištu rada. Anketiranje je vršeno u neposrednom kontaktu s ispitanicima, kako bi se dobili što validniji podaci.

Ispitanici su birani metodom slučajnog uzorka, nasumično nakon završetka nastave. Eliminacioni kriterijum za učešće u istraživanju je da su ispitanici na završnoj godini studija.

Istraživanjem su obuhvaćena 132 ispitanika. Sedamnaest procenata prikupljenih upitnika nije bilo potpuno, a samim tim ni validno, te su oni isključeni iz analize.

Za obradu podataka dobijenih istraživanjem koristili smo se aplikacijom dizajniranom za tu namenu u okviru statističkog paketa SPSS 23 (Statistical Program for Social Sciences).

Analiza rezultata istraživanja

Na ovom mestu daćemo pregled strukture uzorka radi boljeg razumevanja i lakšeg praćenja rezultata istraživanja. Struktura uzorka biće prikazana prema:

a) biosocijalnim karakteristikama ispitanika,
b) socijalnoj sredini ispitanika i
c) bazičnoj oblasti obrazovanja.

U tabeli 1 prikazana je distribucija ispitanika u odnosu na pomenute karakteristike.

Tabela 1: Opšte karakteristike uzorka

	Frekvencija	Procenat
Pol		
muški	76	57,6
ženski	56	42,4
Godine starosti		
20	2	1,5
21	32	24,2
22	46	34,8
23	42	31,8
24	6	4,5
25	2	1,5
28	2	1,5
Socijalna sredina		
ruralna, selo	58	43,9
urbana, grad	72	54,5
Naučna oblast fakulteta		
društveno humanističke nauke	64	48,5
tehničke nauke	36	27,3
prirodne nauke	22	16,7
medicinske nauke	6	4,5
umetnost	4	3,0

Iz podataka prikazanih u tabeli 1 možemo zaključiti da više od polovine ukupnog uzorka čine muškarci (57,6%), dok su žene zastupljene u nešto manjem procentu (42,4%).

Uzorak čine mladi, godina starosti od 20 do 29. Najveći broj ispitanika u uzorku je u rasponu godina od 21 do 23, s tim što ih je najviše od 22 godine (34,8%). Prema zastupljenosti u uzorku, slede ih ispitanici od 23 godine (31,8%) i od 21 godine (24,2%). Znatno manje učešća u uzorku imaju ispitanici od 24 godine (4,5%) i 20, 25 i 28, koji su zastupljeni u podjednako maloj meri (1,5%).

Najveći broj ispitanika dolazi iz gradskih sredina (54,5%), dok ih je iz ruralnih područja nešto manje od polovine (43,9%).

Svi ispitanici su studenti završnih godina studija. Prema bazičnoj oblasti obrazovanja, najveći broj studenata je iz društveno-humanističkih nauka (48,5%), zatim tehničkih (27,3%), prirodnih (16,7%), medicinskih (4,5%) i umetničkih (3%).

Obrazovanje za preduzetništvo i preduzetnički potencijal

Da bismo ispitali odnos između varijabli, odnosno da bismo utvrdili kolika je verovatnoća da varijable imaju slučajnu raspodelu, sproveli smo analizu uporednih tabela (crosstab) i Hi-kvadrat test.

U tabeli 2 prikazan je odnos između obrazovanja za preduzetništvo u sistemu formalnog obrazovanja i preduzetničkog potencijala studenata. Preduzetnički potencijal je procenjivan na tri nivoa slaganja: sigurno ću osnovati sopstveni biznis, verovatno ću osnovati sopstveni biznis i ne nameravam da osnujem sopstveni biznis.

Tabela 2: Uporedna tabela za promenjive preduzetničko obrazovanje i potencijal – nameru da se osnuje vlastiti biznis

			Preduzetničko obrazovanje		
			Ne	Da	Ukupno
Potencijal	Sigurno	Broj	18	46	64
		Očekivani broj	23,3	40,7	64,0
		% u okviru varijable potencijal	28,1%	71,9%	100,0%
	Verovatno	Broj	2	8	10
		Očekivani broj	3,6	6,4	10,0
		% u okviru varijable potencijal	20,0%	80,0%	100,0%
	Ne nameravam	Broj	28	30	58
		Očekivani broj	21,1	36,9	58,0
		% u okviru varijable potencijal	48,3%	51,7%	100,0%
	Ukupno	Broj	48	84	132
		Očekivani broj	48,0	84,0	132,0
		% u okviru varijable potencijal	36,4%	63,6%	100,0%

Podaci pokazuju da se ispitanici koji su dobili preduzetničko obrazovanje u značajnoj meri statistički razlikuju od grupe ispitanika bez prethodnog preduzetničkog obrazovanja. Naime, značajno je veći procenat studenata koji su dobili

preduzetničko obrazovanje tokom prethodnog školovanja i koji su istovremeno iskazali nameru da osnuju sopstveni biznis (71,9%) nego onih koji nisu imali preduzetničko obrazovanje (28,1%) a pokazali su preduzetnički potencijal iskazujući nameru da otpočnu samostalan biznis.

Takođe, značajno je veća razlika između studenata koji su imali preduzetničko obrazovanje i veruju da će osnovati sopstveni biznis (80%) i onih koji nisu imali preduzetničko obrazovanje a veruju da mogu otpočeti privatni posao (20%).

Udeo studenata koji su imali preduzetničko obrazovanje a ne nameravaju da osnuju svoj biznis takođe je procentualno veći (51,7%) od udela studenata koji nisu imali preduzetničko obrazovanje i ne nameravaju da samostalno otpočnu posao (48,3%).

Dakle, ti rezultati nam kazuju da preduzetničko obrazovanje u formalnom sistemu obrazovanja može značajno da oblikuje buduće ponašanje odraslih u smislu otpočinjanja i razvoja sopstvenog biznisa. Takođe, formalno i neformalno obrazovanje tako formiranim odraslim pojedincima nudi višestruk izbor onlajn i oflajn kurseva i programa iz preduzetništva i menadžmenta, koji njihove postojeće namere i težnje mogu dodatno osnažiti. Zapravo, obrazovanje odraslih možda postaje jedan od ključnih faktora uspešnog i pravilnog usmeravanja njihovih preduzetničkih namera.

Treba napomenuti da, i pored značajnih razlika u broju ispitanika po grupama, odnosno razlika između onih koji su preduzetničko obrazovanje dobili u sistemu formalnog obrazovanja u odnosu na one koji nisu, dobijeni rezultati se mogu smatrati pouzdanim budući da smo koristili statističke testove koji ne „iskrivljuju" dobijene rezultate.

Značajne razlike je pokazao i Hi-kvadrat test jer nijedna ćelija nema očekivanu vrednost manju od 5, dok je p = 0,04 (verovatnoća raspodele je slučajna i iznosi p = 0,04, odnosno 4 na 100 slučajeva, a $\chi 2 = 6,6$).

Tabela 3: Hi-kvadrat test za promenljive preduzetničko obrazovanje i potencijal

	Vrednost	df	Značajnost (2-sided)
Pearsonov Hi-kvadrat	6,591[a]	2	,037
Racio verovatnoće	6,654	2	,036
Linear-by-Linear veza	5,228	1	,022
Ukupan broj	132		

[a] 0 ćelija (0,0%) ima očekivanu vrednost manju od 5. Minimalni očekivani broj je 3,64.

Obrazovanje za preduzetništvo i preduzimljivost – realizacija preduzetničkih aktivnosti

U tabeli 3 prikazan je odnos između obrazovanja za preduzetništvo u sistemu formalnog obrazovanja i iskazivanju preduzimljivosti, odnosno u realizaciji preduzetničkih aktivnosti. Preduzimljivost je procenjivana putem tri nivoa slaganja: formalni preduzetnički angažman (samostalno zarađivao novac: radio u firmi, nevladinim organizacijama, davao časove...), neformalni preduzetnički angažman (samostalno zarađivao novac: u poslu pomagao prijateljima, roditeljima...) i bez preduzetničkih aktivnosti (nije samostalno zarađivao novac).

Tabela 3: Uporedna tabela za promenjive preduzetničko obrazovanje i preduzimljivost – preduzete preduzetničke aktivnosti

| | | | Preduzetničko obrazovanje | | |
			Ne	Da	Ukupno
Preduzimljivost	Formalni angažman	Broj	18	48	66
		Očekivani broj	24,0	42,0	66,0
		% u okviru var. preduzimljivost	27,3%	72,7%	100,0%
	Neformalni angažman	Broj	5	16	21
		Očekivani broj	7,6	13,4	21,0
		% u okviru var. preduzimljivost	23,8%	76,2%	100,0%
	Bez preduzetničke aktivnosti	Broj	25	20	45
		Očekivani broj	16,4	28,6	45,0
		% u okviru var. preduzimljivost	55,6%	44,4%	100,0%
Ukupno		Broj	48	84	132
		Očekivani broj	48,0	84,0	132,0
		% u okviru var. preduzimljivost	36,4%	63,6%	100,0%

Rezultati su pokazali da se grupe ispitanika koji su dobili preduzetničko obrazovanje u značajnoj meri statistički razlikuju od grupe ispitanika bez prethodnog preduzetničkog obrazovanja u pogledu realizacije preduzetničkih aktivnosti.

Postoji značajna razlika između grupa studenata koji su dobili preduzetničko obrazovanje tokom prethodnog školovanja u smislu ispoljavanja preduzimljivosti, odnosno u realizaciji preduzetničkih aktivnosti u formalnom smislu (72,7%) u odnosu na one koji nisu imali preduzetničko obrazovanje (27,3%).

Značajna razlika se pokazala i između studenata koji su imali preduzetničko obrazovanje i u neformalnom smislu su pokazali preduzetničke ambicije (76,2%) i onih koji nisu imali preduzetničko obrazovanje, a takođe su u neformalnom smislu realizovali preduzetničke aktivnosti (23,8%).

Nadalje, postoje razlike između studenata koji su imali preduzetničko obrazovanje a nisu bili preduzetnički angažovani (44,4%) od studenata koji nisu imali preduzetničko obrazovanje i nisu bili preduzetnički angažovani (55,6%).

Značajne razlike se uočavaju i Hi-kvadrat testom jer nijedna ćelija nema očekivanu vrednost manju od 5, dok je p = 0,04 (verovatnoća raspodele je slučajna i iznosi p = 0,04, odnosno 4 na 100 slučajeva. Na), a χ2 = 10,9.

Tabela 4: Tabela Hi-kvadrat test za promenljive preduzetničko obrazovanje i preduzimljivost

	Vrednost	df	Značajnost (2-sided)
Pearsonov Hi-kvadrat	10,950[a]	2	,004
Racio verovatnoće	10,822	2	,004
Linear-by-Linear veza	8,534	1	,003
Ukupno	132		

[a] 0 ćelija (0,0%) ima očekivanu vrednost manju od 5. Minimalni očekivani broj je 7,64.

Imajući u vidu da su nam uzorci nezavisni i da smo koristili intervale, pristupili smo testu utvrđivanja normalnosti. One-sample Kolmogorov−Smirnov test ima visoku značajnost (p <0,001 za sve posmatrane varijable), što ukazuje na to da raspodela promenljivih značajno odstupa od normalne. Imajući to u vidu, da bismo ispitali razlike u namerama da ispitanici započnu vlastiti biznis nakon završetka školovanja, odnosno da se pokaže preduzimljivost između dve grupe ispitanika, onih koji su dobili i onih koji nisu dobili preduzetničko obrazovanje, koristili smo Mann−Whitney test.

U sledećoj tabeli prikazane su informacije o rangiranju promenljivih.

Tabela 5: Rangiranje varijabli preduzetnički potencijal i preduzimljivost u odnosu na preduzetničko obrazovanje

Ranks				
	Preduzetničko obrazovanje	N	Prosečni rang	Suma rangova
Potencijal	Ne	48	75,46	3622,00
	Da	84	61,38	5156,00
	Ukupno	132		
Preduzimljivost	Ne	48	77,88	3738,00
	Da	84	60,00	5040,00
	Ukupno	132		

	Preduzimljivost	Potencijal
Mann−Whitney U	1470,000	1586,000
Wilcoxon W	5040,000	5156,00
Z	-2,833	-2,273
Značajnost (2-tailed)	,005	,023
Point Probability	,000	,002

a. Promenljive grupisane prema: Preduzetničko obrazovanje

U tabeli 5 se može videti da ispitanici koji nisu imali preduzetničko obrazovanje imaju manje prosečne rangove za obe posmatrane varijable od onih koji nisu imali preduzetničko obrazovanje.

Za varijablu preduzetnički potencijal, odnosno nameru ispitanika da pokrene vlastiti biznis, rang 61,38 je za one koji su imali preduzetničko obrazovanje, a 75,46 za ispitanike koji ga nisu imali.

Za varijablu preduzimljivost, odnosno realizovanu aktivnost na polju preduzetništva, za ispitanike koji su imali preduzetničko obrazovanje rang je 60, a 77,88 za one koji nisu imali preduzetničko u sistemu formalnog obrazovanja.

Rezultati ispitivanja razlika između dve grupe studenata, onih koji su imali i onih koji nisu imali preduzetničko obrazovanje pokazali su da veće aspiracije za osnivanje biznisa, odnosno pokazivanje preduzimljivosti ima grupa studenata koji su imali preduzetničko obrazovanje (M = 2,21; Mdn = 3,00; SD = 0,97 za potencijal i M = 2,15; Mdn = 3,00; SD = 0,95 za preduzimljivost) od one grupe studenata koji nisu imali (M = 1,81; Mdn = 1,00; SD = 0,94 za potencijal i M = 1,67; Mdn = 1,00; SD = 0,84 za preduzimljivost). Mann−Whitney U test utvrdio je da je ta razlika statistički značajna. Za potencijal U vrednost iznosi U = 1586 i p = 0,023, dok za preduzimljivost U vrednost iznosi U = 1470, p = 0,005. Visoke U vrednosti su povezane sa veličinom uzorka.

Diskusija

Naše istraživanje je pokazalo da je obrazovanje za preduzetništvo u sistemu formalnog obrazovanja značajna varijabla u kreiranju nove generacije mladih preduzetnika. Ono je u saglasnosti sa nalazima drugih autora koji su se bavili tom tematikom (Kolvereid & Moen, 1997; Zhao et al., 2005; Souitaris et al., 2007; Fayolle & Gailly, 2008; Kassean et al., 2015; Zhang & Cain, 2017; Kubberød & Petersen, 2017). Takav stav su uvažile i evropske institucije koje u svojim politikama zagovaraju stavove da je formalno obrazovanje važan faktor za razvoj preduzetništva te da treba na kreativan način osmisliti programe koji bi u formalnom obrazovanju obuhvatili sve obrazovne nivoe (Communication from the commission, 2012a). U tom smislu, treba uložiti napore da se programi obrazovanja za preduzetništvo osmisle na način koji bi bio prijemčiv za sadašnju generaciju mladih ljudi, budućih preduzetnika.

Nova generacija budućih potencijalnih preduzetnika, obuhvaćena našim istraživanjem, u starosnom je dobu od 20 do 28 godina. Oni pripadaju generaciji koju nazivamo milenijalci, rođeni između 1980. i 2000. godine, sa karakteristikama koje se razlikuju od prethodnih generacija (DeVaney, 2015; Tuff, 2019).

U literaturi se navodi da se generacijske razlike odnose na pretpostavku da se različite generacije ne podudaraju u vrednostima, uverenjima i načinu na koji se odnose i shvataju društvenu stvarnost (Mäkinen, Linden, Annala, & Wiseman, 2018). Očigledna činjenica po kojoj se nova generacija milenijalaca razlikuje od generacije njihovih roditelja i nastavnika odnosi se na veštine digitalne pismenosti kojima su milenijalci potpuno ovladali jer su i rođeni u kulturi u kojoj su naučili da „tečno govore jezikom računara" – tako je ta razlika „postavila osnovu za višestrani diskurs o tome kako deca postmoderne generacije danas žive, uče i ponašaju se" (Mäkinen et al., 2018, str. 343). Literatura pokazuje da su očekivanja milenijalaca, koji su pohađali visokoškolske studije, različita od prethodnih generacija u pogledu školovanja, stilova učenja, radnih navika, vrednosti, upotrebe novih tehnologija za učenje, učenja na daljinu (Mäkinen et al., 2018). Taj podatak se mora uzeti u obzir u kreiranju programa za preduzetničko obrazovanje nove generacije preduzetnika ukoliko je cilj da ono bude funkcionalno. Takođe, obrazovanju nastavnika koji treba da prenesu znanje tim mladim ljudima treba posvetiti posebnu pažnju. Doduše, kako autori navode, toj oblasti nije posvećena potrebna pažnja, pa je samo nekoliko studija urađeno o milenijalcima u programima obrazovanja nastavnika (Mäkinen et al., 2018).

Moramo da dodamo da, iako je istraživanje pokazalo da postoji veza između posmatranih varijabli, rezultati se moraju tumačiti i u odnosu na širi kontekst. Kao što neki autori navode, od mnogih faktora zavisi kako će se oblikovati preduzetnička inicijativa mladih i na koji način će se „kreirati" nova generacija mladih preduzetnika (Shapero & Sokol, 1982; Ajzen, 1991; Learned,1992; Wang & Wong, 2004; Liñán et al., 2011; Badri & Hachicha, 2019). Slažemo se da na preduzetničke tendencije utiču brojni lični i socijalni faktori, među kojima obrazovanje, u najširem kontekstu posmatrano, može da ima značajnu ulogu.

Takođe, postoje i brojne barijere koje usporavaju ili ometaju uspešno oblikovanje preduzetničkog duha mladih, a u kojoj meri će delovati, zavisi od društvenog konteksta, odnosno od stepena razvijenosti preduzetničke kulture. U tom smislu, prema *Doing Business* listi (World Bank, 2019), neki od faktora koji, mimo obrazovanja, značajno mogu da utiču na odluku o pokretanju posla jesu: administrativne prepreke, pristup finansijskim resursima kao limitirajući faktor (Ljumović, Lazić, & Vesić, 2015) i opšte makroekonomsko okruženje u zemlji. Osim tih prepreka, postoje i neke druge koje mogu ograničiti namere mladih ljudi koji ulaze u svet rada da osnuju sopstveni posao. Neke od njih su identifikovane u opsežnom istraživanju, čiji je deo rezultata prikazan i u ovom radu. Te prepreke se tiču našeg društva i primarno se odnose na nesigurnu političku i ekonomsku situaciju i percepciju mladih da je poslovni uspeh u privatnom sektoru usko asociran sa prevarom. Ostalim barijerama u otpočinjanju privatnog biznisa,

u pomenutom istraživanju, smatraju se: nedostatak informacija, poznanstava i podrške. Nedostatak znanja je bio na šestom mestu od 10 ponuđenih faktora.

Iako je naše istraživanje pokazalo da preduzetničko obrazovanje u sistemu formalnog obrazovanja ima ulogu u oblikovanju namere studenata da osnuju sopstveni biznis i preduzimljivosti, odnosno u kreiranju nove generacije preduzetnika, ono, ipak, ne prikazuje u kojoj meri je obrazovanje faktor pokretanja sopstvenog posla i stvaranja nove generacije preduzetnika.

Zaključak

Rezultati pokazuju da ispitanici koji su imali preduzetničko obrazovanje u sistemu formalnog obrazovanja pokazuju nameru da osnuju sopstvenog biznisa u većoj meri od onih koji nisu imali preduzetničko obrazovanje i u odnosu na njih češće pokazuju preduzimljivost, što govori u prilog postavljenih hipoteza.

Takođe, iako nije utvrđeno u kojoj meri preduzetničko obrazovanje u sistemu formalnog obrazovanja oblikuje preduzetnički profil nove generacije preduzetnika, smatramo da treba sa posebnom pažnjom razmotriti pristup kreiranju programa za preduzetničko obrazovanje kako bi oni korespondirali sa vrednostima, ponašanjem i načinom rada milenijalaca i naredne takozvane „Z" generacije. Ne manje važan zadatak je kreiranje programa za preduzetničko obrazovanje nastavnika.

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The Role of Formal Entrepreneurship Education for the Creation of a New Generation of Entrepreneurs

Abstract: Entrepreneurship is a source of economic dynamics, innovation, creation of new products and services, and the adoption of a proactive attitude towards job search instead of passively waiting for employment. The rationale behind this paper is to determine the relationship between entrepreneurship education and the creation of a new generation of entrepreneurs. The aim is to provide an answer to the question of whether entrepreneurial education in the formal education system is a factor that can shape the entrepreneurial behavior of young adults, who belong to the so-called new generation. To answer this question, we conducted a questionnaire study among the student population. The results showed that there are statistically significant differences between groups of students who had an entrepreneurial education at some point in their formal education in terms of their entrepreneurial behavior: the intention to start their own business and displaying resourcefulness, i.e. the implementation of entrepreneurial activities. The respondents who had an entrepreneurial education as part of their formal education display an intention to start their own business to a greater extent than those who did not have an entrepreneurial education and more often engage in entrepreneurial activities.

Keywords: adult education, entrepreneurship, entrepreneurship education

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Prison Andragogy or Learning Opportunities in Hungarian Prisons

Abstract: Successful reintegration is the goal of prison education in Hungarian penitentiaries. Prisons support prisoners with primary school education, high school education, and vocational training. These forms of learning within prison are implemented to prepare prisoners for their release, so they can integrate into the labor market afterwards (Penal Act CCXL, 2013). In the context of successful reintegration, we assume that prisoners are capable of being trained. Based on this supposition, three studies were conducted on learning and education in prison at Eötvös Loránd University Doctoral School. First, theoretical research was conducted about prison: the learning possibilities of prison, examining what it provides, what it allows, what it prevents. Second, a survey was conducted on some prisoners' perceptions of their learning opportunities. Third, an interview was carried out that has examined the perceptions of prison learning with some educators teaching in the penitentiary. Our studies on prison learning have confirmed some of our hypotheses reflected in the following statements. In Hungary, the training of prisoners is an essential part of prison life, furthermore, education can be implemented through pieces of training that can be essential tools for personal development in prison. Although most prisoners look for learning opportunities, the way they approach learning is seemingly different. Teachers who work in prison say there is a huge possibility in educating prisoners, but they would require more tools and a more functional learning environment in order to do their best.

Keywords: education in the penitentiary, learning environment in prisons, preparedness of prison-educators

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Prison Andragogy, or Learning Opportunities
in Hungarian Prisons

In the world of education and training, the new millennium has brought about a paradigmatic shift in the definition of *lifelong learning* by proclaiming that it includes all forms of learning, namely formal, non-formal and informal learning. In this way, lifelong learning turns into an engine of socio-economic development (European Commission, 1996; Commission of The European Communities, 2000). One statement of The European Union is that one's skills and abilities must be used as the most efficient way to gain a foothold in the labor market—regardless of how these skills were acquired. This requires an open and flexible approach that encourages lifelong learning, enabling continuous skills development (OECD, 1996). There is a need to support learning in the adult age group as well. However, in the case of adults, we need to take into account some of the adult characteristics that children do not have. Adult learning depends on an individual's life situation, social circumstances, abilities, previously acquired knowledge and skills, learning habits, learning motivation and attitude (Simándi, 2015). This statement is especially true for prisoners living in prison as they need to be supported in gaining the right competencies to participate in the world of work and law-abiding life after their release.

Our research was conducted in an interdisciplinary environment since andragogy is a sub-field of educational sciences. Increasingly we experience that new scientific results enhance the possibility of problem-solving in the field of adult learning. For example, according to some recent neurophysiological research, we may highlight neuroandragogy. One of the latest biological-neurophysiological research has exhaustively demonstrated the potential of lifelong learning: the plasticity of the nervous system ensures that we can learn throughout life. This does not mean that the learning characteristics and opportunities of a young child and an adult are identical, but it certainly ensures the possibility of lifelong learning (Carbone, 2019; Panagiotis, Georgia, & Eleni, 2019). This encourages today's researchers to trust the training of adult prisoners.

The Hungarian Prison Service grants all prisoners an opportunity to study and provides them with material and personal conditions. However, prison statistics show that almost one in two released individuals will reoffend and then return to prison. Reducing this proportion is a matter of priority. We can expect that a more effective prison education and high-quality vocational training could both effectively improve the chances of those who complete their prison sentences to refrain from committing a crime. Therefore, we hope that the results of our research will contribute to the development of reintegration.

Study of Prison: How Prison Supports Prisoners in Learning

About International Prison Learning

The impact of crime is problematic in many dimensions of the society, individual, labor market and family. Crime is harming a significant part of the world. Namely, prison population has tripled in the US over the past three decades, and today, about 2.3 million people are serving prison sentences (Gorgol & Sponsler, 2011). International comparisons may also be based on data from drug-related crime investigations in European countries, according to which 37.89% of all convicted persons in Italy are sentenced for such offenses (Somogyvári et al., 2015). 18.8% of the total prison population in Austria, 13.47% in Germany and 2.88% of all convicts in Hungary were sentenced for such offenses. If we look at further domestic data, Hungarian prisons are estimated to be overcrowded by about 130% (Várkonyi, 2018).

When we were looking for the possibility of comparing prison education in Hungary with the same reintegration opportunities in another country, we chose Slovakia. One of the reasons for our choice was that both Hungary and Slovakia belong to the former socialist region. Another reason was that Hungary has an ongoing discussion with Slovakia on prisoner reintegration. The exchange of experience between the two countries' penitentiary organizations is characterized by the fact that both countries regularly delegate professional groups to the other country. The groups spend several days with their colleagues abroad throughout their professional careers, thus expanding the possibility of cooperation (Deák, 2016).

About Hungarian Prison Learning

Effective social reintegration can only be facilitated if prisoners maintain their mental and physical condition throughout imprisonment by improving their general and vocational skills, by actively contributing to life, by studying, and by maintaining positive family and social bonding. This criminal pedagogical approach emphasizes the need for prisoners to cooperate and to be responsibly involved throughout the implementation of criminal sanctions (Ruzsonyi, 2018).

The purpose of prison enforcement in Hungary is to "promote the social integration of prisoners and the development of their law-abiding behavior" (Penal Act CCXL, 2013). There are 29 penitentiary institutions in Hungary. The purpose of after-care is to help the released prisoners reintegrate into society.

Activities to facilitate the reintegration of prisoners include employment of prisoners, occupational therapy employment, and primary and secondary education. Prison enforcement provides higher education, vocational training, apprenticeships, and other reintegration programs (Penal Act CCXL, 2013).

In Hungary, the training of prisoners is an essential part of prison life. Education can even take place through training and can be an essential tool for personal development in prison. In defining educational methods, consideration should be given to the fact that most prisoners had already been excluded from education. It is an essential expectation that educators treat prisoners as human beings and learners and have more patience and perseverance as they are less able to master the curriculum due to a lack of education. Rather than applying stricter rules, educators need more than usual empathy and sensitivity when dealing with prisoners (Budai, 2017).

A Survey: Prisoners' Perceptions of Learning Opportunities in Prison

During the investigation, paper-based questionnaires were completed at Balassagyarmat Strict and Medium Regime Prison, in Vác Strict and Medium Regime Prison and in Győr-Moson-Sopron County Remand Prison. We wanted to find out whether the legal, material and personal conditions and opportunities meet the prisoners' learning needs and whether prisoners accept the help of the prison staff. The questionnaire consisted of five multiple-choice and four open-ended questions. The study was preceded by a trial survey, during which seven persons filled in the questionnaire. Based on quality feedback, minor changes were made to the questionnaire. The questionnaire sample was designed for 150 inmates. In total, 137 completed (among them 129 valid) questionnaires were received from prisoners at the three institutions. Participation in the survey was entirely voluntary. Participant anonymity was guaranteed, excluding the possibility of directly identifying the persons completing the questionnaires. Only aggregated data is provided in this study. Most of the respondents were aged 30—39, the youngest respondent was 20 and the oldest was 62 years old. Most of those who completed the questionnaire have primary or secondary education.

During our research, we sought answers to the following main questions: 1) What learning processes do prisoners participate in? 2) What are the prisoners' learning motives? 3) Which prison learning resources do prisoners prefer?

In all three institutions, volunteers were asked to fill in questionnaires. All elements of the prisoner population were given the same chance of being included

in the sample. The sample in Balassagyarmat Strict and Medium Regime Prison comprised N = 47 prisoners; the prisoners completed the questionnaires on 29 April 2018. The sample in Vác Strict and Medium Regime Prison comprised N = 48 prisoners; the prisoners completed the questionnaires on 22 May 2018. The sample in the Győr-Moson-Sopron County Remand Prison comprised N = 42 prisoners; the prisoners completed the questionnaires on 25 May 2018.

Results of the Survey

In *Balassagyarmat Strict and Medium Regime Prison*, out of a sample of 47, 17 respondents (36%) indicated that they attended primary education in prison. 14 (30%) attended some organized courses, 19 (40%) received vocational training, 12 (26%) took part in secondary school education, three inmates (6%) received art education. Two respondents (4%) did not participate in any learning process. Prisoners who were involved in some kind of learning process had different learning motivations. These included leaving their cell (2.4%), earning money (4.9%), curiosity (4.9%), schooling (4.9%), pastime (4.9%), resocialization (12.2%), professionalization (24.4%), and self-development (41.5%). According to the questionnaire, in Balassagyarmat, individual learning paths are more important for prisoners than organized learning processes. The respondents most often mentioned some informal learning forms: individual reading, television, and radio.

In *Vác Strict and Medium Regime Prison*, out of a sample of 48, 29 respondents (60%) indicated that they attended primary education in prison. Two of them (4%) attended some organized courses, seven (15%) received vocational training, two (4%) took part in secondary school education, one inmate (2%) received art education. Four respondents (8%) did not participate in any learning process. Prisoners who were involved in some kind of learning process had different learning motivations. These included earning money (5.6%), pastime (5.6%), professionalization (11.1%), schooling (19.4%), resocialization (16.7%), and self-development (41.7%). Prisoners are affected to varying degrees by different learning processes. According to the questionnaire, regarding the sources of knowledge acquisition at the Vác institution, individual learning paths are more important among prisoners than organized learning processes. The respondents most often mentioned some informal learning forms: individual reading, television, radio. Some prisoners indicated that they were gaining new knowledge in other ways, too, from the Bible, talking with correspondents, personal conversations, and crossword puzzles.

In *Győr-Moson-Sopron County Remand Prison*, out of a sample of 42, one respondent (2%) indicated that he attended primary education in prison. One (2%) attended some organized courses, five (12%) received vocational training, two (5%) took part in secondary school education, six inmates (14%) received art education. 15 respondents (36%) did not participate in any learning process. Prisoners who were involved in some kind of learning process had different learning motivations. These included resocialization (4.8%), self-development (9.5%), schooling (23.8%), pastime (23.8%), and leaving their cell (38.1%). Prisoners are affected to varying degrees by different learning processes. According to the questionnaire, in the Győr institution, individual learning pathways are more important for prisoners than organized learning processes. The respondents most often mentioned some informal learning forms: individual reading, television, and radio. Some prisoners indicated that they could gain new knowledge by other means, such as solving crossword puzzles.

Interview Study with Educators Who Teach in Prisons

We conducted an interview study with sixteen educators working in some Hungarian prisons. We paid particular attention to the strengths and weaknesses of the inmates and searched for their learning motivation. We asked what factors were conducive to learning and what conditions in prison hindered the learning of prisoners. Looking at the teachers' learning support work, we were curious about the ways to make learning in prison easier and what ideas they could use to make their teaching work more effective.

The purpose of the interview study was to learn about the forms of education, training, and learning provided to prisoners in their prison, the learning environment available within prison, the learning conditions and the need for teachers to make the teaching-learning process feasible and successful. Furthermore, we studied how they complement the learning conditions provided by the institution. Interview questions focused, among other things, on existing and missing tools for learning support, and whether the penitentiary organization is working to improve teachers' professional methodologies to make reintegration learning effective and efficient.

In our research method we used accessibility sampling. A common trait of the 16 interviewees is that they are not employees of the prison organization and that all of them work in non-prison education institutions. In addition to their activities, they carry out pedagogical work in prison institutions at the request of prison organizations. The average age of the respondents was 53, six of them

were women and ten of them were men. Nine had university degrees, five had college degrees, one was an educator, and one was a baccalaureate. Among the respondents, there were three technical trainers. In terms of teaching qualifications, the group consisted of a history teacher, a mathematics teacher, a biology-chemistry teacher, a chemistry-physics teacher, a biology-geography teacher, a math-physics-chemistry teacher, a psycho-teacher mentor, a Hungarian-Russian teacher, and an English-andragogy teacher. In addition to the above persons, we interviewed a commercial marketing economist and a tailor. The interviewees were motivated by curiosity, the educational and reintegration potential of prisoners, the invitation from different institutions, the opportunity to earn money, and the challenge of prison pedagogical work. Respondents typically believe in the importance of prison education.

The research was carried out between July 1, 2019, and August 31, 2019 in non-prison locations in Dunaújváros, Veszprém, Balassagyarmat, Balatonfűzfő, and Budapest. We did not conduct content analysis when analyzing interview responses, as this method is not relevant for a small number of interviews. Instead, we present quotes from the text of interview responses to support our findings. We had four main hypotheses and our third hypothesis included three sub-hypotheses.

Results of the Interview

According to our first hypothesis, prisoners in prisons can be trained similarly to other disadvantaged groups, but their training should take greater account of the learning characteristics of their social, economic and socio-cultural disadvantage. During training in prisons, trainers seek to take into account the social, economic and socio-cultural disadvantages of prisoners. They include regular praise, encouragement, differentiated classroom work, and teamwork. Educators, knowing the background of the prisoners' family, strive to structure their classes in such a way that students from a variety of socio-cultural backgrounds receive the information they need. To this end, prison educators need to know to some extent the students' family background, which occurs only through informal conversations between educators and prisoners. However, such conversations are forbidden by prison rules—in the dialogue between teachers and students, educators should strive for purely professional communication. Nonetheless, prison educators have access, through the prisoners' narratives, to information that is expected to result in more effective teaching than some change in the teaching method. Prison teachers typically consider it important, in addition to passing on material

knowledge, that the learning prisoners also acquire key competences for lifelong learning.

> *"It is a success if the inmates' attitude changes when they understand why they are here and if they feel any empathy for the victim." (Interviewee no. 4, male, aged 53, teacher of physics and chemistry)*

To encourage learners, when one is uncertain, the teacher personally addresses them to avoid losing their learning motivation.

> *"Come to the blackboard and I'll help you! I go there and help them with their work. So I try to maintain their attention so that they do not think about their family or what has happened to them." (Interviewee no. 2, male, aged 58, teacher of mathematics)*

Prison classes provide an opportunity for differentiated teaching organization. If the educator detects a student lagging in the curriculum, he or she will try to help them catch up. Educators use a variety of motivational strategies. These include rewards, involvement in teamwork and even into education, and building on the knowledge gained.

> *"I try to get them involved so they can share their own experiences. I have to build on my own experience because they have virtually no power of conception." (Interviewee no. 5, female, aged 68, teacher of biology and geography)*
> *"Additional motivation: asking students with professional knowledge of the subject (e.g. finance and accounting graduates) to cooperate with the teacher during the lesson." (Interviewee no. 10, female, aged 50, teacher of trade marketing)*

According to our second hypothesis, *there is a limited range of adult learning tools available to prisoners in a prison setting.* It is essential to provide a learning environment and use teaching and visual aids in the teaching of prisoners. In their absence, teacher preparation for the lesson and maintaining students' attention is questionable. In the penitentiary institutions where the teachers we interviewed work, it was a fact that the learning environment was unfavorable and the physical means were lacking. This problem affects both the quality of students' and teachers' participation in the learning process: gaps in quantity, quality and accessibility have a direct impact on prison pedagogical work.

> *"Chemistry and physics should involve experimentation. There is scarce equipment for performing experiments." (Interviewee no. 4, male, aged 53, teacher of physics and chemistry)*

> *"We couldn't go into the warehouse when we wanted to. We couldn't go out to work because no supervisor in the corridor would let us out."* (Interviewee no. 9, male, aged 73, teacher of science)
> *"No textbooks, no colored chalk, we were not allowed to bring in visual aids."* (Interviewee no. 5, female, aged 68, teacher of biology and geography)

To reduce the lack of teaching aids, it is sometimes the teachers themselves (sometimes the learners!) who made a financial sacrifice for their education by purchasing the missing teaching aids themselves.

> *"I was provided with a very simple, old-fashioned classroom with one board and three chalks. I contribute in the only way I can—I bring in photocopies, I print papers, graduation assignments, and pictures."* (Interviewee no. 3, male, aged 33, teacher of biology and chemistry)
> *"I needed a dictionary from a shelf—it was missing."* (Interviewee no. 13, male, aged 65, teacher of Hungarian grammar and literature and Russian language)

Due to the prison's by-laws, lock-in, rigid nature of institutional hierarchy and supervisory security, it seems inevitable that some of the security provisions will have a negative impact both on prisoners' learning and the teaching staff. This is mainly manifested in the fact that some teaching aids are difficult or not accessible at all, so they are not available in class.

> *"Material conditions are tight. For convenience, I relied heavily on the "blackboard and chalk teaching" and my own voice. You must have special permission to bring in a flash drive."* (Interviewee no. 4, male, aged 53, teacher of chemistry and physics)
> *"We had to get permission for everything, even the ironing water. If we didn't get confirmation by the next day, we didn't iron the next day."* (Interviewee no. 14, female, aged 54, teacher of tailoring)

The quantity, quality, location, availability of the material supporting learning is a determining factor in the quality of the learning-teaching process. According to the interviewees, the poor quality of devices hinders the learning process.

> *"Quite old sewing machines were picked up from storage. The sewing machine maintenance man came in ... he only made the machine worse."* (Interviewee no. 10, male, aged 54, teacher of commercial marketing)

The design and implementation of classrooms and the learning environment supporting adult education, as well as the design and implementation of safety equipment and their use, should support the prison learning-teaching process. If these conditions are not well-planned, we must consider them a barrier to learning.

> *"The whole prison environment is in such poor condition, it is very depressing. A small windowless room like this! And so they provided it to us." (Interviewee no. 4, male, aged 53, teacher of physics and chemistry)*
>
> *"We were in a very small room, 19 of us were locked in, sweating, 2 had to learn to work on one machine. The profession that takes three years to master had to be taught in a year and a half. When we ran out of material, many times I brought in materials from my workshop. The obstacle is that they can't bring anything from their cell." (Interviewee no. 14, female, aged 54, teacher of tailoring)*

Personnel conditions for adult education include the movement of student inmates within the institution between cells and classrooms. This will require a sufficient number of staff members, otherwise, the relevant persons will not be escorted to the classrooms or the library.

> *"They don't get to visit the library either. Many times they complain that they want to go to the library to read or borrow a dictionary, but they can't get there. This is because there are very few supervisors, no one to accompany them." (Interviewee no. 1, female, aged 31, teacher of history and English)*

The use of computers and the internet in prisons is generally prohibited for prisoners.

> *"What I missed was the use of internet during lessons. Or at least one interactive whiteboard!" (Interviewee no. 15, male, aged 62, teacher of technical subjects)*
>
> *"We need more IT tools. The internet is forbidden in prison! There are separate benches, empty walls, a green board... All of this makes it basically impossible to teach a 60-year-old computer literacy!" (Interviewee no. 3, male, aged 33, teacher of biology and chemistry)*
>
> *"We are in a very difficult situation. We have no textbooks, no map, no nothing. I teach from the atlases I got from school before. When one of my classes graduated, I said, kids, give me the atlases, because you won't need them anyway in high school! I collected them and took them*

to the jail. And we only have five atlases in a class of thirty students!” (Interviewee no. 5, female, aged 68, teacher of biology and geography)

According to our third hypothesis, (a) *to meet the specific learning needs of prisoners, there is a need to improve the preparedness of teachers in prisons;* (b) *there is no organized teacher in-service training for incoming teachers;* (c) *teachers adapt to the needs of the target groups through self-training.* Prisoners require special attention and methodological consideration because of their status and environmental characteristics (i.e. because of the crime they committed, they are serving their sentence in a closed institution). Teachers involved in prison pedagogical work were not, or were only marginally prepared for this special task at the outset of their work in institutions. Teachers develop the skills necessary to meet the challenges of prison teaching in practice, without the assistance of a prison organization in this process of development; there is no training to improve prison educators. External teachers catch up to the demands of prison teaching by self-development in this way. Prison teachers use specific methods to work in prisons differently compared to outside school practice. Priority will be given, inter alia, to personal role models, credibility, catching up with students, and differentiated classroom work.

> “I can rely on credibility over and over again, this is my method.” (Interviewee no. 12, female, aged 49, vocational teacher of light industry)
> “Some students completed their tasks fairly quickly, whereas others needed my help. They were competing with each other, wow! I was basically all over the place throughout the class.” (Interviewee no. 14, female, age of 54, teacher of tailoring)
> “I worked with small groups who had a hard time doing the task. I gave more serious tasks to those who found the basic task very simple.” (Interviewee no. 15, male, aged 62, teacher of technical subjects)

According to our fourth hypothesis, *predicting andragogy-based prison education can be used to successfully develop prisoners’ key competences for lifelong learning, with dedicated learning methodology and tools.* To determine the success rate of prison pedagogical work, it would be necessary to follow those who have obtained a certificate and have already been released, as the training is aimed at supporting integration into the labor market. Thus, the results are difficult to determine during the time prisoners study in prison. The interviewed teachers themselves make it possible to determine the learning successes after the release, but no information is available on the possible successes of the participants from this period. The number of people who obtain some kind of final certification as a result of prison education is extremely low.

> *"It is a small success when someone completes their grade. It is a huge success if they can obtain their high school diploma. I know that in three prisons about one or two out of 5000 complete it." (Interviewee no. 2, male, aged 58, teacher of mathematics)*

Not only, and not specifically, acquiring material knowledge may be considered a success.

> *"The social and cultural development of prisoners is just as important as decisive. It is not teaching but rather education that is very important in bringing our students to life and reintegrating them into society. Reintegration is very important." (Interviewee no. 3, male, aged 33, teacher of biology and chemistry)*
> *"Social value judgment and empathy towards others is important. I also consider it a success if someone continues their schooling after release, if they still need to study. Success is when they complete a year. These are concrete, measurable successes." (Interviewee no. 4, male, aged 53, teacher of chemistry and physics)*
> *"One of the pillars of success is a supportive educator attitude." (Interviewee no. 13, male, aged 65, teacher of Hungarian grammar and literature and Russian language)*

Summary

The education of prisoners in prisons is a matter of social interest since education is a prerequisite for prisoners' release into society. The higher one's education, the more likely he or she is to find a job in the labor market. A significant number of adults who leave prison again commit a crime and, as a result, return to prison, leaving them unable to participate in the world of work and falling out of the rhythm of social life. We believe that the reduction of relapses may depend on the level of education of the prisoners being released, so we have examined the legal, material and personal conditions for the education of prisoners in order to find opportunities for improvement in prison education.

Studies show that efforts are being made by both the prison system and teachers who teach inmates to achieve effective prison education. At the same time, it has become evident that today's form of education still leaves much to be desired. Material and personal factors affect the quality of prison education. In many cases, tools that are indispensable to education, such as classroom equipment, writing materials or learning aids, are missing. Educators make great efforts

to maintain the quality of lessons but are unable to overcome their limitations. Prison does not educate trainers, they have to attain knowledge themselves, and they have to develop their own strategies for better education. Prison staff also have a lot of work to do, which is why they may not be able to support detainees in class, so students regularly miss classes.

Conclusions and Recommendations

As prison education is an important factor in preparing prisoners for life, it is clear that everything must be done to improve education. We see the implementation of development in three areas. On the one hand, it would be worthwhile to arrange classroom conditions so that both students and teachers find a smooth and goal-oriented lesson. Prison educators say that more attention should be paid to creating conditions for the education of prisoners. This includes enabling them to prepare for classes, providing teaching aids and training teachers. It is their vision that a comprehensive development could improve the efficiency of prison training for prisoners and their preparation for life. On the other hand, it would be necessary to increase the number of prison staff members to move prisoners between the cells and classrooms on time. Finally, it is essential to facilitate contact between teachers teaching in prisons (even by use of a common web-based document that could be shared among teachers) to consult regularly and jointly identify their needs to support the development of their teaching quality.

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Andragogija u zatvoru ili prilike za učenje u mađarskim zatvorima

Apstrakt: Uspešna reintegracija jeste cilj obrazovanja u zatvoru u mađarskim zatvorskim ustanovama. Zatvori pružaju podršku zatvorenicima kada je reč o osnovnom, srednjem i stručnom obrazovanju. Ovi vidovi učenja u zatvoru primenjuju se kako bi se zatvorenici pripremili za izlazak iz zatvora i kako bi nakon toga mogli da se uključe na tržište rada (Krivični zakonik Mađarske, CCXL, 2013). U kontekstu uspešne reintegracije, pretpostavljamo da su zatvorenici sposobni da pohađaju određenu obuku. Pošli smo od te pretpostavke i sproveli tri studije o obrazovanju i učenju u zatvoru pri Doktorskoj školi Univerziteta Eötvös Loránd. Kao prvo, sproveli smo teorijsko istraživanje o prilikama za učenje u zatvoru i onoga što zatvor pruža, omogućava i sprečava. Kao drugo, sproveli smo anketu o percepciji pojedinih zatvorenika o njihovim prilikama za učenje. Konačno, sproveli smo intervjue sa određenim nastavnicima koji drže nastavu u zatvorima o tome kako oni vide učenje u zatvoru. Ova studija o učenju u zatvoru potvrdila je neke od naših hipoteza koje smo formulisali sledećim tvrdnjama. U Mađarskoj je obuka zatvorenika neophodan deo boravka u zatvoru. Osim toga, obrazovanje može da se primeni u vidu obuke koja može da pruži osnovne alatke za lični razvoj u zatvoru. Iako većina zatvorenika traži prilike za učenje, način na koji pristupaju učenju je naizgled drugačiji. Nastavnici koji rade u zatvoru tvrde da postoji velika mogućnost obrazovanja zatvorenika, ali da su im potrebna dodatna pomagala i funkcionalnije okruženje za učenje kako bi uložili maksimalan napor u nastavi.

Ključne reči: obrazovanje u zatvoru, okruženje za učenje u zatvorima, pripremljenost nastavnika za nastavu u zatvorima

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Akademsko pisanje iz perspektive kritičke pedagogije: vid otpora neoliberalnoj ideologiji u visokom obrazovanju

Apstrakt: Cilj autorke ovog rada je da, ukazujući na snažan uticaj ideologije neoliberalizma na određene tranformacije savremenih obrazovnih politika, predstavi moguće oblike otpora takvim politikama, oslanjajući se na okvir kritičke pedagogije i fokusirajući se na praksu akademskog pisanja na nivou univerzitetskog obrazovanja. Polazim od premise da je za istinsku demokratiju od ključnog značaja da univerzitet (p)ostane prostor emancipacije i slobode ne samo akademske već i šire društvene zajednice, a zatim objašnjavam kako i zašto neoliberalizacija ugožava tu važnu društveno-istorijsku ulogu univerziteta. Principe i agendu kritičke pedagogije predlažem kao vid otpora širenju tih štetnih politika na univerzitetu. Na kraju, predstavljam koncept akademskog pisanja zasnovanog na principima solidarnosti i kolaborativnost kao važan element redefinisanja akademskih praksi u skladu sa zahtevima kritičke pedagogije, sa ciljem očuvanja humanističkih osnova univerzitetskog obrazovanja.

Ključne reči: kritička pedagogija, neoliberalizam, visoko obrazovanje, obrazovne politike, akademsko pisanje

Uvod

Brojni autori sa zabrinutošću govore o globalnoj tendenciji da se obrazovanje, naročito na univerzitetskom nivou, sve više usklađuje sa zahtevima kapitalističkog tržišta i da reprodukuje dominantnu kulturu i *status quo* (Berg, 2014; Díez Gutiérrez, 2018; Fairclough, 1992; Giroux, 2014; Groenke & Hatch, 2009). Neoliberalizam, kao dominantan ekonomsko-politički sistem, ali i ideologija, već nekoliko decenija strukturira sve sfere društvenog života, uključujući i obrazovne prakse, prema zakonima slobodnog tržišta (Apple, 2011), što utiče na komercija-

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lizaciju i komodifikaciju obrazovanja i njegovu transformaciju u običan proizvod sa tržišnom vrednošću. Stoga, ukoliko želimo da stvaramo demokratsko, pravednije društvo slobodnih, mislećih članova, a ne pukih konzumenata, moramo redefinisati brojne prakse kontaminirane uplivom neoliberalnih ideologija u obrazovanje.

Dekonstruisati, razumeti i ovladati tim praksama važan je korak u postizanju ciljeva kritičke pedagogije, koja čini teorijski okvir moje analize – formiranje slobodnih pojedinaca koji kritički razumeju kontekst u kojem se obrazovni proces odvija te stoga mogu aktivno da rade na njegovoj promeni (Monchinski, 2008). Budući da je uključivanjem u Bolonjski proces[2] 2003. godine srpski visokoobrazovni sistem postao deo jedinstvenog evropskog „obrazovnog tržišta“ i da je, stoga, podložan istim tendencijama neoliberalizacije, smatram da je srpskoj akademskoj zajednici važno ukazati na posledice tih transformacija univerziteta, ali i na moguće oblike otpora. Kao primer konkretne obrazovne prakse, u ovom radu je predstavljeno akademsko pisanje kao emancipatorsko polje u okviru kojeg je moguće artikulisati otpor neoliberalnoj apropijaciji univerziteta i negovati humanistički etos, u skladu sa principima kritičke pedagogije.

Analizu započinjem objašnjenjem savremenog društveno-političkog konteksta visokog obrazovanja u zapadnim društvima. Polazim od premise da je neoliberalizam zdrav razum našeg doba (Harvey, 2005) i da odlučujuće utiče na procese kreiranja i širenja znanja (Apple, 2004). Znanje i obrazovanje tretiram kao diskurs, to jest praksu prožetu vrednosnim stavovima, odnosno ideologijom (Hyland, 2004). Najprikladnija analiza na taj način koncipiranog znanja i obrazovanja jeste ona koju pruža perspektiva kritičke pedagogije. U pitanju je disciplina u okviru koje je moguće preispitivati ne samo forme već i funkcije obrazovnih praksi: jesu li one emancipatorske ili pak služe kao instrumenti integracije mladih u postojeći sistem (Freire, 2016).

Oslanjajući se na taj teorijski okvir, predstavljam akademsko pisanje i diskurs iz kritičke perspektive (Canagarajah, 2002; Murray & Moore, 2006), kao dinamičan proces kreiranja i širenja znanja u akademskoj zajednici koji može i treba da ima emancipatorski karakter. Naime, umesto da promoviše individualizam i kompetitivnost studenata, profesora, istraživača i drugih članova akademske zajednice, akademsko pisanje može biti redefinisano kroz principe solidarnosti i kolaborativnosti (Murray & Moore, 2006). To je potencijalno važan korak u rekonceptualizaciji samog visokog obrazovanja koje, umesto da počiva na vrednostima neoliberalnog kapitalističkog tržišta, postaje polje aktivne saradnje, razmene i uključivanja.

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[2] O „Bolonji“ kao procesu neoliberalizacije univerziteta biće više reči dalje u radu (vid. Berg, 2014. ili Díez Gutiérrez, 2018).

Teorijski okvir

Pre opštih razmatranja o tome šta je akademsko pisanje i kako ga uspešno spro-voditi u praksi u skladu s postulatima kritičke pedagogije, važno je objasniti druš-tveno-politički kontekst visokog obrazovanja u savremenim zapadnim društvi-ma. Naime, uprkos uvreženom mišljenju da je znanje objektivno i neutralno i da takvo biva prenošeno kroz obrazovne sisteme, ono je, naprotiv, uvek rezultat selektivne tradicije; u obrazovnim politikama i kurikulumima se, naime, uvek naglašavaju određena značenja i prakse, dok se drugi istovremeno zanemaruju i skrivaju (Apple, 2004). Da bismo, dakle, razumeli samo ustrojstvo obrazovnih sistema, moramo se upitati ne samo koje znanje je najvrednije da bude podučava-no već čije znanje je najvrednije (Apple, 2004). Selektivno znanje koje se prenosi obrazovanjem uvek je odraz verovanja i interesa vladajuće klase u društvu, zbog čega obrazovne institucije na svim nivoima, od najranijeg do univerzitetskog ob-razovanja, imaju ulogu da reprodukuju dominantnu, hegemonu ideologiju i tako doprinesu održavanju *statusa quo* u društvu (Apple 2004; Freire, 2016). Dakle, obrazovanje ne postoji u društvenom vakuumu te „odluke o tome čije se znanje, vrednosti, kultura i istorija prenose narednim generacijama, govore nešto veoma važno o tome ko poseduje moć u društvu" (Apple 2004, str. xx).

No, kao što ne postoji neutralno obrazovanje, tako ni pedagogija ne sme biti neutralna. Takvu, angažovanu, kritičku pedagogiju, možemo definisati kao „pristup podučavanju, učenju i istraživanju [...] kroz kritički dijalog i dijalektičku analizu svakodnevnog iskustva" (Macrine et al., 2010, str. 2 prema Bori, 2018, str. 6)[3]. Stoga je njen cilj da, pre svega, ukaže na postojeće odnose nejednakosti u obrazovnim sistemima, ali i da pomogne u preispitivanju i transformisanju postojećeg nepravednog društveno-ekonomskog poretka putem formiranja pro-gresivnih, kritički osvećenih i aktivnih članova društva[4].

Upravo je taj cilj kritičke pedagogije moj orijentir u predstavljanju savre-menih ideologija i politika u visokom obrazovanju (i globalno i u srpskoj aka-demskoj sredini). Istovremeno ću pokušati da i akademsko pisanje[5] smestim u isti institucionalni okvir i da ponudim smernice za pretvaranje te važne akadem-ske prakse u oruđe za postizanje ciljeva kritičke pedagogije. Međutim, ukoliko je

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[3] Koreni te discipline leže u radovima sociologa kao što su Marks, Gramši i pripadnici Frankfurtske škole, ali se njenim začetnikom smatra brazilski pedagog Paulo Frejre koji je aktivno radio na opismenjavanju najsiromaš-nijih slojeva brazilskog društva pedesetih i šezdesetih godina 20. veka.

[4] Ta revolucionarna, emancipatorska vizija pedagogije jasno je izražena u najuticajnijem delu Paula Frejra, *Pe-dagogija potlačenih* (Freire, 2016 [1974]). Za detaljniju raspravu o emancipatorskoj prirodi obrazovanja kod P. Frejra vid., na primer, Mayo, 2014.

[5] Pod „akademskim pisanjem" uvek podrazumevamo i „akademsko čitanje i razumevanje", prakse koje pretho-de pisanju i koje su od njega neodvojive.

izložena akademizaciji i dekontekstualizaciji i pretvorena u „režim istine" (Foucault, 1995, str. 105), kritička pedagogija može izgubiti svoju „kritičnost". Zbog toga je važno kritički se odnositi prema samoj kritičkoj pedagogiji, kako njeni ciljevi i perspektiva ne bi postali samo još jedna maglovita akademska konstrukcija.

Neoliberalni kapitalizam: hegemona ideologija koja oblikuje obrazovne politike

Dardo i Laval (Dardot & Laval, 2014) tvrde da je neoliberalizam postao norma koja oblikuje naše živote, odnose sa drugima pa čak i načine na koje predstavljamo sebe. Nastavši kao ekonomska paradigma u drugoj polovini 20. veka, neoliberalizam je prerastao u globalnu hegemonu ideologiju i takozvani „zdravorazumski način na koji mnogi od nas tumače, žive i razumeju svet" (Harvey, 2005, str. 3) i na kojem počivaju najveće vrednosti zapadnog društva. Ta doktrina počiva na ideji da se ljudsko blagostanje najpotpunije može dosegnuti ukoliko se svi segmenti javnog i privatnog života organizuju po principu slobodnog tržišta (Harvey, 2005). Naime, neoliberalne politike već decenijama sprovode ekonomski darvinizam, promovišući privatizaciju, komodifikaciju, slobodnu trgovinu i deregulaciju, ističući ličnu odgovornost nad širim odnosom društvenih snaga i neprestano pojačavajući jaz između bogatih i siromašnih (Giroux, 2014). Neoliberalizam pretvara sve aspekte naših društvenih i ličnih života u takmičenje, a kompetitivnost promoviše kao vrhunsku vrednost. Zahvaljujući neoliberalizmu, sve sfere društvenih odnosa bivaju ustrojene prema tržišnom modelu. Ljudi su, stoga, pozvani da neprestano usavršavaju sebe kako bi bili kompetitivni u svetu ustrojenom prema zakonima tržišta; individualni ljudski život postaje vrsta poslovnog poduhvata, dok neprestana potreba za ličnim usavršavanjem postaje jedan od imperativa savremenog čoveka (Bori, 2018; Dardot & Laval, 2014). Takva javna pedagogija podstiče vrednosni sistem zasnovan ne samo na ličnom interesu već i na nekontrolisanoj sebičnosti, te podriva svaku vrstu solidarnosti koja bi mogla dovesti u pitanje i ugroziti prevlast tržišta i tržišne ideologije, transformiše kolektivne poduhvate u profitabilne, individualističke, a takve vrednosti promoviše kao vrhunske i nadmoćne (Giroux, 2014).

    Budući da neoliberalna ideologija predstavlja zakone tržišta kao prirodne i svevažeće, nijedan segment javnog života u savremenim društvima nije pošteđen njenog delovanja, pa ni obrazovanje. Globalno, sve više integrisana međunarodna ekonomija snažno utiče na gotovo sve obrazovne politike i prakse (Apple, 2011). Iz perspektive te globalne, neoliberalne kapitalističke ekonomije, cilj obrazovanja je uspešna integracija učenika/studenata u kapitalističko tržište rada (Groenke &

Hatch, 2009). Stoga su obrazovne politike i institucije svih nivoa u službi legitimisanja klasnih struktura kapitalizma i održavanja *statusa quo* u društvu.

Neoliberalizacija univerziteta

Darder (2019, str. v) tvrdi kako je „perverzna logika neoliberalizma zarobila (...) svet. Nigde to nije tako očigledno kao u onome što često nazivamo neoliberalnim univerzitetom". Uz izgovor da povećavaju institucionalnu efikasnost, odgovornost i kompetitivnost, neoliberalne politike u visokom obrazovanju donose nove administrativne i upravljačke prakse koje univerzitet smeštaju u okvire tržišnih zakona i ekonomskog profita. Tipičan primer neoliberalizacije univerziteta je Bolonjski proces, čiji je osnovni cilj stvaranje standardizovanog i uporedivog formata evropskog visokog obrazovanja (Berg, 2014; Díez Gutiérrez, 2018). Međutim, osim tog cilja, Bolonjski proces ima i mnogo šire implikacije, koje se, pre svega, kako tvrdi Berg (2014, str. 3), ogledaju u:

1) implementaciji novih i raznovrsnih oblika neoliberalnog upravljanja univerzitetom, što uključuje komodifikaciju obrazovnih sistema, eksterne sisteme evaluacije i provere rezultata istraživanja i podučavanja, sve manje učešće države u finansiranju univerziteta i sve veće oslanjanje na privatne izvore finansiranja, komercijalizaciju znanja, smanjenje institucionalne i individualne autonomije i dr.;

2) stvaranju novih, neoliberalnih, oblika subjektiviteta u društvu, konstituisanih na hegemonom neoliberalnom diskursu preduzetničkog individualizma.

Na taj način obrazovanje postaje roba, studenti njeni konzumenti a univerzitetski kurikulumi i prakse podučavanja sve više bivaju orijentisani ka „isporučivanju merljivih usluga i zadovoljavanju klijenata u merljivim okvirima" (Brulé, 2004, str. 247). Umesto obrazovanja, neoliberalni univerzitet nudi „obuku za posao" (Giroux, 2014, str. 59); studenti se više ne obrazuju da postanu punopravni i ravnopravni građani demokratskog društva već „da zadovolje potrebu za ljudskim kapitalom" (Giroux, 2014, str. 60).

Taj novi, „kompetitivni univerzitet" (Berg, 2014, str. 1) rezultat je suštinske promene u kulturnom modelu i sveobuhvatnog delovanja neoliberalne ideologije kao savremenog hegemona. Archer (2008) daje detaljan pregled studija koje se kritički bave posledicama neoliberalizacije visokog obrazovanja. Ističe da se u mnogim takvim analizama zaključuje da „uvođenje kontrola, tržišnih zakona, nadgledanja i menadžeralizacije na univerzitet ima dugoročno štetne posledice po identitet, moral

i nivoe stresa akademaca" (Archer, 2008, str. 267; cf. takođe i Díez Gutiérrez, 2018). Posledice tih uticaja posebno su vidljive u akademskoj zajednici društveno-humanističkih nauka, gde istraživači tipično rade sami (tzv. *lone-scholar model*, Berg, 2014, str. 3), gde su potrebe tržišta za rezultatima istraživanja u ovim oblastima male ili nepostojeće i gde su nivoi anksioznosti i otuđenosti svih članova zajednice, uključujući i studente, znatno viši nego kod onih koji se bave istraživanjima u prirodnim ili tehničkim naukama (Tamburri, 2013). Međutim, veoma je važno istaći da se upravo u istraživanjima u oblasti društveno-humanističkih nauka konstruiše znanje neophodno za stvaranje demokratskog, inkluzivnog i pravednijeg društva, zbog čega je posebno važno odbraniti ih od pogubnog uticaja uvođenja tržišne logike u obrazovne politike i prakse.

Ta nova ideologija koja dominira visokim obrazovanjem danas dovodi do fenomena koji Marej i Mur nazivaju „kompetitivnim, individualističkim paradoksom" zbog toga što su članovi jedne akademske zajednice u istoj disciplini ili instituciji „primorani da rade ne jedni sa drugima već jedni protiv drugih" (Murray & Moore 2006, str. 132). Na taj način, smatraju ove autorke, „preovladava individualistički, takmičarski etos" (Murray & Moore, 2006, str. 132), koji, umesto da služi akademskoj zajednici, podriva njene osnove.

Međutim, uprkos svom statusu hegemone globalne ideologije, neoliberalne politike nisu opšteprihvaćene pa se u mnogim oblastima društvenog života artikulišu različiti oblici otpora njihovom delovanju. Novi, alternativni etos u akademskoj zajednici je moguće i, štaviše, neophodno razvijati ukoliko želimo da vratimo univerzitet u humanističke okvire. Upravo je kritička pedagogija vid otpora neoliberalnim obrazovnim politikama, budući da ih promišlja u specifičnom društvenom, političkom, ekonomskom i istorijskom kontekstu, sa ciljem da ih uskladi sa demokratskim vrednostima. Stoga rezultati istraživanja i praksi inspirisanih njenom perspektivom i ciljevima postaju prepoznati u sve širim akademskim krugovima.

Kritička pedagogija

Kritička pedagogija je, pre svega, *praksa*, a praksa predstavlja „delanje i promišljanje" (Freire, 2016, str. 96). Kritička pedagogija zahteva neprestanu refleksiju o onome što se u učionici dešava, zašto se dešava i kojim ciljevima služi. Ona od svih učesnika u procesu obrazovanja zahteva da neprestano promišljaju odnos između svojih svakodnevnih dela i institucionalnog okvira u kojima se ona odvijaju, drugim rečima, teorija treba uvek da prati konkretne akcije jer, kako tvrdi P. Frejre (Freire, 2016), teorija bez akcije je obični verbalizam a akcija bez teorije slepi aktivizam, dok istinska praksa postoji samo u dijalektičkom odnosu teorije i akcije.

Najvažnije, no istovremeno i veoma zanemareno pitanje u pedagogiji i obrazovanju (ne samo studenata već i samih nastavnika) jeste potreba da se njihova pozicija transformiše iz „uloge običnih konzumenata obrazovnih istraživanja u učesnike u stvaranju znanja" (Toohey & Waterstone, 2004, str. 292 u Norton & Toohey, 2004, str. 1). Kritička pedagogija, dakle, podrazumeva konstruktivistički pristup obrazovanju i zahteva od svih učesnika u obrazovnom procesu da kritički razumeju kontekst u kojem se on odvija te da stoga aktivno rade na njegovoj promeni (Monchinski, 2008).

Kritička pedagogija, treba istaći, nije i ne sme biti neutralna pedagogija. Njena praksa podrazumeva, pre svega, da su nastavnici, oni koji podučavaju, „svesni svojih vrednosti, pozicija i interesa" (Canagarajah, 2002, str. 18), da ih preispituju i usklađuju svoje ideologije i prakse podučavanja sa zahtevima emancipatorske obrazovne agende. Prikrivanje ideološke pozicije onih koji su uključeni u proces obrazovanja višestruko je neproduktivno; štaviše, u suprotnosti je sa glavnim ciljevima kritičke pedagogije, budući da utire put sprovođenju tzv. skrivenih kurikuluma (Giroux & Penna, 1979)[6], koji ograničavaju razvoj šire društvene svesti studenata (cf. Canagarajah, 2002). Postojanje prisne veze između obrazovnih i političko-ekonomskih institucija u određenom društvu davno je utvrđeno (cf. Giroux & Penna, 1979). Tek kada prihvatimo postojanje te veze i uzmemo u obzir interakciju između obrazovnog sistema i šireg društvenog konteksta, možemo ispitati i, eventualno, menjati odnose između formalnog obrazovanja i društvene kontrole, odnosno razotkriti prećutne tehnike širenja ideoloških poruka kroz obrazovni sistem (Giroux & Penna, 1979).

U skladu sa ovako definisanim ciljevima i zahtevima kritičke pedagogije treba formulisati i postulate akademskog pisanja kao jednog od bazičnih predmeta na fakultetima društveno-humanističkih nauka. To je posebno važno ukoliko imamo u vidu i promenu paradigme u epistemologiji koja se dogodila tokom druge polovine XX veka, od apsolutističkog ka konceptu istine koji je okrenut subjektu i uslovljen kontekstom, perspektivom i diskursom. Ta promena je uzrokovala tzv. diskurzivni (ili jezički, odnosno kulturni) obrt u društvenim naukama, karakterističan za postmodernizam i poststrukturalizam. Naime, jezik je prema toj novoj paradigmi ne samo (statička) struktura već i dinamična „praksa koja opisuje, ali istovremeno i konstruiše načine na koje njegovi korisnici razumeju sebe, svoje društveno uređenje, istoriju i mogućnosti" (Norton & Toohey, 2004, str. 1). Takva, sociokontekstualna perspektiva jezika može biti korisna u definisanju nove, kritičke prakse akademskog pisanja i diskursa.

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[6] Pod skrivenim kurikulumom se obično podrazumevaju sve one implicitne vrednosti koje se prenose u procesu učenja (i nisu povezane isključivo sa formalnim obrazovanjem, već svakom vrstom učenja). Za detaljnu raspravu o tom problemu i različitim aspektima skrivenog kurikuluma vid. na primer Margolis, 2001.

Akademsko pisanje

Univerzitetsko obrazovanje podrazumeva ne samo usvajanje određenih sadržaja već i „akulturaciju studenata u određenim akademskim praksama" (Navarro, 2014, str. 29), to jest usvajanje društveno prihvaćenih normi za konstrukciju, razmenu i prenošenje znanja u univerzitetskom kontekstu, kao i usvajanje određenih naučnih, profesionalnih, jezičkih i širih društvenih ideologija putem kulture akademskog pisanja u određenoj akademskoj zajednici (Navarro, 2014).

Jedan od ključnih aspekata tog procesa akulturacije jeste upravo usvajanje praksi akademskog pisanja i razumevanja njihovog interaktivnog karaktera (Hyland, 2004). Praksa akademskog pisanja, pak, neposredno je povezana sa akademskim, tj. naučnim diskursom. U pitanju je, zapravo, kontinuum tekstova, akademskih i istraživačkih, koji se kreću od onih široko do onih usko specijalizovanih (Navarro, 2014). Akademski diskurs je izuzetno složen epistemološki i ideološki konstrukt koji presudno utiče na naše viđenje i doživljaj sveta (Haliday & Martin, 1993). Stoga su dekonstrukcija, razumevanje i ovladavanje elementima tog diskursa važni koraci ne samo u upoznavanja akademske kulture, njenog disciplinarnog karaktera i hijerarhijskih odnosa u njoj (Hyland, 2004) već i u postizanju ciljeva kritičke pedagogije, koja teži da obrazovanje pretvori u emancipatorski proces, ključan za razvoj istinski slobodnih pojedinaca i društva.

Akademsko pisanje podrazumeva ne samo jasno predstavljanje informacija već i poznavanje konteksta i kontrolu nad samim akademskim diskursom. Osim toga, znanje se u akademskom kontekstu ne samo prenosi već i kreira, to jest konstruiše, te stoga nov kontekst, odnosno novi društveni, politički, ekonomski i istorijski uslovi zahtevaju i nove akademske prakse koje nastaju u okvirima same akademske zajednice. Tu leži prostor za usklađivanje samog koncepta akademskog pisanja sa emancipatorskom agendom kritičke pedagogije. Kritička komponenta u samoj praksi akademskog pisanja jeste ono što osnažuje članove akademske zajednice i pomaže im da aktivno učestvuju u kreiranju i širenju znanja na korist celokupne zajednice. U narednom odeljku ću pokušati da objasnim šta je kritičko akademsko pisanje i kako može biti od pomoći u redefinisanju savremenih obrazovnih praksi, koje su poslednjih decenija pod snažnim i štetnim uticajem neoliberalnih ideologija.

Kritičko akademsko pisanje

Kanagaradža (Canagarajah, 2002) rezimira način na koji kritička orijentacija redefiniše praksu (akademskog) pisanja. Prema njegovom mišljenju, pisanje postaje:

1. od autonomnog, kontekstualno zavisan proces;
2. od individualnog, društveni proces;

3. od kognitivnog, materijalni proces;
4. od formalnog, ideološki proces;
5. od prostornog, istorijski proces.

Drugim rečima, pisanje nije povezano samo sa apstraktnim jezičkim normama i strukturama već predstavlja doživljaj sveta, stavove, vrednosti i uverenja osobe koja piše, odnosno pisanje je odraz ideologije; ne samo lične već i ideologije dominantne u određenom segmentu društva ili društvu uopšte. Pisanje je i praksa koja se dešava u konkretnom trenutku u vremenu i prostoru i koja zavisi od socioekonomskog statusa osobe koja piše. U pitanju je, dakle, dinamična društvena aktivnost, a ne inertna praksa.

Kanagaradža upravo stoga i insistira da podučavanje akademskom pisanju „ne sme stati na objašnjenju jezičkih struktura i retoričkih svojstava teksta, (već) moramo imati u vidu vrednosti, tj. ideologiju koju tekst prenosi, način na koji spoljni kontekst oblikuje kreiranje i recepciju teksta, kao i načine na koje neravnopravan status i identiteti pisaca i čitaoca oblikuju tekst" (Canagarajah, 2002, str. 6). Drugim rečima, u kritičkom akademskom pisanju, studenti postaju senzibilisani na to kako „društveni konflikti, materijalna nejednakost, kulturne razlike i odnosi moći utiču na konstrukciju teksta" (Canagarajah, 2002, str. 6).

Ovako definisano, kritičko akademsko pisanje postaje važno sredstvo u borbi protiv toksičnih efekata neoliberalizacije univerziteta. Kao praksa ne samo širenja već i kreiranja znanja, ono treba da ima u vidu sve izraze kulturne, rodne, klasne i drugih različitosti i da ih uvede u novu epistemološku orijentaciju svih društveno-humanističkih disciplina. To je moguće ako prethodno redefinišemo osnovne demokratske principe „glasa, učešća i solidarnosti, tako da u svojim praksama osporimo istorijske i savremene korene klasne, rodne, rasne, seksualne i religijske represije koje teže da nas liše humanosti" (Darder, 2019, str. xii). Sve to je izvodljivo samo ukoliko akademsko pisanje razumemo kao kolaborativnu, a ne kompetitivnu aktivnost i praksu. Preduslov za tu promenu jeste, pre svega, osloboditi se načina razmišljanja koje je kolonizovala neoliberalna ideologija, a koja ustrojava celokupan sistem obrazovanja prema sveprisutnim „zakonima tržišta".

Zašto i kako da akademsko pisanje bude kolaborativno a ne kompetitivno?

Učenje je društveni proces koji podrazumeva interakciju i saradnju. Na tim principima treba organizovati i akademsko pisanje kao „inherentno kreativan proces u kojem se znanje i ideje ne samo dele i prenose, već i stvaraju" (Murray & Moore, 2006, str. 132).

Međutim, videli smo da je univerzitet, kao i sve druge javne institucije u poslednjih nekoliko decenija, pod snažnim uticajem neoliberalnih politika „novog javnog menadžmenta" i procesa „menadžeralizacije" (Berg, 2014; Darder, 2019; Díez Gutiérrez, 2018; Fairclough, 1992; Giroux, 2014; Murray & Moore, 2006) koji prenose ideologiju i prakse slobodnog tržišta na sve širi spektar društvenih sfera. Ti procesi podrazumevaju implementaciju tržišne logike i korporativnih vrednosti i u akademski kontekst te direktno utiču i na samu praksu akademskog pisanja.

Stoga, umesto da akademsko pisanje bude proces u kojem se neguje i širi znanje, ono postaje zatvoren prostor kompetitivnosti i individualnosti. Međutim, takva kompetitivnost je „disfunkcionalna" (Murry & Moore, 2006, str. 131) i kreira dodatne odnose hijerarhije i asimetrije u akademskoj zajednici pa znanje, koje bi trebalo da bude sredstvo emancipacije, postaje instrument za produbljivanje nejednakosti i neravnopravnosti (Freire, 2016). Jasno je da je koncept akademskog pisanja kao takmičarske prakse u suprotnosti sa principima kritičke pedagogije. Stoga samo akademsko pisanje koje počiva na principima solidarnosti i uzajamne podrške može biti korisno celokupnoj akademskoj (i široj društvenoj) zajednici i doprineti rekonceptualizaciji samog univerzitetskog obrazovanja.

Neki od predloga koje Marej i Mur daju kao preporuku za razvijanje kolaborativnog akademskog pisanja zasnivaju se na ideji da pisanje „nije samo iznošenje ideja i argumenata, već i proces generisanja znanja" (Murray & Moore, 2006, str. 132). Stoga predlažu brojne produktivne i kreativne aktivnosti za akulturaciju studenata u takvim akademskim praksama (Murray & Moore, 2006): artikulisanje ideja pisanjem na slobodne teme, međusobnu evaluaciju radova na osnovu kriterijuma za dobro pisanje koje su sami studenti kreirali (na primer, na osnovu prilagođenih uputstava iz naučnih časopisa), ispitivanje i promišljanje različitih retoričkih, gramatičkih, žanrovskih i argumentativnih formi i pravila i slično. Osim toga, mentorstvo i formiranje grupa za rad na određenim temama/projektima još jedan je dobar način potenciranja saradnje među akademcima; znanje tako i očigledno postaje proizvod saradnje a kritička evaluacija (tzv. *peer-review*) rada među saradnicima prilika za napredak i sazrevanje, umesto izvora tenzije i anksioznosti. Takva pedagogija nije ograničena na specifične predmete već je primenjiva na sve univerzitetske programe i studije, budući da humanistički etos ne poznaje granice među disciplinama[7].

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[7] Svakako, u okviru pojedinačnih disciplina moguće je i potrebno razviti posebne silabuse akademskog pisanja prilagođene (tematski, stilski i dr.) njenim konkretnim potrebama.

Takođe, akademsko pisanje treba za studente da postane sredstvo prenošenja aspekata njihovog sopstvenog (rodnog, nacionalnog, kulturnog i dr.) identiteta i sopstvene kulture, koja je često drugačija od kulture njihovih profesora. Zato je neophodno uvesti interpretativnu dimenziju u diskurs kako studenata, tako i profesora. Za akademske zajednice i institucije ta interpretativna dimenzija je od suštinskog značaja; te zajednice i institucije treba da „prepoznaju u studentu aktivnog subjekta sa jedinstvenom istorijom, težnjama i resursima, ali i da razumeju na koji način one doprinose oblikovanju pozicije i uloge studenata u društvu" (Morita, 2009, str. 458).

Interpretativna dimenzija treba da postane element socijalizacije u praksi akademskog pisanja i akademskog diskursa. Ta socijalizacija je proces koji podrazumeva da se u njemu studenti nauče „kako da kompetentno i prikladno učestvuju u diskurzivnim praksama određene akademske zajednice" (Morita, 2009, str. 444), da razumeju vrednosti, pozicije i potrebe različitih (grupa) učesnika u datoj akademskoj zajednici, kao i hijerarhijske odnose moći među njima. Hijerarhijski odnosi u akademskom zajednicama, pak, nisu unapred zadati već dinamički i kontekstualno zavisni, te pojedinci mogu da se suprotstave ili selektivno usvoje dominantne diskurse i strukture moći u svojoj akademskoj zajednici (Benesch, 2000). Dakle, već sam proces upoznavanja i socijalizacije studenata u akademske prakse i diskurse može i treba da bude usmeravan emancipatorskim principima kritičke pedagogije. Kada je u pitanju akademsko pisanje, kao jedna od centralnih praksi univerzitetskog obrazovanja, neophodno je predstaviti je studentima od samog početka kao aktivnost koja podrazumeva interakciju, sinergiju, saradnju, koja je od značaja ne samo za pojedince već i za instituciju (univerzitet) u okviru koje se odvija, za akademsku, pa i za širu društvenu zajednicu.

Dakle, umesto da budu odgajani u pedagogiji koja počiva na merenjima, testiranju, „apolitičnosti" i negiranju kritičkog mišljenja, studentima su potrebni univerzitetsko okruženje i pedagogija koji ih podstiču da se kritički odnose prema „materijalnim odnosima moći i ideološkim silama koje strukturiraju njihov svakodnevni život" (Giroux, 2014, str. 68−69). Kako sva ovde navedena razmatranja pokazuju, akademsko pisanje može biti važno oružje za sprovođenje te obrazovno-društvene agende. Ukoliko se akademsko pisanje organizuje kao kritička, interpretativna i kolaborativna praksa putem koje studenti bivaju ne samo socijalizovani u akademskom diskursu već i uče kako da taj diskurs, kao i znanje koje se kroz njega širi i stvara, kontrolišu i menjaju, tada se u akademskoj zajednici šire principi solidarnosti i saradnje a sama zajednica se oslobađa povlađivanja korporativnim vrednostima (Murray & Moore, 2006).

Zaključak

Univerzitet je jedna od ključnih institucija demokratskog društva, prostor slobode i kritičkog promišljanja, a pedagoške prakse u okviru univerziteta moraju biti „u skladu sa idealom dobrog društva" (Giroux, 2014, str. 64). Međutim, u poslednjih nekoliko decenija, univerzitet i univerzitetske prakse – kako globalno, tako i u našoj zemlji – nalaze se pod stalnim, snažnim i pogubnim uticajem neoliberalizma, globalno dominantnog ekonomskog, političkog i društvenog uređenja, ali i ideologije koja oblikuje sve sfere naših društvenih i privatnih života. Neoliberalne politike, koje se u različitoj meri sprovode globalno, na većini univerziteta dovode do „zamenjivanja međusobne razmene kompetencijom, jednakosti nejednakošću i pretvara(ju) akademsku zajednicu u ljudski kapital" (Berg et al., 2016, str. 1). Međutim, istovremeno sa jačanjem tendencija neoliberalizacije, koje se ogledaju u različitim oblicima privatizacije, komodifikacije i deregulacije javnog obrazovanja, u skladu sa neoliberalnom logikom „slobodnog tržišta", raste i otpor takvim politikama. Kako brojne studije pokazuju, neoliberalizacija univerziteta direktno ugrožava slobodu i demokratiju u društvu (Díez Gutiérrez, 2018; Giroux, 2009, 2014). Zato je borba protiv neoliberalnog, „korporativnog univerziteta" (cf. Giroux, 2009) neposredno povezana sa idejom obrazovanja kao procesa formiranja slobodnih, emancipovanih građana i građanki, sposobnih da kritički promišljaju materijalni i ideološki kontekst svojih ličnih i društvenih života. Drugim rečima, tim negativnim tendencijama u savremenim obrazovnim politikama može se efikasno suprotstaviti specifična pedagogija, ona koja služi kao „kritička intervencija" (Giroux, 2009, str. 64), koja ukazuje na to da obrazovanje nije samo dekontekstualizovan proces prenošenja znanja već i razumevanje okolnosti u kojima se taj proces odigrava, kao i sposobnost da se ono kontroliše, kreira i koristi kao javno dobro. Pedagogija koja ima ovako visoko postavljene ciljeve, koja se rukovodi opštim dobrom i emancipacijom, jeste kritička pedagogija.

Akademsko pisanje, naročito u okviru društveno-humanističkih nauka, značajan je činilac za postizanje ciljeva ovako postavljene agende kritičke pedagogije. Važno je ovu fundamentalnu akademsku aktivnost konstruisati kao kolaborativnu praksu koja će biti svojevrstan vid otpora širenju neoliberalne ideologije u visokom obrazovanju. Naime, ukoliko želimo da obrazovanje ostane opšte, javno dobro i sredstvo za postizanje pravednijeg i inkluzivnog društva, moramo dekolonizovati sve naše akademske prakse od onih politika koje ceo obrazovni proces definišu kroz zakone tržišta i kompetencije, promovišući tako suštinsku nejednakost i svojevrsni društveni darvinizam. Stoga akademsko pisanje treba da bude zasnovano na istim onim principima na kojima treba da počiva celoku-

pno obrazovanje, na svim nivoima: na principima solidarnosti i kolaborativnosti, gde celokupna akademska zajednica promišlja i odlučuje o sadržajima i načinima učenja i podučavanja, vodeći računa ne samo o kompetencijama profesora i studenata već i o celokupnom društvenom, ekonomskom, političkom i afektivnom kontekstu u kojem se obrazovanje odvija. Takav, konstruktivistički pristup obrazovanju uopšte i akademskom pisanju konkretno u službi je stvaranja znanja koje se neprestano stvara i razvija, čime obrazovanje postaje istinski emancipatorsko i zalog stvaranja demokratskog, inkluzivnog i pravednog društva.

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Academic Writing from the Perspective of Critical Pedagogy: A Form of Resistance to Neoliberal Ideology in Higher Education

Abstract: The goal of this paper is to introduce, by pointing out the great influence of the ideology of neoliberalism on certain transformations of modern educational policies, the possible forms of resistance to these policies, relying on the framework of critical pedagogy and focusing on the practice of academic writing on the level of university education. I begin with the premise that it is of vital importance for true democracy that the university becomes and remains the area of emancipation and freedom, not just academic freedom but also freedom of the wider social community. I proceed to explain how and why neoliberalism jeopardizes this important social-historical role of the university. I suggest the principles and agenda of critical pedagogy as a form of resistance to the spread of these harmful policies at the university. In the end, I present the concept of academic writing based on the principles of solidarity and collaboration as an important element of redefining academic practices in accordance with the requirements of critical pedagogy, for the sake of preservation of the humanistic bases of university education.

Key words: critical pedagogy, neoliberalism, higher education, educational policies, academic writing

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Studenti kao kreatori obrazovnog sadržaja u onlajn obrazovanju odraslih[3]

Apstrakt: Da bi bilo uspešno, onlajn obrazovanje mora biti zasnovano na bogatoj interakciji između svih učesnika u obrazovnom procesu. Interakcija na relaciji studenti – obrazovni sadržaj značajna je jer u njoj studenti ostvaruju svoju ulogu kreatora onlajn obrazovnih sadržaja. Da bi se sagledao i razumeo doprinos studenata u kontekstu kreiranja sadržaja onlajn obrazovanja, sprovedeno je kvalitativno istraživanje sa studentima druge i četvrte godine osnovnih studija andragogije na Filozofskom fakultetu u Beogradu, u okviru kursa *Onlajn obrazovanje odraslih*, koji je realizovan putem *Moodle LMS*. U radu je prikazana jedna nastavna jedinica kao primer dobre prakse pozicioniranja studenata u sam centar onlajn obrazovnog procesa. Rezultati istraživanja potvrđuju da interakcijom sa obrazovnim sadržajima studenti bitno doprinose modifikovanju i produkovanju novih obrazovnih sadržaja, pri čemu su identifikovani bitni andragoški momenti koji *virtuelne svetove* pretvaraju u *virtuelna obrazovna okruženja*.

Ključne reči: onlajn obrazovanje, interakcija student – sadržaj obrazovanja, kreiranje onlajn obrazovnog sadržaja, *Moodle LMS*, studije andragogije na Filozofskom fakultetu u Beogradu

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Uvod

Interakcija: suština onlajn obrazovanja odraslih

Najčešći uzroci neuspešnog onlajn obrazovanja u visokoobrazovnom kontekstu proizilaze iz tendencije da se tradicionalne obrazovne postavke implementiraju u onlajn obrazovna okruženja. Preciznije, visokoškolski nastavnici u onlajn obrazovanju često se posmatraju kao nosioci znanja i njihova pojednostavljena uloga ogleda se u tome da znanja prenesu studentima, koji se shvataju kao pasivni usvajači znanja. Takođe, među nastavnicima ne postoji adekvatno razumevanje suštine *sistema za upravljanje učenjem* (*Learning Management Systems – LMS*), kojima se neretko pridaje funkcija *virtuelne oglasne table* (*Virtual Bulletin Board*) sa koje studenti mogu preuzimati opšte informacije ili obrazovne materijale koji se tiču konkretnih onlajn kurseva. Da bi onlajn obrazovanje bilo uspešno i da bi opravdalo svoju fenomenološku, pojmovnu i terminološku suštinu, ono mora biti zasnovano na bogatoj interakciji među svim učesnicima u obrazovnom procesu, a *LMS* moraju biti shvaćeni ne kao prosta tehnološka postavka već kao virtuelno obrazovno okruženje koje nudi širok spektar mogućnosti za razvoj onlajn obrazovne interakcije.

Interakcija između individue i njenog okruženja predstavlja značajnu komponentu obrazovnog procesa. U kontekstu onlajn obrazovanja uočljiv je imperativ prelaska sa tradicionalne jednosmerne transakcije u odnosima između nastavnika i studenata gde je nastavnik u centru interakcionog procesa na savremene postavke koje podržavaju interakciju među učesnicima u obrazovnim aktivnostima, gde je student u centralnom interakcionom položaju (Lazarević, 2008). I u klasičnom i u onlajn obrazovanju postoje tri osnovna tipa interakcije između studenata i drugih činilaca obrazovnog procesa: student–nastavnik, student–student i student–sadržaj (Moore, 1989), kojima se u kontekstu onlajn obrazovanja dodaje i četvrti tip interakcije: student–tehnologija (Ljujić, 2013, 2011; Lazarević, 2008; Anderson, 2003). Bez namere da se umanji značaj bilo kog od pomenutih vidova interakcije, fokus ovog rada je na interakciji koja se u onlajn obrazovanju ostvaruje na relaciji student – sadržaj obrazovanja.

Interakcija student–sadržaj prvenstveno se ostvaruje čitanjem tekstova i drugih izvora ili obavljanjem određenih zadataka, koji su u vezi sa datim sadržajem, dok se rezultat te interakcije ogleda u promenama u razumevanju, perspektivama ili kognitivnim strukturama kod studenata (Moore, 1989). U onlajn obrazovanju, učestvovanje u onlajn diskusijama koje su u vezi sa određenim sadržajem, može da doprinese interakciji student–sadržaj tako da rezultira kreiranjem novog obrazovnog sadržaja. Konstrukcija znanja je pre svega socijalni proces, koji

se ostvaruje putem dijaloga, koji u onlajn obrazovanju može biti olakšan onlajn diskusijama ukoliko su one osmišljene tako da angažuju studente u procesima artikulacije, refleksije i preispitivanja i sopstvenog i tuđeg razumevanja zadatog sadržaja (Haavind, 2006; Jonassen, Davison, Collins, Campbell, & Bannan-Haag, 1995). Na taj način posmatrano, interakcija student–student u onlajn obrazovnom okruženju značajno doprinosi, olakšava i potpomaže interakciju student–sadržaj.

Za razliku od tradicionalnog obrazovanja, u onlajn obrazovanju interakcija između studenata i obrazovnog sadržaja ima drugačije karakteristike koje se, smatra Lazarević (2008), na prvom mestu ogledaju u tome što obrazovni sadržaji nisu kruto definisani i unapred dati već se prilagođavaju individualnim karakteristikama, interesovanjima i potrebama polaznika. Nastavnik zadaje samo inicijalne materijale, a studenti su ti koji aktivnom participacijom u onlajn obrazovnom procesu modifikuju i kreiraju sadržaje obrazovanja. U takvoj situaciji svi učesnici obrazovnog procesa doprinose ostvarivanju opštih obrazovnih ciljeva, pri čemu su nastavnici prevashodno facilitatori i integratori, a studenti oni koji produkuju suštinske ideje o temama koje se obrađuju. Značajno je istaći da su neka ranija istraživanja pokazala da što je veći broj studenata u pojedinim kursevima, interakcija na relaciji student–sadržaj dobija još centralniju ulogu u kontekstu procesa učenja (Murray, Perez, Geist, & Hedrick, 2013).

Svrha ovog rada jeste predstavljanje jedne jedinice učenja koja je obrađena na kursu *Onlajn obrazovanje odraslih* na osnovnim studijama andragogije na Filozofskom fakultetu u Beogradu. Nastavna jedinica koja je u fokusu ovog rada realizovana je putem sistema za upravljanje učenjem *Moodle* i predstavlja primer dobre prakse pozicioniranja studenata u sam centar obrazovnog procesa u onlajn obrazovanju i potvrđuje da u interakciji sa obrazovnim sadržajima u onlajn obrazovanju studenti bitno doprinose modifikovanju i produkovanju novih onlajn obrazovnih sadržaja.

Metodološki okvir

Istraživanje je realizovano sa ciljem da se sagleda i razume doprinos koji studenti imaju u kontekstu kreiranja sadržaja onlajn obrazovanja, odnosno da se sagleda na koji način studenti u interakciji sa obrazovnim sadržajima u onlajn obrazovanju doprinose modifikovanju i produkovanju novih onlajn obrazovnih sadržaja.

Uzorak je činilo šest studenata druge i šest studenata četvrte godine studija andragogije na Filozofskom fakultetu u Beogradu. Istraživanje je sprovedeno u okviru kursa *Onlajn obrazovanje odraslih*, koji je u celini realizovan putem sistema

za upravljanje učenjem *Moodle* na osnovnim studijama andragogije na Filozofskom fakultetu u Beogradu, tokom akademske 2017/2018. godine. Projekat je realizovan u dve faze. U prvoj fazi, u okviru pomenutog kursa, studenti su dobili zadatak koji se odnosi na temu *Virtuelno obrazovno okruženje*, koji je trebalo da rezultira diskusijom u okviru posebnog foruma na *Moodle* platformi. U drugoj fazi, podaci dobijeni u diskusiji objedinjeni su i tematski analizirani. U nastavku rada, detaljnije će biti prikazane obe faze projekta.

Prva faza projekta – *Black Mirror*: andragoške implikacije na virtuelna okruženja

Jedinica učenja koja je u centru pažnje odnosi se na temu *Virtuelno obrazovno okruženje*. Britanska televizijska serija *Black Mirror* (2011 −) pojavila se, iz perspektive nastavnika, kao idealan materijal za vežbu u okviru ove tematske celine na kursu *Onlajn obrazovanje odraslih*. Nastavnici su izabrali tu seriju za analizu zbog toga što je u njoj na neobičan i nesvakidašnji način predstavljena ljudska realnost, mahom u distopijskom maniru u kontekstu upotrebe naprednih tehnologija. Imajući u vidu da sama serija pripada naučnofantastičnom žanru, njena tematika se čini kao pogodno tle za sagledavanje problema virtuelnih obrazovnih okruženja, što, verujemo, postaje jasnije ukoliko se u obzir uzmu andragoške konotacije koncepta „spoznajne začudnosti" Darka Suvina.

Spoznajna začudnost (*cognitive estrangement*) podrazumeva „činjenično izveštavanje o fikcijama". Suvin ističe da naučna fantastika polazi od fikcijske pretpostavke koja se dalje razvija naučnom strogošću, stvarajući novo gledište koje podrazumeva novi skup pravila, odnosno predstavlja „imaginativni okvir alternativan autorovoj empiričkoj okolini" (Suvin, 2010, str. 41). Dakle, naučna fantastika je alternativni imaginarni univerzum koji se razvija kroz kognitivnu, „naučnu" strogost. Ovde je reč o značajnom odvajanju ili „začudnosti" od uobičajene percepcije ili pretpostavki o realnosti (Nodelman, 1981). Koncept začudnosti počiva na Brehtovom razumevanju prikaza koji začuđuje kao prikaza koji nam omogućava da prepoznamo njegov predmet, ali tako da nam se on istovremeno čini nepoznatim. Suvin se koristi tim konceptom kako bi objasnio način na koji se u naučnoj fantastici opisuju nepoznate stvari kao da su poznate, pa je začudan pogled istovremeno i spoznajan i stvaralački (Suvin, 2010). U naučnoj fantastici se otuđujemo od naših pretpostavki o realnosti i primorani smo da ih preispitujemo (Nodelman, 1981), a spoznajna začudnost koja postoji i kod stvaraoca i kod nas kao publike (u različitim formama) pruža nam potencijal da kroz naučnofantastične sadržaje kritički sagledavamo različite aspekte savremenog sve-

ta, nijednog trenutka ne zanemarujući izvor i kontekst naučne imaginacije koju autor unosi u delo (Suvin, 1979, prema Stewart, 2010). Drugim rečima, svojim konceptom „spoznajne začudnosti" Suvin pravi paralelu između naučne fantastike, s jedne strane, i empirijskog okruženja, s druge strane. Dakle, autor živi u jednom svetu (koji je realan) i u svom naučnofantastičnom delu stvara jedan novi imaginarni svet, polazi od fikcije, ali se koristi naučnim načelima kako bi izgradio taj novi svet koji karakterišu neka nova pravila (autorova spoznajna začudnost). Odatle potreba da se otuđimo od realnosti kakvu poznajemo i preispitujemo je. Naučnofantastični sadržaji se posmatraju kao elementi alternativnog univerzuma izgrađenog po naučnim načelima, čijoj interpretaciji pristupamo uz otuđivanje od naših pretpostavki o realnosti i uz preispitivanje, a sve to u kontekstu datog dela i naše interpretacije imaginarnog sveta koji je autor stvorio (kognitivna začudnost nas kao publike).

Sve rečeno ukazuje na nekoliko značajnih andragoških konotacija naučne fantastike posmatrane u kontekstu Suvinovog koncepta „spoznajne začudnosti". *Prvo*, delovanjem principa spoznajne začudnosti naučnofantastični sadržaji podstiču nastanak novih uvida (kako kod autora naučnofantastičnih dela, tako i kod konzumenata – publike). *Drugo*, naučnofantastični sadržaji su produkt autorovog kreativnog rada, ali i pokretač stvaralačkog delovanja publike. *Treće*, u susretu sa naučnofantastičnim sadržajima publika uči o realnom svetu i najrazličitijim principima delovanja u njemu. *Četvrto*, spoznajna začudnost publike u susretu sa naučnofantastičnim sadržajem provocira kritički odnos prema relevantnim i aktuelnim problemima, što prepoznajemo kao bitan činilac svakog učenja, obrazovanja i razvoja uopšte.

U seriji *Black Mirror* evidentno je prožimanje Suvinovih koncepata začudnosti i spoznaje. Dešavanja u seriji smeštena su u, bez sumnje, imaginarna okruženja, ali ono što je čini posebno neobičnom i, slobodno se može reći, spektakularnom, jeste način na koji su u njoj realna životna okruženja isprepletana sa fiktivnim momentima. Dilema koja se konstantno javlja (u većoj ili manjoj meri) odnosi se na to šta je normalno ili uobičajeno životno okruženje u kome likovi deluju – da li ono koje je blisko realnim i živim odnosima koje karakteri uspostavljaju sa drugima ili ono koje je definisano neopipljivim, paralelnim, virtuelnim faktorima. Preplitanje stvarnog i virtuelnog toliko je kompleksno dizajnirano da gledaoce potpuno utapa u zamišljeni svet koji je reprezentovan serijskim događajima i neretko zadaje glavobolje u pokušajima da se napravi razgraničenje između realnosti i njenog virtuelnog ekvivalenta ili dodatka. Drugim rečima, prateći likove, događaje, ponašanja i odnose, lako se upada u zamke iluzije i deluzije, nikada nema sigurnosti po pitanju toga gde je granica između stvarnosti i imaginacije, koje od ta dva prethodi onome drugome, šta se na čemu gradi i nadograđuje,

koja linija (realna ili izmišljena) definiše celokupnu situaciju i atmosferu serijskih dešavanja.

Zadatak u okviru pomenute jedinice učenja podrazumevao je da studenti pogledaju makar jednu epizodu serije *Black Mirror*, a da potom započnu diskusiju u okviru posebnog foruma na *Moodle* platformi. Nastavnici su preporučili studentima kognitivno angažovanje radi razumevanja osobina ličnosti ključnih likova, njihovog ponašanja, odnosa sa drugima, situacija u kojima se nalaze, postupaka i odluka koje likovi donose, uzroka i posledica njihovog delovanja, opštih karakteristika i specifičnosti okruženja u kojima likovi žive i deluju iz *andragoškog ugla*. Iz ovih opštih uvida trebalo je izvući konkretnije implikacije koje bi se odnosile na virtuelna obrazovna okruženja, uz oslanjanje na reference kao što su:

- karakteristike učesnika (položaj, osobine ličnosti, bihevioralni obrasci, uloge, donošenje odluka...);
- opšti socijalni elementi okruženja (socijalna bliskost, socijalna alijenacija);
- komunikacione i interakcione relacije (vrste, karakteristike, elementi, sfere uticaja...);
- prostorno-vremenske dimenzije okruženja (bliskost, udaljenost...);
- mogućnosti za istraživanje, baratanje, operisanje elementima okruženja;
- naseljivost okruženja – društveno-kulturne postavke na različitim nivoima (mikro, mezo, makro);
- uzročno-posledični elementi participacije u okruženjima;
- kompleksnost i činioci kompleksnosti okruženja;
- (ne)koherentnost okruženja i relevantni činioci;
- etika i estetika okruženja i sl.

Druga faza projekta – produkt ostvarene interakcije studenata sa sadržajem

I pored kompleksnosti i izražene apstraktnosti teme koja se obrađivala u okviru jedinice učenja koja je u centru pažnje i jednostavnih instrukcija koje su došle od nastavnika, čini se da su zanimljivost, prijemčivost i originalnost materijala za vežbu odigrali ključnu ulogu u motivisanju studenata na aktivnost, dolaženju do konkretnih rezultata i ostvarenju cilja onlajn jedinice učenja. Diskusija je trajala sedam dana i u njoj je učestvovalo dvanaest studenata. Bilo je ukupno dvadeset i šest komentara, od kojih je većina bila veoma detaljna i iscrpna. Studenti su se nadovezivali na različite lične senzacije koje je materijal za vežbu imao na njih

(nove uvide, refleksije, emocionalna stanja, konekcije sa stvarnim životom i ličnim iskustvima, potvrde o osvešćivanju o novim perspektivama na problematiku virtuelnih svetova i njihovih obrazovnih implikacija i tome slično). Stiče se utisak da je bilo neophodno malo vremena dok komentari nisu počeli da pristižu. Međutim, kada je proces komentarisanja otpočeo, nastavio je da se odvija prilično lako i kvalitetno. Zabeležena je samo jedna intervencija nastavnika od kojeg su tražena dodatna pojašnjenja. Pojedini studenti su se, prilikom koncipiranja sopstvenih komentara, nadovezivali na odgovore svojih kolega, podstičući dijalog i razmenu mišljenja i čineći celokupan proces kompletnijim i dubljim. Nakon isteka predviđenog roka za diskusiju, nastavnik je integrisao komentare studenata nadovezujući se na delove iz relevantne literature, što je u izvesnom smislu upotpunilo i zaokružilo rad u okviru pomenute nastavne jedinice.

　　　Na taj način su studentska diskusija i veliki broj komentara sa foruma uobličeni u jedinstvenu celinu, tematski analizirani i potkrepljeni rezultatima ranijih teorijskih i empirijskih istraživanja. Drugim rečima, studentski komentari nisu predstavljali ništa drugo do novonastale kreativne sadržaje onlajn obrazovanja koji su produkt ostvarene interakcije između studenata i nestrukturiranog obrazovnog sadržaja koji im je ponuđen u vidu inicijalnog materijala za vežbu (serija *Black Mirror*). Dakle, potvrđeno je da u kontekstu onlajn obrazovne interakcije na relaciji student – sadržaj obrazovanja nastavnik ima prevashodno *inicijalnu* i *integrativnu* ulogu u onlajn obrazovanju, a studenti su *aktivni modifikatori* i *kreatori* sadržaja obrazovanja.

　　　U interakciji sa naučnofantastičnim sadržajem, studenti su manifestovali ranije razmatranu „spoznajnu začudnost" – pomeranje od svojih pretpostavki o realnosti i preispitivanje realnosti prikazane u seriji sa ciljem da ukažu na implikacije koje se odnose na virtuelna obrazovna okruženja, a sve to putem novih spoznaja, kreativnog angažovanja i kritičkog odnosa prema pomenutom sadržaju. U okviru onlajn jedinice učenja *Virtuelno obrazovno okruženje*, studenti su zaključili da osim toga što nove tehnologije predstavljaju podršku i sredstvo optimalizacije življenja u stvarnom svetu, one čine i *osnovu* za nastanak novih oblika udruživanja i socijalnog življenja – virtuelnih svetova/okruženja. Takođe, stavili su naglasak na to da nove tehnologije predstavljaju *podršku, sredstvo i osnovu* jer bez socijalnog momenta, koji podrazumeva namerno delovanje i akciju, kao i virtuelnu komunikaciju i interakciju koja se odvija posredstvom njih, one ostaju samo neiskorišćene, individualno i socijalno *bezvredne tvorevine*. Dakle, nema smisla poistovećivati *LMS* sa virtuelnim obrazovnim okruženjima kao što to čine neki autori (Fee, 2009; Holmes & Gardner, 2006) jer su pomenuti sistemi tehnološke osnove koje, posmatrane izvan socijalno-komunikaciono-interakcionog

konteksta, ostaju neiskorišćene tvorevine nastale kao posledice ljudskih potreba – *slobodnolebdeće tehnologije*. Tek kada se putem njih ostvare socijalna komunikacija i interakcija, oni pretenduju da postanu virtuelna obrazovna okruženja. *Ukratko, o jednakosti, sinonimnom značenju termina i istovetnosti fenomena „LMS" i „virtuelno obrazovno okruženje" može se govoriti tek nakon uvođenja socijalno-komunikaciono-interakcionog momenta u razmatranje njihovog odnosa.*

Karakteristike virtuelnih obrazovnih okruženja

U interakciji sa sadržajem u okviru onlajn jedinice učenja *Virtuelno obrazovno okruženje*, studenti su identifikovali bitne andragoške momente koji *virtuelne svetove* o kojima govori Pearce (2009) zapravo pretvaraju u *virtuelna obrazovna okruženja*. U nastavku će biti istaknuti pojedini studentski komentari[4] potkrepljeni viđenjima pomenutog autora, koji su svedočanstva prethodne konstatacije. Naime, tematskom analizom dobijenog sadržaja koji su kreirali studenti, identifikovano je nekoliko karakteristika virtuelnih svetova koje imaju andragoške implikacije u onlajn obrazovanju. One su sledeće:

- prostornost,
- prostorno-vremenska bliskost,
- istraživost,
- trajnost,
- stabilnost identiteta „stanovnika" virtuelnih svetova,
- naseljivost,
- posledična participativnost,
- naseljenost i
- kompletnost.

Virtuelni svetovi su prostorni (*spatial*). Pearce (2009) navodi da *virtuelni svetovi* podrazumevaju prostor (*spatial*) – u svojoj suštini oni su prostorni, a prostor može biti definisan grafičkim, tekstualnim ili hibridnim reprezentacijama virtuelnog prostora. Ta karakteristika je posebno zanimljiva sa aspekta ponašanja stanovnika u tim svetovima. Manipulišući prostorom i u prostoru, participanti zapravo razvijaju forme ponašanja. Očigledna je saznajno-obrazovna implikacija delovanja u virtuelnim okruženjima koja se reflektuje na informalno, slučajno, usputno učenje, ali i na mogućnosti sistematskog i ciljanog stavljanja odraslih u

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[4] Radi poštovanja anonimnosti, uz priložene komentare respondenata u istraživanju nisu dati podaci koji na bilo koji način ukazuju na njihov identitet. Komentari su označeni slovom „S" i rednim brojem koji komentar zauzima u tekstu.

virtuelne prostore kako bi razvijali veštine iz različitih sfera – time bi se virtuelna okruženja zapravo pretvarala u virtuelna obrazovna okruženja.

> Studentski komentar (S1, 2. godina): „...nagomilavanje različitih virtuelnih resursa u obrazovanju bez promišljanja ne dovodi do efekata već udaljava od njih... takođe, izloženost velikom broju informacija i raznim sadržajima zahteva kritičnost prema istima, zbog toga je potrebno negovati i podsticati *razvoj kritičkog mišljenja*, zahvaljujći tome mogle bi se donositi ispravne odluke o vrsti, načinu i meri korišćenja tehnologije, kao i o adekvatnom odabiru sadržaja. Virtuelni svet ne treba da zameni realnost već *da nam pomogne u nekim segmentima realnog života, ali nikako da nas udalji od njega*...".

Virtuelne svetove karakteriše unutrašnja prostorno-vremenska bliskost (*contiguous*). Virtuelni svetovi odaju utisak geografske povezanosti i jedinstva, odnosno poseduju prostorni kontinuitet. Pojedini svetovi obezbeđuju konceptualnu povezanost različitim fikcionim konstruktima. Ta bliskost otvara mogućnosti implementacije različitih obrazovnih sadržaja u dizajn virtuelnih svetova kojim se oni mogu staviti na dohvat ruke odraslim stanovnicima. Obligatornost njihovog korišćenja determinisana je namerom dizajnera – virtuelni svet postaje obrazovni ukoliko se prostorno-vremenska bliskost putem dizajna stavi u funkciju obrazovanja odraslih (Pearce, 2009).

> Studentski komentar (S2, 4. godina): „...*tehnologije nam pružaju mogućnosti, ali nas i ograničavaju* – ljudi počinju da se ponašaju u određenim obrascima koje nisu voljni da menjaju... zaključak bi bio da *ljudi zaista moraju da nauče da balansiraju virtuelno i realnost*... tehnologija sve više napreduje i oni koji je proizvode (koji imaju moć) nastoje da ljudima nametnu potrebu za njihovim proizvodima, a sve češća upotreba virtuelnog, odnosno npr. društvenih mreža koje 'spajaju ljude' zapravo dovodi do njihovog odvajanja i izolovanosti. Zbog toga je taj balans neophodan jer *tehnologija nam donosi mnoge koristi, ali svakako ne smemo da dozvolimo da zavlada nama*...".

Virtuelni svetovi su dostupni istraživanju i ispitivanju (*explorable*). Ta karakteristika virtuelnih svetova značajno je uslovljena prethodnom. Stanovnici tih svetova mogu se neograničeno kretati, u okvirima ponuđenih mogućnosti. Kretanje kroz svetove nadograđuje iskustvo odraslih stanovnika istovremeno omogućavajući praktikovanje prethodnih iskustava koje oni unose u svetove (Pearce, 2009). U tome se ogleda andragoška naklonjenost virtuelnih svetova – oni (virtuelni

svetovi) uvažavaju iskustva odraslih, i postojeća i ona nastajuća. Takođe, virtuelni svetovi predstavljaju okruženja u kojima se može iskustveno učiti kroz aktivno eksperimentisanje sa potencijalno obrazovnim elementima i sadržajima.

> Studentski komentari (S3, 4. godina): „...(u seriji) softver je taj koji uči i prilagođava se za vreme radnje, nadgleda moždanu aktivnost i pokušava da smisli kako najbolje da vas preplaši prilagođavajući se vašim iskustvima“. „Slično softveru, i andragozi su ti koji u obrazovanju odraslih 'nadgledaju' i koriste *životna iskustva odraslih polaznika*, prilagođavajući tako obrazovne sadržaje i uzimajući u obzir ono što odrasli već znaju i sa čime su se susreli. Iz svega toga mi se čini da je najefikasnija vrsta učenja u ovakvom okruženju *učenje iz iskustva*...“ (S4, 2. godina).

Virtuelni svetovi su trajni (*persistent*) – jednako kao i realni svet, postoje neprekidno, aktivnosti unutar njih su kumulativne, omogućujući stanovnicima da održavaju i razvijaju sopstveni karakter u svakoj novoj poseti svetu (Pearce, 2009). Sama trajnost omogućava permanentnost i celoživotnost saznavanja i obrazovanja ukoliko su virtuelni svetovi dizajnirani makar i u maloj meri tako da imaju obrazovnu funkciju. Dakle, po sredi je još jedna andragoška implikacija virtuelnih zajednica.

> Studentski komentar (S5, 4. godina): „...smatram da je važno dovesti tehnološka dostignuća u dodir sa čovekom u onom nivou u kojem čovek još uvek vlada njima i može u potpunosti *da kontroliše proces* u kom se zatekao, *bilo da je u pitanju igrica ili obrazovni proces*, što jeste jedan od naših zadataka (kao andragoga) – *prilagoditi tehnologiju procesu učenja*. Možda je i suvišno reći koliko bi pozitivnih ishoda moglo da proistekne iz situacije kada bi se ovakvi uređaji koristili u svrhu sticanja većeg znanja tokom *čitavog životnog veka*...“.

Stanovnici virtuelnih svetova imaju otelotvorene stabilne identitete (*embodied persistent identities*). Kako navodi Pearce (2009), virtuelni svetovi podrazumevaju reprezentacije stanovnika u vidu avatara, te se oni pojavljuju kao treća lica. Međutim, odnos između stanovnika i avatara je kompleksan problem na čijem se razumevanju tek radi. Kompleksnost proističe iz istovremenog višedimenzionalnog postojanja u realnim i virtuelnim svetovima, svesti o fizičkom i virtuelnom postojanju, maglovitosti preplitanja ta dva oblika egzistencije. Dakle, virtuelni svetovi su okruženja u kojima se na neki način uči i o samom sebi, dešava samospoznaja na više nivoa, u više domena. Ovde valja spomenuti samo u kratkim crtama da Ja-

mes Paul Gee virtuelne svetove kompjuterske igre smatra transformativnim, pa u izvesnom smislu i bazom za realizaciju tzv. transformativnog učenja odraslih, jer u njima pojedinac menja svoj lični identitet (Gee, 2008). Pomenuti autor značajan deo razmatranja u svojoj knjizi *What video games have to teach us about learning and literacy* posvećuje tipologiji identiteta u virtuelnim svetovima (Ljujić, 2017). On identifikuje postojanje tri vrste identiteta koje individua manifestuje u činu kompjuterske igre, pa i generalno u svom ponašanju u virtuelnim (simuliranim) svetovima. To su *virtuelni identitet* (odnosi se na identitet lika u čiju se ulogu pojedinac stavlja tokom igranja), *realni identitet* (predstavlja identitet individue koji ona demonstrira u realnom svetu, to jest stvarnom životu) i *projektivni identitet* (koji predstavlja izvesnu mešavinu prethodna dva identiteta i odnosi se na ono što igrač kao nosilac stavova i vrednosti iz realnog sveta želi da prenese, odnosno projektuje na lika čiju ulogu igra u virtuelnom svetu igre). U preplitanju tih identiteta i njihovom aktuelizovanju dešavaju se promene u svakom od njih. Te promene nisu konačne, nemaju svoju krajnju tačku, pre su razvojne i permanentne. Iz svega rečenog, sasvim je očigledna još jedna andragoška implikacija koja se odnosi na virtuelne svetove/okruženja.

> Studentski komentar (S6, 4. godina): „...globalno gledano, virtuelni i realan život se zaista razlikuju... mi težimo da sebe predstavimo na najbolji mogući način i time sakrivamo ono što ne želimo da drugi vide... to je neki naš način kojim doprinosimo svom samopouzdanju i želimo da verujemo da smo baš takva osoba koja je prikazana na našem veb-profilu... ali, uprkos tome, više smo okrenuti ka tome da se ponašamo na određen način i da se usmerimo na menjanje tog profila, nego *da se koncentrišemo na rađenje na svom životu i na sebi, što bi doprinelo da i naš virtuelni ja bude mnogo zanimljiviji*...“.

Virtuelni svetovi su naseljivi (*inhabitable*). Pearce (2009) smatra da su virtuelni svetovi dostupni naseljavanju i participaciji, što znači da je pojedinac slobodan da postane deo virtuelnog sveta, da živi u njemu i aktivno doprinosi razvoju njegove kulture. Samim tim što je slobodan da ga naseli, pojedinac je slobodan da odabere na koji način će koristiti njegove opšte, pa i obrazovne potencijale. Sloboda pristupa je potpuno u skladu sa negovanjem principa poštovanja individualnih razlika koje se pripisuju odraslim učenicima. Tako, ukoliko je virtuelni svet zasnovan na obrazovnim namerama, on je sasvim adekvatno virtuelno obrazovno okruženje za odrasle.

> Studentski komentar (S7, 4. godina): „...postoje mogućnosti učenja iz virtuelnog sveta... slobodno donošenje odluka u virtuelnim

svetovima i njihove posledice zaslužne su za *uviđanje ličnih grešaka, osvešćivanje neispravnosti postupaka i buđenje težnje ka promeni ponašanja*. Naravno, tome prethodi *donošenje odluke* da se virtuelnom svetu uopšte pristupi...".

Virtuelni svetovi podrazumevaju participaciju sa posledicama (*consequential participation*). Prisustvo stanovnika je zaista deo funkcionisanja sveta i iskustva drugih stanovnika (Pearce, 2009). Već više puta je spomenuto da su u onlajn obrazovanju svi učesnici odgovorni za njegovu realizaciju i kreaciju. Prema tome, u rukama odraslih je to da li će od virtuelnog okruženja napraviti obrazovno okruženje i kakve će biti specifičnosti takvog novonastalog virtuelnog obrazovnog okruženja. Dakle, virtuelni svetovi/okruženja predstavljaju idealne prostore za plasman onlajn obrazovnih aktivnosti za odrasle.

Studentski komentar (S8, 2. godina): „...želim da verujem da naš, andragoški obrazac podrazumeva specifičan način rezonovanja, humanost, kritičko razmatranje, maksimalnu produktivnost, pronalaženje najboljih rešenja, razvijanje naših potencijala... želim da verujem da oni predstavljaju osnovu za budućnost, a ne tehnologija... da se ogradim i da kažem da ne smatram da je tehnologija u potpunosti loša, mislim da ima svoje benefite, ali se oni previše naglašavaju, a mane previđaju... *ovde uskaču andragozi koji svojim veštinama mogu ukazati na potencijalne poteškoće koje se vezuju za tehnologiju i njen razvojni tok i koju većina posmatra kroz ružičaste naočare...*".

Virtuelni svetovi su naseljeni (*populous*). Ta karakteristika virtuelnih svetova podrazumeva da u njima može stanovati gotovo neograničen broj stanovnika (Pearce, 2009), što je jedan od preduslova za socijalno učenje, pa i učenje i obrazovanje uopšte. Iako se može odvijati i samostalno, obrazovanje često, makar i implicitno, podrazumeva uključenost više strana, a makar dve su dovoljne da bi se moglo govoriti o *socijalnoj situaciji*. Naseljenost i prisustvo drugih ljudi u svojim *virtuelnim izdanjima* pruža šansu za saznajnu, iskustvenu i obrazovnu razmenu u virtuelnim okruženjima.

Studentski komentari: „...tu su pitanja posedovanja moći, relacije između socijalne bliskosti i socijalne alijenacije, neka etička pitanja... mislim da se deo o socijalnoj bliskosti i otuđenju može primeniti na obrazovni aspekt (*na primer, u smislu da nikako ne treba odbaciti živi kontakt sa ljudima*)..." (S9, 2. godina); „...da li smo se svi *udaljili jedni od drugih zbog tehnologija ili su nas zapravo one približile?*... jer, znamo da odrasli participiraju u procesu obrazovanja i

učenja da bi se i *družili, proširili svoj krug poznanika, upoznali bolju/ lepšu polovinu*, čak i u onlajn okruženju i obrazovanju...“ (S10, 4. godina).

Virtuelni svetovi predstavljaju kompletne svetove (*Worldness*). To znači da virtuelni svetovi podrazumevaju koherentnost, kompletnost i konzistentnost u okruženju virtuelnog sveta, estetike i pravila. Da bi se očuvao osećaj kompletnosti svetova, neophodno je da postoje karakteristična estetika sveta, sintaksa, vokabular i okvir koji je pogodan za proširivanje, koji je održiv i robustan (Pearce, 2009). Dakle, virtuelna okruženja su potencijalna obrazovna okruženja u kojima se može ostvarivati učenje o drugim kulturama, usvajanje i razvijanje individualnih i socijalnih vrednosti i stavova, graditi estetska senzibilnost u zajedničkom delovanju sa drugim stanovnicima. *Svetskost* pruža šansu za stvaranje jedinstvenog sveta koji nije ograničen vremenskim i prostornim barijerama i više nego bilo koji fenomen poseduje potencijal približavanja ljudi u kulturnom, socijalnom, vrednosnom smislu – nudi šansu, ukoliko je sa tom namerom osmišljen, za približavanje ljudi bez obzira na njihove različitosti i bez obzira na domen iz kog potiču.

> Studentski komentari: „...možda bi neki obrazovni zaključak koji se tiče onlajn obrazovanja bio taj da, ukoliko bi obrazovanje nesmotreno i neplanski implementiralo informaciono-komunikacione tehnologije u svoj proces, moglo bi da dođe do katastrofalnih posledica po sve članove društva. S druge strane, mislim da može da postoji sličan scenario, manje drastičan, koji bi mogao da prikaže svet u kome bi se *informaciono-komunikacione tehnologije koristile na pravi način za obrazovni proces* i na taj način doprinele apsolutnom blagostanju svih članova društva. Smatram da bi i to bila naučna fantastika, ali sa dobrom osnovom na kojoj počiva...“ (S11, 2. godina); „... znajući da *tehnologija ima mogućnost da unapredi proces učenja, ona može imati i negativne strane*... zbog toga smatram da tehnologiju treba koristiti u obrazovne svrhe, ali u dovoljnoj meri, pošto ukoliko smatramo da jedino ona ima najveći učinak u samom procesu učenja, onda neće doći do bilo kakvog napretka, a ni do efikasnog korišćenja tehnologije u obrazovnom procesu, što bi moglo da ima negativne posledice širokih razmera...“ (S12, 2. godina).

Studentski komentari i diskusija u okviru onlajn jedinice učenja *Virtuelno obrazovno okruženje*, u čijoj je osnovi bila njihova interakcija sa onlajn obrazovnim sadržajima, rezultirala je (kao što se može videti iz prethodno rečenog) kvalitativno i kvantitativno novim onlajn obrazovnim sadržajima. Sumirano, oni

ukazuju na sledeće: život u virtuelnim svetovima ima svoje posebnosti, a participacija u njima nosi specifične kvalitete, koji, pak, mogu imati direktne refleksije na sve sfere realnog življenja savremenog čoveka. Tako, življenjem u virtuelnim svetovima čovek proširuje okvir mogućnosti u kome može da razvija svoje potencijale. Naravno, tom problemu treba pristupiti *oprezno*, na *adekvatan način*, uz očuvanje *andragoških ideala* (*težnje ka permanentnom svestranom razvoju, uspostavljanju kritičnosti, ostvarenju humanosti, obogaćivanju socijalnih motiva i vrednosti*). Ovi navodi mogu se dopuniti viđenjima koja iznose Jones & Bronack (2008), a prenose ih Kačavenda Radić, Nikolić Maksić i Ljujić (2011), prema kojima se u virtuelnim svetovima mogu uspostavljati i ispitivati ne samo segmentarni oblici ponašanja neophodni sa aspekta rešavanja konkretnih problema već se mogu proveravati i globalna rešenja iz različitih domena (testiranje novih svetskih poredaka, funkcionisanja različitih društvenih sistema i sl.). Virtuelni svetovi su pogodna okruženja u kojima se odvija kvalitetno učenje. U okviru njih znanje se kreira i prenosi putem socijalne interakcije, učenje je participatorno, a učenici su aktivni, razvoj se dešava u stadijumima, u međuodnosu saučesnika sa različitim nivoima iskustva, znanje nastaje u zajedničkoj smislenoj aktivnosti sa drugima i ono je u vezi sa praksom koja vlada u zajednici.

Zaključak

Studentsko angažovanje: ključ održivosti onlajn obrazovanja

Čini se da je opisana jedinica učenja u okviru predmeta *Onlajn obrazovanje odraslih* koji je realizovan na Filozofskom fakultetu u Beogradu na osnovnim studijama andragogije primer dobre prakse pozicioniranja studenata u sam centar obrazovnog procesa u onlajn obrazovanju. Ovaj primer je potvrdio da interakcija studenata sa obrazovnim sadržajima u onlajn obrazovanju bitno doprinosi modifikovanju i kreiranju onlajn obrazovnih sadržaja. Transparentnom interakcijom studenata sa obrazovnim sadržajima ne samo da se potvrđuju ustanovljena znanja i činjenice već nastaju i sasvim nove spoznaje kod svih učesnika u onlajn obrazovanju i u kvalitativnom i u kvantitativnom smislu. Aktivno angažovanje studenata garantuje kreativne rezultate na osnovu kojih svi uče u onlajn obrazovnom kontekstu, a razmimoilaženje između procesa podučavanja i učenja se gubi. Na osnovu svega rečenog, može se zaključiti da nema održivog i suštinskog onlajn obrazovanja ukoliko student u interakciji sa onlajn obrazovnim sadržajima ne zauzme aktivnu i stvaralačku ulogu, pokazujući time spremnost na preuzimanje odgovornosti za permanentan lični rast i razvoj.

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Students as Creators of Educational Content in Online Adult Education[7]

Abstract: Online education must be based on a rich interaction between all participants in the educational process in order to be successful. The interaction between students and educational content is important since it enables students actualize their role as creators of online educational content. For the purpose of understanding students' contribution in the context of creating online educational content, a qualitative research with students of the 2nd and the 4th year of basic andragogy studies was conducted at the Faculty of Philosophy in Belgrade within the Online Adult Education course implemented through the Moodle LMS. The paper describes one teaching unit as an example of good practice of positioning students at the very center of the online educational process. Research results confirm that by interacting with educational content students significantly contribute to the modification and production of new educational content. Important andragogical moments that transform *virtual worlds* into *virtual educational environments* were identified as a result of this interaction.

Key words: online education, interaction between students and educational content, creation of online educational content, Moodle LMS, studies of Andragogy at the Faculty of Philosophy in Belgrade

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Primena koncepta BYOD – *Bring Your Own Device* (Donesi svoj sopstveni uređaj) u industriji i obrazovanju – implikacije za promenu prakse univerziteta[3]

Apstrakt: Razvojem mobilne tehnologije dogodile su se fundamentalne promene u svim sferama čovekovog delanja. U obrazovanju se razvijaju nove metode učenja „na daljinu", među kojima se posebno izdvaja „m-učenje" (učenje pomoću mobilnih uređaja). Imajući u vidu da su mobilni uređaji jedan od oblika tehnologije koji se najbrže razvija, prepoznat je značaj njihove asistencije u procesu nastave i učenja. Cilj rada je predstavljanje koncepta *Bring Your Own Device* (*BYOD*) u kontekstu industrije i obrazovanja, kao jednog primera disruptivne tehnologije. Ovaj koncept podrazumeva da studenti donesu sopstvene mobilne uređaje u učionicu i koriste ih kao sredstvo prilikom učenja. Deskriptivnom metodom i analizom relevantne literature autorke u radu, na temelju kritičke analize pozitivnih i negativnih posledica njegove primene, redefinisanih pozicija nastavnika i studenata u procesu nastave i promenjenog dizajna učenja, ističu implikacije za promenu univerzitetske prakse.

Ključne reči: m-učenje, BYOD, disruptivna tehnologija, visoko obrazovanje

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Uvod

Pojava mobilne tehnologije izazvala je fundamentalne promene u načinu funkcionisanja skoro svih delatnosti ljudskog rada. Revolucionarni odjek nastupa pojavom interneta, koji je doprineo razvoju tehnologija koje pomeraju granice između fizičke i digitalne sfere. Krajem devedesetih godina XX veka javili su se pojmovi održive i disruptivne tehnologije (eng. *sustaining and disruptive technology*), koji danas dobijaju sve veću popularnost. Održive tehnologije su one čiji je cilj da poboljšaju već postojeće proizvode, ne kreirajući pritom novo tržište ili upotrebne vrednosti, dok je cilj disruptivnih tehnologija da kreiraju novo tržište i upotrebnu vrednost za proizvode, pritom ometajući već postojeće (Christensen, 1997). Na činjenicu da se modeli tehnologije ubrzano menjaju ukazuje i Stavert (Stavert, 2013), koji smatra da su te promene vidljive u procesu prelaska sa računarskih laboratorija na podloške za učenje, primenom laptop i drugih prenosivih računara i programa mobilne tehnologije. Ti pomaci se u velikoj meri pripisuju sociokulturnim uticajima na primenu tehnologije (Kearney, Burden, & Rai, 2015). Jedan od koncepata primene disruptivne tehnologije poznat je pod nazivom *Bring Your Own Device* (u prevodu: donesi svoj sopstveni uređaj − u daljem tekstu *BYOD*). Prevashodno namenjen za industrijske svrhe, taj koncept je svoj put pronašao u visokom obrazovanju, gde studenti kao pomoć u učenju koriste sopstvene mobilne uređaje. Imajući u vidu da su se mobilni uređaji proširili neviđenom brzinom u protekloj deceniji i da je mobilna industrija jedna od najnaprednijih tehnologija, dolazi do ekspanzije njihove primene, naročito u obrazovanju. Koncept *BYOD* je vrlo interesantan za trenutnu obrazovnu klimu upravo zbog mogućnosti pristupa tehnologiji, po sistemu jedan na jedan, za sve studente (Cardoza & Tunks, 2014). Koristeći model *BYOD*, studenti koriste sopstvene mobilne uređaje na slične načine kao i druge obrazovne resurse, kao što su knjige (Falloon, 2015).

U nastavku rada biće najpre izloženi i objašnjeni pojmovi održive i disruptivne tehnologije, a biće sagledane i njihove pozicije u industrijskom i obrazovnom kontekstu. Kao rezultat ubrzanog razvoja mobilne industrije nastaje novi vid učenja na daljinu pod nazivom mobilno učenje (u daljem tekstu m-učenje), čiji se razvoj i aspekti primene analiziraju u radu, kao dodatno teorijsko uporište za koncept *BYOD*. U radu se nastoje prikazati osnovni principi funkcionisanja tog koncepta, sa fokusom na njegov nastanak i razvoj. S tim u vezi, isticanjem pozitivnih i negativnih ishoda njegove primene, kritičkim razmatranjem dometa i ograničenja i sumiranjem uslova neophodnih za njegovu uspešnu implementaciju nastoji se prikazati celokupna slika ovog koncepta. Implikacije koje njegova primena ima na univerzitetski kontekst i pozicije nastavnika i studenata u procesu

nastave i učenja pružaju osnovu za razvoj potencijalnih, budućih istraživanja u ovom domenu visokoškolskog obrazovanja.

Disruptivne tehnologije u obrazovanju

Teorijsko pozicioniranje koncepta *BYOD* nalazi se u teoriji disruptivne tehnologije (eng. *disruptive technologies*). Tvorac sintagme disruptivne tehnologije je Klejton Kristensen (Clayton Christensen), profesor menadžmenta sa Univerziteta Harvard. Kristenesen je sa saradnicima 1995. godine izneo teoriju o disruptivnim tehnologijama i inovacijama, koja se brzo uvrstila u rečnik digitalnog sveta. U Oksfordskom rečniku pojam „disrupcija" se objašnjava kao „problem ili smetnja koja ometa neki događaj, aktivnost ili proces", dok je „disruptivan" sinonim za „inovativan, revolucionaran" (English Oxford Living Dictionaries, 2019). Kristensen konstruiše dualizam između disruptivnih i održivih tehnologija (eng. *sustaining technologies*) sa ciljem definisanja pojmova. Cilj održivih tehnologija je da poboljšaju performanse postojećih proizvoda, pritom ne kreirajući potpuno novo tržište i upotrebnu vrednost proizvoda (Christensen, 1997). One često mogu biti radikalnog karaktera, ali im je zajednički cilj poboljšanje performansi. S druge strane, disruptivne tehnologije donose na tržište veoma različitu vrednost od one koja je bila dostupna ranije. Generalno gledajući, disruptivne tehnologije su slabije od već postojećih i uspostavljenih proizvoda na tržištu, ali poseduju druge karakteristike koje su privlačne novim potrošačima. Proizvodi koji su zasnovani na disruptivnim tehnologijama su „obično jeftiniji, manji i često jednostavniji za upotrebu" (Christensen, 1997, str. 11). Kao konkretni primeri disruptivnih tehnologija navode se pojave elektronske pošte (eng. *e-mail*), lanca restorana Mek Donalds (eng. *McDonald's*) i kompanije Amazon (eng. *Amazon*). Pojava elektronske pošte je poremetila funkcionisanje poštanske službe, Mek Donalds tržište „brze hrane", a Amazon tržište tradicionalnih knjižara, ali nisu izazvali potpuni prestanak rada svojih konkurenata (Christensen & Raynor, 2003). Razliku između održivih i disruptivnih tehnologija ilustruje autor Flavin, koji ističe da nam održive tehnologije dozvoljavaju da uradimo nešto bolje nego što smo radili ranije (na primer, proizvodnja ekonomičnijeg automobila), dok disruptivne tehnologije podstiču nove oblike dosadašnje proizvodne prakse (na primer, izum samog automobila) (Flavin, 2017).

O teoriji disruptivne tehnologije bilo je mnogo rasprava u domenu obrazovanja. Pojavom filma, radija, televizije i telefona dato je obećanje da će biti izvršena revolucija u učionici (Bok, 2003). Ekspanzijom interneta, danas je vidljiva tendencija univerziteta da ulažu novac u razvoj digitalnih tehnologija, kojima se

unapređuje proces nastave i učenja. Pojava masovnih otvorenih onlajn kurseva (eng. *MOOCs – Massive Open Online Courses*) jedan je od primera disruptivne tehnologije u visokom obrazovanju. Masivne otvorene onlajn kurseve može razvijati akademska zajednica samostalno ili univerziteti i kreatori onlajn platformi u zajedničkoj saradnji. Pohađanje kurseva studentima olakšava pristup relevantnim izvorima informacija, a univerzitetskim nastavnicima omogućava drugačiji vid interakcije sa studentima (O'Pray, 2013). Ipak, tehnologije koje univerziteti pružaju nisu u tolikoj meri uspešno implementirane i korišćene u praksi. Češće se koriste tehnologije koje nisu kontrolisane od univerziteta i koje prvenstveno nisu dizajnirane za učenje i nastavu, ali su studenti i nastavnici uvideli mogućnost njihove primene u nastavnom procesu i počeli da ih koriste (Flavin, 2012). Takav je slučaj sa društvenom mrežom Fejsbuk (eng. *Facebook*) i sa Jutjubom (eng. *Youtube*), internet servisom za razmenu video-sadržaja. Fejsbuk je primarno nastao s ciljem uspostavljanja socijalnih odnosa među grupom studenata dok se danas koristi u eksplicitnije svrhe, kao što su razmena edukativnih sadržaja i komunikacija nastavnika sa studentima. S druge strane, osim prvobitnih komercijalnih sadržaja, Jutjub pruža i edukativne sadržaje za studente i nastavnike i ujedno predstavlja marketinško sredstvo za univerzitete (Flavin, 2017). Segment disruptivne tehnologije, koji univerziteti ne kontrolišu potpuno, jeste upravo upotreba mobilne tehnologije, odnosno m-učenje, koji će biti u fokusu analize u nastavku rada.

Mobilne tehnologije u visokom obrazovanju – *m-učenje*

Terminom M učenje (eng. *m-learning*) opisuje se proces učenja putem mobilnih uređaja. Prema raširenom i opšteprihvaćenom shvatanju, m-učenje je svaka vrsta učenja koja se odvija kada se učenik ne nalazi na unapred određenom mestu ili kada učenik, tokom učenja, koristi prednosti koje mu pružaju mobilne tehnologije[4]. M-učenje čini specifičnim jednostavan i brz pristup potrebnim informacijama na različitim lokacijama pomoću mobilnih uređaja koji su svojom veličinom i oblikom prilagođeni lakoj prenosivosti (Krmek, 2017). Drugim rečima, mobilno učenje se može odrediti kao sposobnost kreiranja i isporuke obrazovnih sadržaja za različite mobilne uređaje poput: pametnih telefona, tablet računa-

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[4] Mobilni uređaji su mobilni telefoni, pametni telefoni, PDA uređaji, mp3 i mp4 plejeri (npr. iPod), ručne konzole (npr. Sony PSP, Nintendo DS), ultramobilni računari (engl. Ultra-Mobile PC, UMPC), mini-prenosnici ili netbook računari (npr. Asus Eee), ručni GPS-ovi, zatim i specijalizovane prenosne tehnologije koje se koriste u naučnim laboratorijama, radionicama itd. M-učenje obuhvata povezivanje za preuzimanje, učitavanje i/ ili onlajn rad putem bežične mreže, mobilne mreže ili obe mreže, te povezivanje s institucionalnim sistemima, npr. virtuelna okruženja za učenje (engl. Virtual Learning Environment − VLE) i upravljanje informacijskim sistemima (engl. Management Information Systems − MIS) (Knežević, 2011).

ra ili ličnih PDA (eng. *Personal digital asisstant*) džepnih uređaja (Dumančić, 2017). Krompton definiše m-učenje kao „učenje kroz različite kontekste, sadržajne i socijalne interakcije uz korišćenje ličnih mobilnih uređaja" (Crompton, 2013, str. 4). M-učenje se može odvijati na bilo kojem mestu, u bilo koje vreme, uključujući i tradicionalna okruženja za učenje kao što su učionice, radna mesta, kod kuće, u društvu, te u pokretu (Knežević, 2011). M-učenje se razvijalo sedamdesetih i osamdesetih godina XX veka, ali ekspanzija je nastupila početkom ovog veka, o čemu govori i podatak da 95% globalne populacije živi u oblasti pokrivenoj mobilnom mrežom, dok čak preko 5 biliona ljudi na svetu poseduje mobilni uređaj (STATISTA, 2019)[5]. M-učenje predstavlja jedan vid učenja na daljinu (eng. *e-learning*) koji omogućava da proces učenja bude efektivniji i pristupačniji bez obzira na mesto i vreme. Može se definisati kao podvrsta elektronskog učenja (e-učenje), dok bi e-učenje bilo podvrsta učenja na daljinu. Može se definisati kao mogućnost korišćenja mobilnog uređaja u svrhu podrške nastavnom procesu i učenju (Masrom, Nadzari, & Zakaria, 2016). Pogarčić (Pogarčić *et al.*, 2007, prema Knežević, 2011) navodi kako se razlike između m-mastave i e-nastave najlakše uočavaju ako se nastava posmatra u kontekstima fiksnosti i mobilnosti. U oba slučaja tehnologija treba da bude podrška za realizaciju i način obezbeđenja kvaliteta. Razlika između m-nastave i e-nastave uočava se, takođe, u načinu ostvarivanja komunikacije: pristup e-obrazovanju se u oba slučaja ostvaruje kroz elektronsku poštu, veb-sedišta i virtuelna obrazovna okruženja (Knežević, 2011). Knežević ističe da se prednosti m-učenja u odnosu na e-učenje ogledaju u tome što se:

- mobilni uređaji mogu koristiti u bilo koje vreme;
- najčešće su jeftiniji nego personalni računari;
- lakši su i manjih su dimenzija od personalnih računara;
- mobilni uređaji osiguravaju veći stepen participacije učenika i studenata u nastavi jer se m-učenje temelji na modernim tehnologijama kakve mladi koriste u svakodnevnom životu;
- upotreba GPS tehnologije podržava obrazovne procese bez obzira na lokaciju korisnika (Knežević, 2011, str. 23).

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[5] U većem broju zemalja Evropske unije pokrenuta su istraživanja o m-učenju. Dobar primer je projekat „Leonardo da Vinci" Evropske unije, u okviru koga su objavljeni programi: 1) Od e-learninga do m-learninga (2000–2003); 2) Mobil-learning za sledeću generaciju (2003–2005); 3) Ugradnja mobilne tehnologije u nastavu (2005–2007) (Rekkedal & Dye, 2009). Treba spomenuti i projekat „MoLeNet" iz Engleske, u kojem učestvuje 7.000 učesnika i 40.000 učenika, sa finansijskim okvirom od 12 miliona funti (Mark, 2012, prema Kőrösi & Esztelecki, 2015). Nažalost, mi u tome značajno zaostajemo za zemljama Evropske unije; još uvek je malo istraživanja o tom konceptu i akreditovanih m-learning obuka u nas (ZUOV, 2014). Dok neki sanjaju o revoluciji m-učenja, za to vreme u Srbiji je u većini škola zabranjeno korišćenje mobilnih telefona (Kőrösi & Esztelecki, 2015).

Braun ističe da „mobilne tehnologije imaju potencijal da proces učenja uči-ne još dostupnijim u odnosu na postojeće konstrukte učenja na daljinu" (Brown, 2003, str. 122). Mobilne tehnologije pružaju mogućnosti za učenje studentima koji su stalno u pokretu i onima koji nemaju adekvatnu infrastrukturu za pri-stup onlajn okruženjima. Upravo zbog užurbanog toka svakodnevnice, centralni konstrukt mobilnog učenja jeste kontekst kreiran iznova i iznova u interakciji individue sa drugim ljudima i sopstvenim okruženjem. Tradicionalno učenje u učionici, kako objašnjava Šarples sa saradnicima (Sharples, Arnedillo-Sánchez, Milrad, & Giasemi, 2009), zasniva se na iluziji stabilnosti konteksta, postavlja-njem fiksne lokacije sa zajedničkim resursima, jednim nastavnikom i propisanim kurikulumom. Primenom mobilnih tehnologija, osnovni izazov postaje kako formirati nove, privremeno stabilne kontekste koji će stvarati nova značenja iz svakodnevnice. Sumiranjem različitih istraživanja, Barati i Zolhavariet izdvajaju sledeće karakteristike mobilnog učenja:

- – sveprisutnost – većom pokrivenošću mobilnom mrežom i većom do-stupnošću mobilne tehnologije studentima se obezbeđuje komfor pri-likom procesa učenja;
- – kratki moduli učenja – mobilno učenje zahteva kratak i brz pristup materijalima učenja; kratki sadržaji učenja su mnogo prikladniji za slanje i deljenje na mobilnim uređajima manjeg ili većeg kapaciteta;
- – kooperativno učenje – mobilne tehnologije se mogu iskoristiti kao sredstvo za međusobnu saradnju studenata, koji im pomažu u formal-nom i neformalnom okruženju, a mogućnost upravljanja sopstvenim aktivnostima učenja doprinosi povećanju motivacije studenata;
- – podrška performansi – mobilne tehnologije pokušavaju da doprine-su poboljšanju produktivnosti, kreativnosti i efektivnosti studenata u procesu učenja;
- – kombinovani pristup – različiti konteksti učenja predstavljaju slike, grafikone, simulacije i video-materijale, kojima student može lakše da manipuliše zahvaljujući mobilnim uređajima;
- – strategije učenja – mobilne tehnologije podstiču razvoj novih strategi-ja učenja studenata zasnovanih na istraživanju i otkriću;
- – različite kategorije uređaja – postojanjem različitih kategorija mobil-nih uređaja omogućava se raznolikost iskustva učenja – od mobil-nih telefona, tablet računara, netelefonskih uređaja do čitača knjiga u elektronskom formatu (Barati & Zolhavariet, 2012, str. 298).

Uprkos pozitivnim karakteristikama mobilnog učenja, nestabilnost kon-teksta učenja implicira pojavu rizika prilikom implementacije mobilnih tehno-

logija u proces nastave i učenja. Nasmit i Korlet navode pet ključnih faktora uspešnosti projekata mobilnog učenja.

1. Pristup tehnologiji – dostupnost tehnologije se odnosi na korišćenje sopstvenih mobilnih uređaja studenata ili obezbeđivanje uređaja od obrazovne institucije, koje će studenti moći da koriste i kod kuće.
2. Posedovanje tehnologije – poželjno je da studenti poseduju tehnologiju ili, ukoliko ne poseduju svoju, institucionalnu „tretiraju" kao sopstvenu. Korišćenje mobilne tehnologije u svrhu zabave ne umanjuje njenu vrednost sredstva za učenje, ali je neophodno napraviti granicu između institucionalnog i ličnog korišćenja.
3. Povezanost – upotreba mobilnih uređaja studentima treba u svakom momentu da obezbedi pristup materijalima za učenje i da bez ometanja povezuje studente u kontekstu.
4. Integracija – mobilnu tehnologiju je neophodno integrisati u kurikulum, zajedno sa tokom svakodnevnog života i iskustvom studenata. Strategije uspešne integracije uključuju audio i video snimke predavanja, kreiranje elektronskih portfolija ili elektronskih evaluacija studenata.
5. Institucionalna podrška – podrazumeva dizajn relevantnih izvora u mobilnom formatu, obuku univerzitetskih kadrova i adekvatnu tehničku podršku (Naismith & Corlett, 2006, str. 12).

Osim izazova koje nosi implementacija mobilnih tehnologija u proces učenja, uočljivi su pozitivni efekti tog vida učenja. Mnogobrojna naučna istraživanja govore u prilog efikasnosti programa m-učenja. Tako je, na primer, fakultet u Burnelu ispitivao kako nastava sa korišćenjem mobilnih telefona utiče na učenike (Abu-Al-Aish & Love, 2013) i kakav je uticaj takve nastave na matematičku sposobnost učenika. Rezultati oba ispitivanja nedvosmisleno su pokazali pozitivnu perspektivu (Abu-Al-Aish, Love, & Hunaiti, 2012). U skladu sa tim nalazima su i rezultati istraživanja Gikasa i Granta, sprovedenog na tri univerziteta u SAD, koji pokazuju da se prednost upotrebe mobilnih uređaja u procesu učenja iz perspektive studenata ogleda u brzom pristupu informacijama, razvoju komunikacije i saradnje, razvoju različitih strategija učenja i situacionog učenja koje ubraja različite kontekste učenja (Gikas & Grant, 2013). Brojni su autori koji su prepoznali pozitivne efekte m-učenja. Na primer, O'Melej i saradnici (O'Malley, Vavoula, Sharples, Lefrere, & Glew, 2005) navode da takav vid učenja povećava fleksibilnost prenošenja znanja i osećaja slobode kretanja kod studenata. Na taj način oni ostaju povezani sa studentskim okruženjem iako ne moraju fizički da budu u svakom momentu prisutni (Yi, Liao, Huang, & Hwang, 2009). Tako-

đe, dobre strane takve podrške nastavi vide se u povećanoj motivaciji studenata, boljoj koordinaciji timskih aktivnosti, bržoj mogućnosti pružanja odgovora i u povećanom nivou komunikacije na relaciji student–student i student–nastavnik. Treba istaći i da je mobilno učenje u saglasnosti sa strategijama učenja tokom života, budući da svako može da bude korisnik mobilne aplikacije, to jest ona nije ograničena samo na studente (Katić, Vukadinović i Brkanlić, 2017).

Primena mobilnih uređaja u nastavnom procesu menja dosadašnju ulogu nastavnika, koja od njih zahteva visok nivo digitalnih kompetencija. Višestruka korist koju nastavnici mogu da uoče primenom mobilnih uređaja u nastavnom procesu jeste povećanje motivacije studenata za rad, podsticanje razvoja odgovornosti, razvoja retencije i celokupno poboljšanje napretka studenata (Barati & Zolhavarieh, 2012). Mobilni uređaji, poput mobilnih telefona i tableta, mogu podržati zajedničko učenje u konvencionalnim i mrežnim okruženjima za učenje (Falloon, 2015). Trenutni pristup i fleksibilnost mobilnih uređaja vide se, takođe, kao mogućnost kooperativnog učenja (Murray & Olcese, 2011). Nema sumnje da je upotreba mobilnih tehnologija uticala na promenu dosadašnje prakse univerziteta kreirajući osnovu za predstavljanje i primenu koncepta *BYOD*.

Koncept *BYOD* u industriji

Koncept BYOD nije novijeg datuma jer studenti već decenijama donose sopstvene laptop uređaje na univerzitet, često na zahtev samih univerziteta i nastavnika. Međutim, razvoj mobilne industrije i sve veća zastupljenost mobilnih uređaja kod studentske populacije polako utiču na visokoškolske institucije da prihvate mobilne uređaje kao sredstvo u procesu nastave i učenja. Džonson sa saradnicima naglašava da se „više ne postavlja pitanje da li ih (mobilne uređaje) treba dozvoliti u učionici već kako ih na najefikasniji način integrisati u obrazovni sistem" (Johnson et al., 2016, str. 36). Definisanje koncepta *BYOD* zavisi od različitih konteksta, ali je suština te ideje da pojedinac koristi svoj sopstveni uređaj u radnom ili obrazovnom okruženju, umesto da koristi raspoložive uređaje za obavljanje zadataka, koji su u vlasništvu radne ili obrazovne institucije (Welsh et al., 2018). U industrijskom kontekstu, *BYOD* predstavlja strategiju koju je predložio Malkolm Harkins (Malcolm Harkins), šef osiguranja u firmi Intel 2009. godine. Nakon uvida da sve veći broj zaposlenih donosi svoje mobilne uređaje, zanemarujući bezbednost podataka i sveopštu produktivnost, Malkom sugeriše da se trend donošenja mobilnih uređaja uredi propisima (Afreen, 2014).

U *Bring Your Own Devices (BYOD) Survival Guide* [*Vodič za preživljavanje BYOD*] ističe se da su na početku radne institucije uspevale pažljivo da kontrolišu

upotrebu mobilnih uređaja povezanih na radnu internet mrežu. Međutim, zaposlenima je predstavljao problem upotreba više uređaja, jednog za ličnu upotrebu, a drugog za poslovne svrhe. S obzirom na to da zaposleni nisu imali motivaciju da koriste određene uređaje isključivo za njihovu predviđenu namenu, počeli su krišom da koriste svoje sopstvene uređaje u poslovne svrhe, čime su pokrenuli koncept *BYOD* (Keyes, 2013). Upotreba sopstvenih uređaja zaposlenih donela je dobrobiti za radne institucije, koje su se prvenstveno odnosile na troškove. *BYOD* je deo troškova koje bi radna institucija uložila u razvoj sopstvene tehnologije prebacio na zaposlene jer oni plaćaju i održavaju svoje uređaje. Uređaji koje zaposleni poseduju su novijeg datuma, imaju više performanse i kvalitetnije softvere od onih koje poseduje radna institucija (Afreen, 2014). Najvažnija prednost upotrebe koncepta *BYOD* u radnom okruženju jeste zadovoljstvo zaposlenih, koji mogu koristiti uređaje po svojoj volji i preferencijama, bez potrebe da standardizuju i prilagođavaju institucionalne uređaje i softvere. Time su zaposleni daleko produktivniji jer imaju „mogućnost da duže komuniciraju sa radnim sistemima, koristeći sopstvene uređaje u bilo koje doba dana ili noći" (Keyes, 2013, str. 2). Osim pozitivnih odjeka *BYOD*, vremenom su se pojavili i nedostaci u vezi sa njegovom implementacijom. Prvi problem nastaje sa pitanjem bezbednosti podataka jer je povezivanjem uređaja zaposlenih na mrežu radne institucije olakšan pristup njihovim sadržajima u uređajima. Veliki broj uređaja i preopterećenost mreže radne institucije predstavlja laku metu za hakere, čime je ugrožena privatnost zaposlenih. Kejes kao problem navodi i nestabilnost granica između rada i zabave koja se javlja primenom koncepta *BYOD*. Korišćenje društvenih mreža prilikom rada može predstavljati distrakciju za zaposlene, čime se umanjuje njihova produktivnost (Keyes, 2013). Kao rešenje tih problema predlaže se da radna institucija kreira propise za funkcionisanje koncepta *BYOD* i da organizuje adekvatne obuke zaposlenih za njegovu primenu (Afreen, 2014).

BYOD u visokom obrazovanju

U industriji raste primena koncepta *BYOD*, a njegova primena u obrazovanju polako postiže taj rastući tempo (Murphy, 2013). Univerziteti već godinama imaju tendenciju da podstiču studente i nastavnike da donose svoje lične uređaje kao pomoćna sredstva u procesu nastave i učenja. Imajući u vidu da su univerziteti velika preduzeća, sa stotinama zaposlenih i hiljadama studenata koji zajedno uče i rade u realnom i virtuelnom prostoru institucije, postavlja se pitanje – koji su uslovi neophodni za uspešno funkcionisanje koncepta *BYOD* u visokom obrazovanju? Difilipo ističe da se univerziteti suočavaju sa nesvakidašnjom kombinaci-

jom izazova kada je u pitanju upotreba tehnologije i da su ti izazovi različito diferencirani prema studentima, univerzitetu kao instituciji i akademskom osoblju. Svaka grupa ima različite zahteve, pa bi bilo poželjno sprovesti istraživanja kojima će se ispitati preferencije svake od tih grupa po pitanju sistema, uređaja i servisa koje bi voleli da koriste u radu (Difilipo, 2013). Pre implementacije koncepta *BYOD* u obrazovanje, neophodno je definisati propise na osnovu kojih bi se kontrolisala njegova primena. Kao i u industrijskom kontekstu, Afrin (Afreen, 2014) predlaže postepene korake ka sprovođenju politike *BYOD* u obrazovne ustanove, koji se sastoje od tri ključna pristupa: istraživanje, razvoj i primena propisa. Prvi pristup se odnosi na planiranje istraživanja, u kojem je neophodno oformiti istraživački tim koji će pomnije istražiti svrhu primene koncepta *BYOD* i uslove koji su neophodni za njegovu primenu u obrazovnoj instituciji. Dalji razvoj strategije *BYOD* se, kao i kod Difilipa, odnosi na sprovođenje istraživanja stavova svih učesnika u obrazovnoj instituciji, a interpretacijom dobijenih rezultata se definiše dalji razvoj politike *BYOD*. Na kraju, formira se interesna grupa zadužena za primenu principa koncepta *BYOD* i prati se njegov razvoj u saradnji sa ostalim obrazovnim ustanovama koje primenjuju isti taj koncept (Afreen, 2014).

Osim administrativnih zadataka koji se moraju ispuniti za uspešnu primenu koncepta *BYOD*, neophodno je obezbediti adekvatne tehničke uslove za njegovu implementaciju. U obrazovnoj primeni *BYOD* najčešće se koriste mobilni telefoni, tableti i laptop računari i neophodno je uraditi pripremnu fazu, pre njihovog uključivanja u nastavu. Pripremna faza za *BYOD* jeste da se, ukoliko su u pitanju laptop računari studenata, instalira određena verzija operativnog sistema (npr. Windows 10), određeni internet pretraživač (npr. Google Chrome), određeni paket za uređivanje sadržaja (npr. paket Microsoft Office 2016) i određeni antivirusni program. S druge strane, ukoliko su u pitanju mobilni telefon ili tableti, neophodno je obezbediti najnoviju verziju operativnog sistema (npr. Android ili IOS) i najnovije verzije potrebnih aplikacija za rad (Attewell, 2017). U kontekstu visokog obrazovanja, Velš sa saradnicima ističe klasifikaciju Santosa, koji navodi ostale tehničke uslove za primenu koncepta *BYOD*:

- neophodnost dobre povezanosti sa internet mrežom univerziteta;
- postojanje mrežne sigurnosti prilikom povezivanja personalnih uređaja studenata sa internet mrežom univerziteta;
- povećana podrška informatičkog sektora univerziteta;
- prihvatanje disruptivnih tehnologija u učionici;
- mogućnost pristupa personalnih uređaja različitih kapaciteta na univerzitetsku internet mrežu (Santos prema Welsh et al., 2018, str. 3).

BYOD viđen iz perspektive nastavnika

Uspostavljanje koncepta *BYOD* na univerzitetu najviše posledica ima u sferi nastave. Proces prilagođavanja studenata i nastavnika na mobilnu tehnologiju kao novog člana didaktičkog trougla podrazumeva prihvatanje ideje novog načina izučavanja obrazovnog sadržaja. Upotrebom sopstvenih uređaja studentima i nastavnicima se pruža širok dijapazon aktivnosti u toku nastavnog procesa. Čeng u svojim radovima navodi da studenti zahvaljujući svojim uređajima imaju mogućnost da nastavne aktivnosti obavljaju brže i efikasnije. Neke od aktivnosti su pretraživanje akademskih članaka, upotreba programa za proveru pravopisa i gramatike, kreiranje kratkih videa za poboljšanje prezentacionih veština, kreiranje beleški, prikupljanje podataka fotografisanjem, upotreba blogova i onlajn platformi za komunikaciju (npr. Edmodo) i slično (Cheng, Guan & Chau, 2016; Cheng, 2018). Jačanjem tehnologije i pojavom novih generacija mobilnih uređaja, transformacija uloge i identiteta nastavnika postaje nužnost. Za nastavnika prednost korišćenja mobilnih uređaja u nastavi omogućuje da na brz i lak način preuređuje i inovira nastavne materijale u elektronskoj formi (Ally, Grimus, & Ebner, 2014). Takođe, *BYOD* nastavnicima omogućuje aktivnosti kao što su praćenje i evaluacija rada učenika, organizovanje sastanaka i lakše održavanje komunikacije sa učenicima i kolegama (Berger & Symonds, 2016). Spoj formalnog i informalnog učenja koji nastaje upotrebom mobilnih uređaja omogućio je da se u nastavu uključe i studenti sa poteškoćama u razvoju i oni koji žive u udaljenim, ruralnim regijama. Promena konteksta učenja i masovniji pristup studentima zahteva od nastavnika da dizajnira digitalne sadržaje učenja u izvore koji će biti dostupni u mobilnoj verziji (Raghunath, Anker, & Nortcliffe, 2018). Zarad tog cilja, neophodno je da nastavnik ima umeće odabira adekvatne tehnologije koju će integrisati u nastavne aktivnosti. Uprkos tome što mobilni uređaji nude mogućnost inoviranja nastavnog procesa, nastavnici su nespremni. Denen i Hao navode da je glavni faktor nespremnosti nastavnika za primenu koncepta *BYOD* starost nastavnika; nastavnici stariji od 50 godina ređe poseduju mobilne uređaje jakih kapaciteta i samim tim nisu voljni da podrže njihovu implementaciju u nastavu (Dennen & Hao, 2014). Takođe, Ragunat sa saradnicima navodi da nastavnici posmatraju mobilne uređaje kao distrakciju u nastavi i da nisu sigurni da li poseduju prave tehnike da prevaziđu taj problem, što ih čini nesigurnim u implementaciji koncepta *BYOD* u nastavu uopšte (Raghunath et al., 2018). Uprkos koristima rada od kuće, nestabilnost granice između poslovnog i privatnog života izaziva strah kod nastavnika (Berger & Symonds, 2016). Rešenje se ogleda u profesionalnom usavršavanju nastavnika, koji je jedan od najefektivnijih načina

upotrebe mobilne tehnologije u obrazovnom ciklusu (Botha, Batchelor, Traxler, De Ward, & Herselman, 2012). Na kraju, Ali ističe:

> „Nastavnici se moraju osnažiti da pronađu kreativne načine upotrebe mobilnih uređaja da dopru do učenika i pruže visok kvalitet obrazovanja bez obzira na njihovu lokaciju, kulturnu pozadinu ili starost, a to će uspeti jedino ako su obučeni da pruže obrazovanje u mobilnom svetu" (Ally et al., 2014, str. 56).

BYOD viđen iz perspektive studenata

Dok se, s jedne strane, nastavnici osećaju nespremnim, studenti i dalje donošenjem svojih mobilnih uređaja u univerzitetsko okruženje podstiču dalji razvoj koncepta *BYOD*. Istraživanje sprovedeno 2015. godine pokazuje da se čak 62% studenata oseća aktivnije ukoliko koristi mobilne uređaje tokom nastave i da oni doprinose zanimljivijem nastavnom procesu (Santos, 2017, prema Al-Okaily, 2015). Studenti imaju mogućnost da koriste mobilnu tehnologiju i van učionice za učenje, čime se smanjuje postojeći jaz između formalnog i informalnog obrazovanja. Upotrebom svojih sopstvenih uređaja, studenti imaju mogućnost da koriste omiljene mobilne aplikacije i time personalizuju svoje učenje. Prednost poznavanja rada sopstvenog uređaja značajno štedi vreme za učenje u odnosu na korišćenje i standardizaciju univerzitetskih uređaja (Welsh et al., 2018). Takođe, studentima se pruža mogućnost da imaju sačuvane podatke i materijale na svojim uređajima, kojima mogu pristupiti bilo kad. Deronian ističe da primena mobilnih uređaja u nastavi služi za pripremu studenata za budućnost i ekspanziju njihovog viđenja realnosti. Studenti pozitivno reaguju na stimuluse mobilnih uređaja, pri čemu se povećavaju njihova motivacija i fokusiranost na zadatke, što proces učenja čini interesantnijim (Derounian, 2017). Rezultati istraživanja sprovedenog 2017. godine na univerzitetu u Latinskoj Americi pokazuju da čak 84% studenata poseduje mobilne uređaje i da je više od polovine njih voljno da ih koristi u svrhe učenja. Velika većina, čak 63%, veruje da bi se proces učenja znatno poboljšao njihovom upotrebom (Saa, Moscoso-Zea, & Lujan-Mora, 2017). Studentima je korišćenje njihovih uređaja korisno za:

- stvaranje i upravljanje sopstvenim materijalima;
- pretraživanje, filtriranje i organizovanje mrežnih resursa relevantnih za nastavni predmet;
- doprinos idejama zajednici koja uči i sagledavanju novih perspektiva svojih kolega;

- saradnja sa kolegama u grupnom radu na zajedničkoj konstrukciji znanja (npr. onlajn priprema za usmenu odbranu radova) (Cheng et al., 2016, str. 14).

Uprkos pozitivnim odlikama koncepta *BYOD* za studente, postoji i nepoverljivost prema njegovoj objektivnosti. Najveći strah studenata jeste nezaštićenost njihovih podataka, s obzirom na činjenicu da su lični uređaji studenata povezani na institucionalnu mrežu i da nastavnici imaju uvid u sadržaj njihovih uređaja. Osim toga, postoje strah od gubitka uređaja i rizik od pojave virusa na uređaju. Univerziteti rešenje tog problema vide u propisivanju standarda i polisa osiguranja za *BYOD*, što je prethodno neophodno predstaviti studentima (Saa et al., 2017). Dodatna ograničenja tog koncepta prepoznali su i nastavnici i studenti, a odnose se na nekompatibilnost sistema i performanse uređaja. Postojanje velikog broja uređaja različitih kapaciteta može da onemogući da se određeni formati nastavnih materijala emituju isto kod svih studenata i nastavnika, a može i da se pojavi nekompatibilnost između softvera na sopstvenim uređajima i softvera koje podržava univerzitetska mrežna infrastruktura (Berger & Symonds, 2016). Takođe, u ograničenja se ubrajaju i tehničke performanse mobilnih uređaja, naročito mobilnih telefona. Ograničenja mobilnih telefona se ogledaju u maloj veličini ekrana, kratkom trajanju baterije, nedovoljnoj jačini procesora i nedovoljnom kapacitetu memorije (Cheng et al., 2016; Berger & Symonds, 2016).

Uzimajući u obzir sva ta ograničenja, disrupcija nastave je i dalje najveći problem za ovaj koncept. Ometanja poput zvona mobilnih telefona ili upotrebe društvenih mreža mogu da utiču na odluku nastavnika o prihvatanju ideje koncepta *BYOD* u nastavi. Povremena potreba za proveravanjem notifikacija na mobilnom telefonu predstavlja distrakciju i za studente i za nastavnike, što može dovesti do neispunjenja nastavnih zadataka. Gubitak interesa za određeni nastavni predmet pokazao se kao još jedna posledica disrupcije nastave (Berger & Symonds, 2016). Za sada, nema adekvatnog rešenja kojim bi se umanjio efekat disrupcije mobilnih uređaja. Gledajući iz aspekta studenata, većina smatra da je disrupcija više stvar njihove samokontrole i samodiscipline nego problem samog uređaja i da univerziteti treba da im ostave prostor da samostalno upravljaju svojim procesom učenja (Cheng et al., 2016). Na kraju, objedinjujući postojeće stavove u literaturi, Santos je kreirao jednu sveobuhvatnu klasifikaciju problema koji izazivaju zabrinutost akademske zajednice za uspešno funkcionisanje koncepta *BYOD*:

- postoji zabrinutost zbog mrežne infrastrukture univerziteta, kako bi se izbeglo sporo i nepouzdano povezivanje uređaja na internet mrežu;
- nedostatak znanja i veština nastavnika za integraciju koncepta *BYOD* u nastavu;

–   uprkos istraživanjima koja pokazuju da studentska populacija sve više poseduje mobilne uređaje, koncept *BYOD* nije pogodan za one studente koji nemaju uređaje koji su dovoljno napredni da omoguće pristup obrazovnim sadržajima i aktivnostima;

–   koncept *BYOD* se sastoji od različitih tipova mobilnih uređaja i softverskih platformi koje mogu ometati obrazovne aktivnosti na svim uređajima;

–   ometanje u nastavi izazvano velikim brojem personalnih uređaja studenata (Santos, 2017, str. 61).

Uz stručno usavršavanje nastavnika za primenu koncepta *BYOD*, koje je ranije istaknuto u radu, Santos predlaže i uključivanje studenata. Naime, akademsko osoblje bi prilikom donošenja propisa o primeni koncepta *BYOD* na univerzitetu trebalo da se konsultuje sa studentima i da zajednički izglasaju pravila o primeni koncepta. Na taj način se jasnije mogu sagledati perspektive učesnika nastavnog procesa i iskoristiti puni potencijal koncepta *BYOD* (Santos, 2017).

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Na osnovu svega izloženog može se konstatovati da postoji osetna razlika između mišljenja nastavnika i studenata, što je uobičajeno za uvođenje novih mobilnih tehnologija. Naravno, prilikom prihvatanja IKT alata najveća barijera je finansijskog i psihološkog karaktera (Namesztovszki, 2008) i, pošto nastavnici još uvek istinski ne prepoznaju mogućnosti i ulogu takvih tehnologija u nastavi a time ni mogućnost da se nastava organizuje na načine koji bi podsticali emancipatornu funkciju učenja u njoj, odnosno omogućili samoregulisano učenje – radije zanemaruju takav vid nastave (Kőrösi & Esztelecki, 2015). M-učenje, podržano konceptom *BYOD*, nudi brojne mogućnosti sa više stotina mobilnih aplikacija iz različitih oblasti, korisnicima širom sveta, uz nekoliko pomenutih nedostataka. Taj kanal komunikacije između nastavnika i studenata neophodno je što više proširiti, doneti zakonske okvire za korišćenje mobilnih uređaja kao ravnopravnog učesnika u nastavnom procesu i na taj način prilagoditi deo nastave korišćenju mobilnih aplikacija. Ipak, klasičan sistem interaktivnog učenja u učionici ne treba izuzeti iz nastavnog procesa već treba uticati da koncept *blended learning* (kombinovano učenje), uz adekvatne aplikacije, pomogne studentima da predviđeno gradivo savladaju na optimalan način (Katić, Vukadinović i Brkanlić, 2017).

Nema sumnje da je efekat primene mobilnih tehnologija u učenju i poučavanju na svim nivoima obrazovanja potreba rešavanja različitih problema. Utisak je da je m-učenje pomerilo fokus ka konstruktivizmu i komunikaciji, menjajući poziciju osnovnog dvojca u nastavi: nastavnika i studenta (Knežević, 2011). To

znači da bi za efikasno integrisanje mobilne tehnologije u obrazovanje veoma značajan činilac bio odgovarajući dizajn učenja. Dizajn učenja može da posluži kao snažna strategija intervencije za transformaciju razmišljanja nastavnika u produktivnom smeru (Churchill, King, & Fox, 2013).

Zaključna razmatranja

Tehnologija je poremetila način na koji učimo i primorala nas da, na svakom koraku i sa svakom novom inovacijom, podižemo očekivanja. Ako govorimo o savremenoj paradigmi univerzitetske nastave, parametri njenog kvaliteta upravo se ogledaju u stvaranju uslova za visokoindividualizovane aktivnosti studenata, što podrazumeva uvažavanje individualnih očekivanja, sposobnosti, interesovanja, kognitivnih stilova, stilova učenja, motivacije za učenje i sl. Takav koncept personalizacije moguće je poštovati ako se u nastavni proces integriše samousmereno i kooperativno učenje uz podršku informacionih i komunikacionih tehnologija, odnosno mobilne tehnologije koja pruža bezbroj mogućnosti za učenje, što prevazilazi mogućnosti klasične nastave (Ivanović, Španović i Gajić, 2014). Pojavom i razvojem učenja na daljinu i mobilne tehnologije započet je niz disrupcija, koji industriju i obrazovanje podižu na više nivoe. Razmatranjem koncepta *BYOD* ukazuje se na porast uticaja disruptivnih tehnologija, pre svega mobilnih uređaja, na radno i obrazovno okruženje. Imajući u vidu razvijenost i dostupnost mobilne tehnologije, njihova zastupljenost u industriji i obrazovanju otvara neograničene mogućnosti primene i olakšava pristup izvorima znanja. Veliki broj studenata prepoznao je potencijale mobilnih uređaja u obrazovanju te su, uprkos postojanju univerzitetske tehnologije, počeli da donose i koriste svoje sopstvene mobilne resurse radi unapređenja procesa nastave i učenja. To su dalekosežne promene u pravcu razvoja kulture učenja na univerzitetu, u skladu sa mogućnostima novih mobilnih tehnologija. Može se očekivati pojava globalnog tržišta obrazovanja čija ponuda neće, kao do sada, počivati na tradicionalnom načelu *push* (*ex cathedra*) nego na načelu *pull*, što znači da će studenti u budućnosti samostalno pribavljati informacije, birati sadržaje, mesto i vreme studija. Međutim, da bi mogao koristiti *pull* ponudu mreže, student mora raspolagati brojnim sposobnostima, kao što su: medijske kompetencije, sposobnost distingviranja relevantnih od irelevantnih informacija, sposobnost realnog procenjivanja vlastitih kapaciteta za učenje, sposobnost (re)organizovanja loše strukturisanih informacija prema smislenim sadržajnim vezama, te sposobnost konstrukcije metaznanja, koje sadrži strategije za učenje putem novih tehnologija i strategije korišćenja spoljašnjih resursa (Gehrmann, 2004). Kao i većina inovacija koje bi trebalo implementirati

u nastavni proces, m-učenje ima i zagovornike i kritičare. Kritičari se najčešće osvrću na probleme koji se javljaju u primeni koncepta *BYOD*, posebno one u vezi sa infrastrukturom, administracijom i podrškom, upravljanjem obrazovnim resursima, pristupačnošću, zaštitom podataka i privatnosti i sl. Ti se problemi mogu donekle ublažiti, ali je neophodno kontinuirano ulagati dodatne napore u razvoj mobilne tehnologije. Međutim, uprkos nedostacima, m-učenje ima brojne prednosti, kao što su zanimljivost, komunikativnost, interaktivnost, učenje prilagođeno potrebama studenta, bez obzira na mesto i vreme učenja, veća dostupnost sadržaja, mogućnost pohađanja kurseva nezavisno od fizičke lokacije, samoregulisano učenje itd. Mobilna tehnologija nudi čitav spektar alata za nastavnike, obrazovne pogodnosti, kao i nove mogućnosti partnerstva studenata i tehnologije u procesu učenja. Osnažena interaktivnim multimedijalnim prezentacijskim mogućnostima, mobilna tehnologija omogućava isporuku mnogih različitih multimedijalnih materijala kao što su video, audio, grafika i integrisani mediji (Lim & Churchill, 2016). Snažne tehničke karakteristike mobilnih tehnologija i dostupne mobilne aplikacije omogućavaju nove oblike platforme za učenje koja može značajno unaprediti savremeni proces poučavanja i učenja u različitim obrazovnim kontekstima (Churchill & Churchill, 2008). Prednosti *BYOD* u obrazovnim institucijama uključuju i visok nivo studentskog angažmana u interaktivnim zadacima, upotrebu niza aplikacija za poučavanje osnovnih nastavnih veština i samostalnih mogućnosti učenja (Bruder, 2014).

Proučavanjem koncepta upotrebe sopstvenih mobilnih uređaja u visokoškolskom obrazovanju i na temelju kritičke analize njihovih prednosti i nedostataka dolazi se do zaključka da njihova primena donosi dva ključna problema – problem tehničkih uslova implementacije i (ne)prihvatanje koncepta od nastavnika. Naime, nepostojanje adekvatne tehničke opremljenosti univerziteta za veliku koncentraciju mobilnih uređaja na njihovoj internet mreži može da izazove ozbiljne smetnje u univerzitetskom okruženju. Preopterećenost mreže i postojanje mobilnih uređaja različitih kapaciteta na mreži mogu da izazovu preopterećenost sistema i nemogućnost redovnog funkcionisanja nastavnih i sveopštih univerzitetskih aktivnosti. Da bi se taj problem rešio, neophodno je da univerzitet prvenstveno uloži sredstva za izgradnju kvalitetne mrežne infrastrukture, što se može regulisati zvaničnim propisima o primeni koncepta *BYOD*.

Kada je reč o prihvatanju ideje o primeni koncepta *BYOD* kod nastavnika i studenata, kamen spoticanja je u nespremnosti većine nastavnika na taj korak. Iako bi se većina nastavnika složila sa konstatacijom da mobilne tehnologije imaju potencijal da transformišu nastavu u obrazovnim institucijama (Zurita & Nussbaum, 2004; Trakler, 2009; Hedberg, 2014), spremnost za prihvatanje tog koncepta i njegovih modaliteta i dalje je diskutabilna. Dok se pozitivni efekti za

studente ogledaju u interesantnijem nastavnom procesu i bržem pristupu informacijama, za nastavnike to predstavlja nestabilan kontekst koji zahteva korenitu promenu njihove dosadašnje uloge u nastavnom procesu. Posmatranje mobilne tehnologije kao disrupcije u učionici i nemogućnost razmatranja mobilnih uređaja kao potencijalnog nastavnog sredstva negativno utiču na prihvatanje celokupne ideje koncepta *BYOD*. Uzrok nespremnosti se ogleda u nedovoljnoj institucionalnoj podršci i nepostojanju obuka i treninga kojima bi se nastavnici pripremili za implementaciju koncepta *BYOD*. Stoga se prvobitno rešenje nalazi upravo u kreiranju adekvatne obuke i programa stručnog usavršavanja nastavnika, koji će ih osnažiti za izazove koje mobilna tehnologija nosi sobom. Izazov za univerzitete jeste da razumeju efekat koncepta *BYOD* i da ga prepoznaju ne kao „zamenu za učenje licem u lice već kao priliku za ekspanziju formalnog konteksta učenja u informalne kontekste" (Raghunath et al., 2018, str. 184). Uvažavajući isključivo postojeće akademske standarde, a ne obazirući se na to šta nastavnici i studenti rade i koje disruptivne tehnologije donose u akademsko okruženje, univerziteti time propuštaju priliku za poboljšanje i inoviranje obrazovne prakse. Osim toga, neophodno je jačati vezu između integracije mobilne tehnologije i teorijskih okvira učenja putem odgovarajućeg okvira dizajna poučavanja i učenja zasnovanog na rezultatima istraživanja (Lim & Churchill, 2016). Koncept *BYOD* je samo jedan od primera disruptivne tehnologije i njegovim predstavljanjem u ovom radu želi se dati skroman podstek za razmišljanje i kreiranje budućih istraživanja o njegovoj potencijalnoj primeni u našem sistemu visokog obrazovanja.

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The Application of the BYOD (Bring Your Own Device) Concept in Industry and Education–Implications for a Change of University Practice[8]

Abstract: With the development of mobile technology emerge fundamental changes in all spheres of human endeavor. In education, new methods of remote studying are being developed, with a particular emphasis on "m-learning" (learning with the help of mobile devices). Taking into consideration that mobile devices are one of the fastest-developing forms of technology, the importance of their assistance in the process of teaching and studying has been recognized. The goal of this paper is to introduce the concept of Bring Your Own Device (BYOD) in the context of industry and education as an example of disruptive technology. This concept implies that students bring their own mobile devices to the classroom and use them when learning. Using a descriptive research method and analysis of the relevant bibliography, the authors of the paper distinguish the implications for the change of university practices on the basis of critical analysis of positive and negative consequences of their use, redefined positions of the teachers and the students in the educational process, as well as the modified educational design.

Key words: m-learning, BYOD, disruptive technology, higher education

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Hronika, polemika, kritika
Chronicle, polemics, review

Prikaz knjige

Obuka namenjena odraslima – kako je proceniti? O knjizi Aleksandre Pejatović: *Obuka za odrasle – susret očekivanja i procenjivanja*

Naučnu monografiju *Obuka za odrasle – susret očekivanja i procenjivanja*[1] autorke prof. dr Aleksandre Pejatović, obima 217 strana, izdao je Institut za pedagogiju i andragogiju Filozofskog fakulteta Univerziteta u Beogradu.

Monografija osim uvodnog dela i zaključnih razmatranja sadrži jedanaest tematskih celina kojima se na vrlo sistematičan i pregledan način pristupa fenomenu obuka namenjenih odraslim osobama. Imajući u vidu značaj problema i veliki broj istraživanja, teorijskih pristupa i modela koji se bave obukama za odrasle, uviđamo neophodnost sistematizacije materije za čitalačku publiku našeg govornog područja.

Nakon uvodnih razmatranja, dat je sažet prikaz istorijata razvoja obučavanja odraslih koji nam pomaže da razumemo uvezanost obučavanja sa napretkom društva i civilizacije i podrobnije zahteve koje svet rada postavlja pred obuke. Autorka ističe da su svakoj grupi kadrova zaposlenih u sistemu proizvodnje potrebni i obučavanje i obrazovanje, bez obzira na stepen njihove kvalifikovanosti, i da se pred obuke vremenom postavlja zadatak da odgovore na sve veći broj potreba koje se javljaju u savremenom svetu rada.

Kao neophodnom delu naučne monografije, pažnja je posvećena određenju fenomena kojim se bavi monografija, oslanjajući se na određenja koja daju različiti autori i normativna dokumenta. Obuka se određuje kao ciklični sistem sačinjen od više faza, koji obuhvata, osim samog organizovanog procesa poučavanja, i aktivnosti koje mu prethode i one koje mu slede. Takav sistem je usmeren na sticanje i razvoj znanja, veština, kompetencija i stavova određenih specifikovanim ciljevima, a njegovi efekti se očekuju u domenu konkretnih promena u

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[1] Pejatović, A. (2019). *Obuka za odrasle – susret očekivanja i procenjivanja*. Beograd: Institut za pedagogiju i andragogiju Filozofskog fakulteta Univerziteta u Beogradu.

ponašanju vezanih za područje života i rada kojem je obuka namenjena, i to neposredno po završetku samog procesa.

U monografiji se razmatra međuodnos obrazovanja i obučavanja i navodi da obuka može biti sastavni deo, to jest supsistem obrazovanja, ali i obrazovanje supsistem obuke. Obrazovanje, s druge strane, predstavlja dugotrajniji proces drugačijeg fokusa – usmeren na sticanje opštih znanja, celovit razvoj ličnosti, uz naglašenu vaspitnu funkciju, koji nastoji da pojedince upozna sa svim važnim sferama života. Obuka čini integralni, suštinski deo stručnog obrazovanja odraslih; takođe, ona ostaje neophodna za razvoj kadrova različitog nivoa kompetentnosti.

Još jedan značajan doprinos monografije je deskripcija načina na koji raznovrsno polje obuka može da se sistematizuje. Autorka je izdvojila više kriterijuma i u skladu sa njima ponudila sistematizaciju: prema osnovnoj funkciji, relaciji znanje−kompetencije, nivou strukturiranosti, području sadržaja, ciljnoj grupi, vrsti korišćenih medija i mestu realizacije. Predstavljen je model koji raspoznaje četiri osnovna stila obučavanja, to jest načina na koji se obuke mogu sprovoditi: prezentovanje, vođenje, koučing, facilitacija, uz analizu njihovih snaga i slabosti, pri čemu saznajemo da se tim modelom ne iscrpljuju sve uloge koje realizator obuke može da ima.

Najviše pažnje je posvećeno modelima projektovanja obuka, to jest modelima formiranja obrazovnog ciklusa. Raspoznaje se približno stotinu modela (sistema instruktivnog dizajna) od kojih svaki sadrži tri procesa – analize, razvoja i evaluacije. Autorka opisuje osnovni ADDIE model, koji predstavlja bazu za brojne druge modele i sačinjen je od pet sukcesivnih etapa; sukcesivni aproksimativni model koji podrazumeva ponavljanje malih koraka na osnovu čega se projektovanje obuke razvija; sistemski dizajn obuke (Dikov i Kerijev model) sa izdvojenih čak deset etapa, koje nam daju smernice za planiranje, ali i podsećaju od čega uspeh obuke može da zavisi (poput ulaznih kompetencija polaznika obuke, njihove motivacije i stavova, konteksta za učenje, konteksta u kojem će se naučeno primenjivati i sl.) i druge.

U poglavlju „Razvoj veština i njihov transfer" postavlja se pitanje koliko je vežbanja tokom obuke potrebno, da li vežbanje treba organizovati po celinama ili po delovima, kako vremenski organizovati sesije, koje su faze raspoznatljive u toku formiranja veština, mogućnost prilagođavanja tempa vežbanja individualnim potrebama. Razmatrajući mogućnost transfera veština naučenih tokom obuke u realno okruženje, autorka ukazuje na to da je stepen u kojem se taj cilj ostvari zapravo pokazatelj uspešnosti obuke, uz uslov da omogućava korišćenje naučenog u novim uslovima i izgrađivanje novih navika.

U poglavlju „Evaluacija obuka" usvaja se određenje evaluacije kojim se naglašava delatna svrha tog procesa – donošenje efikasnih odluka o obuci. Pri-

kazano je šest modela evaluacije kroz koje dobijamo preporuke šta, kako i kada treba vrednovati. Recimo, u Brinkerhofovom modelu se izdvaja čak šest nivoa evaluacije, od kojih je samo jedan procena ostvarenosti neposrednih ishoda – to jest procena onoga što su polaznici naučili.

U poglavlju „Istraživanja obuka i obučavanja – šta ostaje od očekivanja i šta pokazuju procenjivanja" ukazuje se na specifičnost monografije u odnosu na dosadašnje naučne doprinose, koja se ogleda u orijentaciji na istraživačke rezultate, umesto na teorijska razmatranja. Autorka upozorava da populacija nezaposlenih lica starijih od 50 godina u Srbiji nije optimistična da obuke mogu da doprinesu njihovoj zapošljivosti. Aktuelna situacija potvrđuje tačnost njihove procene, budući da veliki broj polaznika ostaje nezaposlen i nakon završenih obuka. Upoznaje nas sa načinom i rezultatima evaluacije kvaliteta obuka sprovedenih sa odraslim polaznicima u našoj zemlji i regionu i povezuje očekivanja učesnika obuka sa time kako ih oni procenjuju, a čitalac razume da ostvarenje očekivanja ne zavisi samo od karakteristika polaznika i kvaliteta obuke već i od ukupne društveno-ekonomske situacije.

Monografija *Obuka za odrasle, susret očekivanja i procenjivanja* ima veliki značaj pre svega za svakog pojedinca čiji je zadatak osmišljavanje, realizacija ili evaluacija obuke namenjene odraslima. Ona nudi niz jasno iznetih preporuka za konciranje adekvatnih programa, pomaže realizatorima obuka da kritički sagledaju, ocene i prilagode svoj način rada i svoju ulogu, a polaznicima obuka pruža referentni okvir za razmatranje svojih iskustava. U opisanim modelima instruktivnog dizajna na pregledan način se iznose smernice za osmišljavanje procesa učenja ne samo u sektoru obuka za odrasle već i za pojedince zaposlene u srednjim stručnim školama i na fakultetima (budući da svaka profesionalizacija zahteva sticanje određenih veština i kompetencija koje valja primeniti u neposrednom radnom kontekstu), kako bi se učenje odvijalo na efikasan, fleksibilan i jasno usmeren način. Obuhvatnost tema i bogatstvo informacija ostavlja nas sa utiskom da se na temu obučavanja odraslih još malo toga može dodati i da naučna javnost ima pred sobom zaokruženu celinu iscrpno iznetih saznanja.

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Prikaz knjige

O knjizi Kristinke Ovesni:
Andragoški aspekti organizacione klime i organizaciono učenje

Monografija prof. dr Kristinke Ovesni *Andragoški aspekti organizacione klime i organizaciono učenje*[1] nastala je u okviru projekta „Modeli procenjivanja i strategije unapređenja kvaliteta obrazovanja" i realizovana u Institutu za pedagogiju i andragogiju Filozofskog fakulteta u Beogradu. Studija autorke Ovesni je rezultat dobro osmišljenog teorijsko-empirijskog istraživanja odabranih fenomena i njihove međuzavisnosti kojom se upotpunjuju i unapređuju postojeća andragoška teorija i praksa na tom području. Pritom smo saglasni sa autorkom ove monografije da je reč o „multidimenzionalnim konstruktima" koji, s obzirom na takvu realnost, podrazumevaju i druge perspektive, naročito psihološku, tim pre što ti „termini", kao što s pravom zapaža K. Ovesni, nisu dovoljno ni teorijski ni empirijski istraženi u andragoškoj literaturi.

Monografija *Andragoški aspekti organizacione klime i organizaciono učenje* sadrži 199 strana osnovnog teksta, strukturiranog u nekoliko zasebnih celina. Osim predgovora i zaključnih razmatranja, monografiju čine poglavlja „Teorijski okvir istraživanja", „Metodološki okvir istraživanja" i „Rezultati istraživanja i diskusija". Na kraju su dati rezime na engleskom jeziku, indeks imena i pojmova i spisak literature koji sadrži 247 korišćenih jedinica.

U teorijskom delu rada K. Ovesni s razlogom posvećuje pažnju pojmovima organizaciona klima i organizaciono učenje, ukazujući i na izvesne razlike u stručnoj literaturi u tumačenju njihove suštine i sadržaja. To se naročito odnosi na definisanje organizacione klime koju pojedini autori izjednačavaju sa organizacionom kulturom ili psihološkom klimom. U analizi tog koncepta autorka upotrebljava brojne stručne izvore, posebno profesionalnu literaturu sa engleskog govornog područja, sučeljava različita stanovišta o istraživanoj pojavi i pažljivo izvodi ocene i zaključke. Uzimajući u obzir više perspektiva u analizi organizaci-

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[1] Ovesni, K. (2019). *Andragoški aspekti organizacione klime i organizaciono učenje*. Beograd: Institut za pedagogiju i andragogiju Filozofskog fakulteta Univerziteta u Beogradu.

one klime odnosno njeno oblikovanje „u različitim naučnim područjima i disciplinama“, Ovesni zaključuje da se taj pojam može razumeti „kao refleksija organizacione kulture koja egzistira nezavisno od percepcije zaposlenih“, ali i „kao relativno trajni opis organizacije koji kroz međusobnu interakciju konstruišu zaposleni“. Autorka se posebno bavi andragoškim aspektima organizacione klime, naglašavajući da od toga u velikoj meri zavisi spremnost zaposlenih da se uključe u aktivnosti obrazovanja i učenja.

U svojoj studiji autorka sveobuhvatno obrazlaže celinu pojma organizaciono učenje. Pritom navodi i tumači različite pristupe, odnosno perspektive u objašnjenjima organizacionog učenja – kognitivističku, kulturološku, interpretativnu, holističku, funkcionalnu i druge kako bi se taj fenomen što svestranije razumeo. U tom smislu, K. Ovesni zaključuje da se organizaciono učenje „odnosi na razvoj novog znanja ili sticanje novih uvida koji mogu da utiču na promenu ponašanja zaposlenih“.

Drugo poglavlje u ovoj studiji – „Metodološki okvir istraživanja“ sadrži više bitnih odrednica: predmet istraživanja, cilj istraživanja, istraživačka pitanja, opšte hipoteze istraživanja, širok spektar neophodnih i opširno obrazloženih varijabli istraživanja, metod i tehnike istraživanja, kao i organizaciju i tok istraživanja. Napominjemo da struktura istraživanja koje je usmereno na proučavanje andragoških aspekata organizacione klime i organizacionog učenja podrazumeva i kvantitativnu i kvalitativnu komponentu. U kvantitativnoj komponenti istraživanja koje je obuhvatilo 687 zaposlenih u organizacijama u Srbiji ispitivan je njihov odnos, kao i „odnos organizacije prema učenju zaposlenih“, primenom instrumenta sa 22 ajtema. Druga – kvalitativna komponenta istraživanja odnosi se na analizu prikupljenih podataka pomoću polustrukturisanog intervjua sa 85 zaposlenih u različitim organizacijama u Republici Srbiji. Na taj način autorka je celovito osmislila pristup istraživanom problemu, utoliko pre što u stručnoj literaturi preovladava stanovište da svako istraživanje u organizacijama (kulture organizacije, organizacione klime i dr.) pretpostavlja dobro utemeljeno empirijsko istraživanje (videti, na primer, Jary, D., & Jary, J. [1991]. *Dictionary of Sociology*, London: Harper Colins Publishers i dr.).

U trećoj i najobimnijoj strukturalnoj celini svoje monografije Ovesni obrazlaže rezultate empirijskog istraživanja koje je, kao što smo već konstatovali, imalo kvantitativnu i kvalitativnu komponentu. Tako kvantitativna komponenta istraživanja objašnjava odnos organizacije prema učenju zaposlenih, njihovo mišljenje i stavove prema organizacionom učenju. Bitan podatak u ovom istraživanju je da 68,7% ispitanika ocenjuje da ih organizacija podstiče da uče od kolega i da im omogućava da učestvuju u obuci na radnom mestu (52,7%). Znatan broj zaposlenih (36,5%) potvrđuje da im organizacija obezbeđuje čitanje stručne

literature i učešće na stručnim skupovima (36,5%). Ne bi valjalo potceniti ni podatak dobijen u istraživanju da 43,1% ispitanika iznosi mišljenje „da im organizacija u kojoj su zaposleni ne obezbeđuje posebne prilike za učenje" (str. 98). To, isto tako, znači da organizacionu klimu valja posmatrati i iz aspekta individue i iz konteksta organizacije u kojoj su ti pojedinci zaposleni. Empirijski nalazi takođe pokazuju da aktivnosti učenja i obrazovanja zaposlenih u organizacionom okviru pretpostavljaju uzimanje „u obzir i individualne (biosocijalne, radne) i karakteristike organizacije u kojima su subjekti zaposleni".

Rezultate dobijene u kvantitativnoj komponenti istraživanja, autorka dopunjuje i produbljuje veoma ilustrativnom kvalitativnom komponentom istraživanja. U tom kontekstu indikativno je kritičko preispitivanje mesta i uloge službe za ljudske resurse u organizaciji u odnosu na razvoj zaposlenih, naročito u poduzorku ispitivanih žena. Značajno je i saznanje koje proističe iz kvalitativne komponente istraživanja da u organizacijama postoje tri oblika organizovanja neformalnih aktivnosti učenja i obrazovanja: a) aktivnosti učenja koje organizuje menadžment ili grupa zaposlenih, iako im to nije osnovna nadležnost, b) aktivnosti učenja i obrazovanja koje organizuje postojeća služba za menadžment ili razvoj ljudskih resursa i c) aktivnosti učenja i obrazovanja „koje organizuju sami zaposleni".

U celini posmatrano, teorijsko-empirijska studija dr Kristinke Ovesni *Andragoški aspekti organizacione klime i organizaciono učenje* označava bitan iskorak u naučnom i profesionalnom promišljanju međuzavisnosti tih složenih pojava, odnosno andragoških aspekata obrazovanja i učenja odraslih u specifičnijem, ali važnom kontekstu. Tome je svakako doprinela izvanredna upoznatost autorke sa našom i literaturom na engleskom jeziku sa tog i srodnih područja, ali i njena zavidna profesionalna kompetentnost na temelju kojih su iskristalisana nova andragoška saznanja, značajna i za teoriju i za praksu obrazovanja i učenja odraslih u celini. Stoga preporučujem ovu monografiju prof. dr Kristinke Ovesni kako bi se stručna javnost, ali i širi krug čitalaca upoznali sa njenim sadržajem i temeljnim andragoškim porukama autorke.

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