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BETWEEN CULTURAL AND NATURAL HERITAGE: PLURALISM IN PLANNING TOURISM PRODUCTS FOR RESCUING “THE LOST (OGOJA) PROVINCE”, NORTH- CENTRAL CROSS RIVER STATE, NIGERIA

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Abstract

Between cultural and natural heritage: pluralism in planning tourism products for rescuing “the lost (Ogoja) province”, north-central Cross River State, Nigeria

The planning of tourism products in the north-central Cross River State (corresponding to ‘old Ogoja province’) is examined in this study. Explained in the article are: justification of the need for undertaking community-based tourism development strategy as a means of reducing inter-regional disparity in development aroused by historical discrimination against the region through eras of Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade, colonialism, and successive post-independent governments; creation of special development funds aimed at addressing challenges posed by personalization of government thereby creating governance deficits; and descriptions of the tourism potentials/resources of the north-central Cross River State. Rather than adopting the advice of tourism experts in the 1960s that African countries ought to prefer to design cultural-heritage tourism products aiming towards attracting some 145 million tourists from the United States of America (USA) who might be satiated with natural heritage tourism products offered back home. Here, it is argued here that considering myriad socio-economic-political dynamics thereafter – including anti-African/Nigerian political measures such as barring US citizens from visiting Nigeria or parts of it- there is no need concentrating on such restricted tourism products. This is justified by the fact that with nearly 170 million population –most of whom are expecting to move from poverty towards the middle class among other prosperous economic statuses and who do not need to immediately access foreign natural heritage tourism, there is need for north-central Cross River State –a region possessing diverse tourism resources to plan tourism products that seek to integrate natural heritage with the cultural varieties in order to properly capture both local and foreign tourists. Foreign tourists here covers a larger spectrum beyond US visitors including visitors from large and increasing number of member states of the United Nations.

Key words

Tourism, products, north-central, Cross River State, natural, cultural, heritage

1. Introduction

The 1960s was a decade of vigorous tourism discourse with regards to Africa: 1967 was declared by the United Nations as the International Year of Tourism with the latter's sub-title "Passport to Peace" based on the optimism that tourism promised to foster increasing understanding among people who get involved in travel to places other than their usual residences and workplaces to enjoy tourism products. Following in the footsteps of the UN, the Dag Hammarskjöld Foundation (DHF), established to honour the untimely demises of the second Secretary-General of the UN in a controversial air-crash in 1961, managed two four-week workshops in 1969 and 1970 respectively, aiming to bring African civil servants mandated to drive national tourism sectors up to the speed with the responsibilities of the sector. Over four decades (precisely 43 years –counting from 1970) after these vigorous tourism promotional activities, the nearly ubiquitous poverty of African economies –partly the result of neoliberal globalization (Ingwe Ikeji Ojong 2010) might be indicative of tourism sector failure to make appreciable contribution to the growth of African countries' economies. Tourism failure in Nigeria might be traced to the country's misfortune of descending into the "resource curse" or "petro-capitalism". The latter describes the quagmire of nearly half a century culture of over-reliance on petroleum oil for generating over 90 per cent of its national revenue that is shared by its three tiers of government (Wigley 2012, 120; Ingwe 2013a). The peace that was expected to result from tourism and travel generally and specifically the planning/management of the sector as a means of realizing the expected peace at both national and (sub)national levels seem to have remained a mirage.

The foregoing failure of tourism to foster peace and social order conducive for attaining sustainable development has been the case with the pioneering tourism development in Nigeria in the Cross River State, one of the country's 36 states has attempted to move ahead of the national government to take tourism to a higher level. Academic research and activism interests in the exclusion of northern and central parts of Cross River State - one of Nigeria's 36 federal states – from the tourism sector of the sub-national region has increased recently. Although, the entire sub-national region was described in the 1980s as one of Nigeria's "economically backward regions" due to its lack of significant natural resources (one of the several minerals such as coal, tin and Columbite, or petroleum oil, among others) that were responsible for the development of some towns and regions in Nigeria (Omuta and Onokheroraye 1986), this point was an unnecessary exaggeration that downplayed the fact that some of the more advanced parts of the country were not those that were well endowed with natural resources but gained from political forces such as being sites of politicians' work and/or residences or serve as points of commerce and other factors. The latter two points explain the persistence of Calabar as a recurring area for investment of public development resources as a means of initially creating infrastructure for assisting transatlantic slave trade (TST), British colonial rule, post-slave trade commerce involving Europeans, and post-independent governments (Ingwe 2013 a,c,d).

Calabar urban region, and to a lesser extent the rest of the rapidly urbanizing Southern Cross River State has been an area that has gained successively through the various socio-economic eras (Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade, colonial rule, post-independent indigenous government). In addition to Calabar region's gain from the successive investment by leaders of the foregoing historical epochs, Nigeria's Fourth Republic (i.e. the fourth return of the country's government to civil democracy after

prolonged military dictatorship that started in 1966 and ended with shaming of the series of dictatorships out of government. This end of dictatorship arrived in May 1999 after the Sani Abacha dictatorship and its predecessor IB Babangida, were indicted (or observed and believed to be enmeshed in) of perpetrating scandalous atrocities (public treasury looting, cultural fundamentalism, dishonesty with regards to unnecessary elongation of the programme for transiting from the dictatorship to democracy, among others).

The Fourth Republic governorship of Mr. Donald Duke in Cross River State (1999-2007) was the period of resuscitation of the region's tourism sector which had always been dormant except for elitist tourist site creation and administration for the exclusive enjoyment of the elite at the Obudu Ranch Plateau. The latter's founding and development is credited to Europeans in around the late 1940s. Later, the Obudu Cattle Ranch, as it was then tagged, fell into the mis-management of the second Republic politicians and dictators who returned in 1985 and stayed until the late 1990s (Ingwe 2004). Cross River State tourism sector resuscitation involved a new prioritization of the economic focal points of the sub-national region such that tourism for the first time was officially recognized as an important one

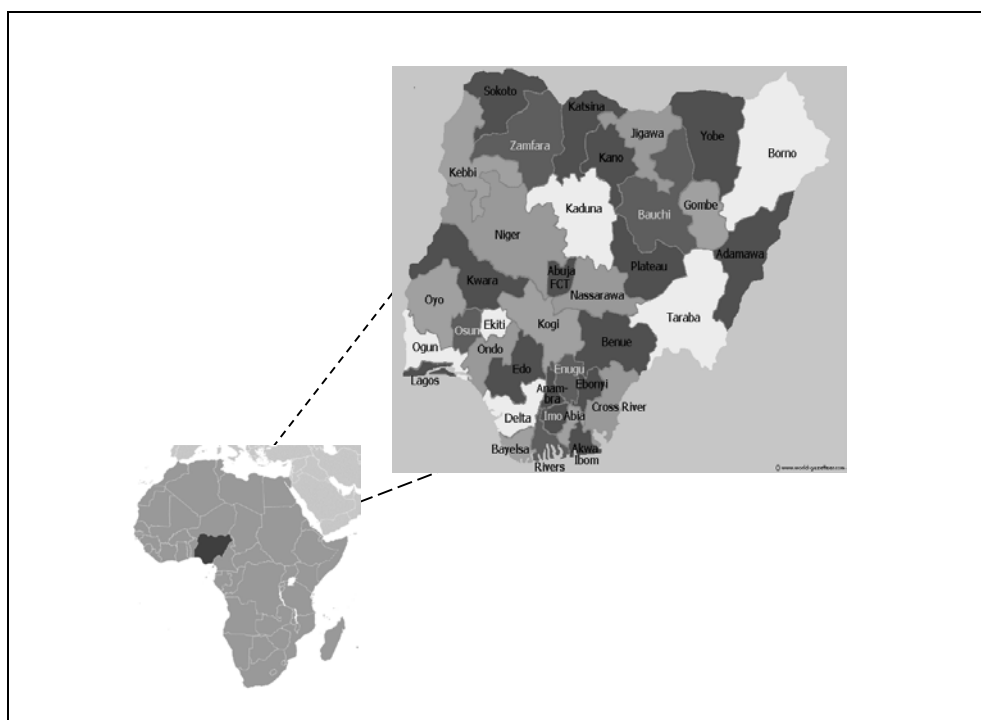


Fig. 1: Nigeria's 36 states and Federal Capital Territory projected from Africa.

Source: (1) <http://www.worldofcultures.org/1024/africa/AfricaMaps/nigeria.gif>; (2) <http://www.world-gazetteer.com>; Ingwe, 2014.

whose contribution to the sub-national gross domestic product was considered capable of improving its socio-economic conditions. Another important point here concerns the sustenance of the civilian democratic administration beyond four years as was the case in the second Republic when the Republic was abruptly aborted at

the point of transitioning from the first four-year term to another (when the political life of the second term was killed by dictators led by the duo of Generals Muhammadu Buhari and Tunde Idiagbon) in 1983. Also significant is the fact that after the eight-year Duke Administration (1999-2007), the official recognition of tourism as a budding sector of the sub-national economy has been sustained by the succeeding Imoke administration (2007-2016). In the context of marginalization of the old Ogoja province from the overall tourism development programme of the Cross River State, the mission of rescuing the excluded region has to stick to the tourism development programme but adopting alternative strategies that may not depend on the State government that has demonstrated unwillingness to take the Ogoja region upwards in the development ladder. The question that requires answer at this point is: Between cultural heritage and natural heritage; what tourism products should the "lost Ogoja province" prefer to develop in their self-rescue effort?

The marginalization of old Ogoja province has been a challenge that presents multiple dimensions. The old Ogoja province is the only one of Nigeria's less than 20 old provinces that has been excluded from series of political redistricting or transformation of the provinces' status into federal states endowed with qualifications to receive statutorily allocated development funds from the federal tier of government in what otherwise been described as the politics of state creation (Ojo and Adebayo 2008). However, here the emphasis is on the marginalization of the old Ogoja province within the region's current enclosure in Cross River State, one of Nigeria's present 36 states in terms of the tourism development agenda governed by the latter since Nigeria's Fourth Republic (1999-2013).

1.1 Purpose, objectives and organisation

The purpose of this study is to contribute towards the ongoing tourism and (sub)national regional sustainable development programme in Cross River State, Nigeria, recently initiated against the backdrop of the marginalization of the old Ogoja province. This project is managed by one of Africa's leading sustainable development think-tanks, the Centre for Research and Action on Developing Locales, Regions and the Environment (CRADLE). While some publications spun-off from this research programme relevant to this study are appropriately cited here and in the references (Ingwe 2013a,c,d), others either accessible elsewhere or exist in the organization's files. The objective of this present article is to elucidate on the possibilities of fashioning out of appropriate tourism products that the old Ogoja province could concentrate on –under the proposed community-based tourism programme being planned- as means of attracting tourists to its sites for revenue generation. To achieve the aforementioned objective, the remainder of the article is organized in sections to achieve other specific objectives as follows: the suitability of pluralism as a theoretical framework for explaining and understanding tourism development in an excluded part of a sub-national region is demonstrated; This is followed on by a description of the way old Ogoja province was excluded from the ongoing Cross River State tourism development programme is undertaken to provide a background for understanding the context for the proposal for community-based tourism development for the region is undergone. Afterwards, why the community-based tourism programme for the old Ogoja province becomes necessary is clarified. A link is established between socio-economic and political characteristics and trends in international tourism/politics to programming design of Ogoja tourism-initiative. The potentials for cultural and natural heritage tourism in the north-central Cross River State are highlighted. Finally, the article is concluded by drawing some vital conclusions and offering some recommendations.

2. Linking pluralism theoretical framework tourism development in an excluded sub-national region

Recognized as a theory, pluralism is concerned with causation that involves diverse influences and/or factors that determine the occurrence of phenomena. The term has been applied in connotation with the following situations:

1. Perception of behavior. Some radical views in politics and philosophy have argued that Marxist materialist monism, a belief that myriad factors led to considerable opposition to this approach as well as the law-determined interpretation of the society's development. Pluralism has also been applied in an extended way to refer to a doctrine pertaining to the diversity of cultural, ideological, radical, national, class, gender, among other characteristics of phenomena;
2. Pluralism has also been used connotation with contradiction of the class theory as well as to challenge state-centrism deriving from pressure by the involvement of diverse factors within the political environment at different levels (nationally, sub-nationally and/or internationally). Pluralism theory –encompassing all the aforementioned perspectives- has been applied as an alternative to the Marxist class perspective for analyzing domestic politics and international political systems. In addition to providing a theoretical framework (or doctrine) for opposing Marxism, pluralism theory presents a useful alternative for understanding the multiplicity of factors that actually exist in society thereby presenting it with dynamism of varying degrees depending on the strength of the person(s) employing it.

Some people have suggested that division of society into social classes and the flourishing of modern electoral democracy, which was recognized by several revolutionaries before the “cold war” confirms the relevance of the term (pluralism) in moving society forward. The “cold war” era represents a period that pluralism was frequently employed by opposing schools of thought to absolutise their own “truths” (Ingwe 2005).

Political scientist, Lincoln Allison, writes that pluralism has been employed in philosophical theories and systems of thought that appreciate various influences i.e. involving more than one ultimate principle contrasted to those exhibiting “monist” characteristics. The United States of America is a place where pluralism was employed for legitimizing and/or rationalizing the nation's constitution by various ethno-cultural groups (African Americans, Jewish Americans, Indian Americans, among other constituents) rather than resorting to occasional delusive optimism that such ethnic diversity would disappear through some evasive action. The term has also been employed to literally refer to belief in the coexistence of more than one entity, belief system, perspectives among other multiplicities. Pluralism's contemporary meaning refers to the formation of modern society by diverse cultural among other groups that constitutes the society's major political essence. Differing from the nearly historical dominance of society by the elites (ruling class), pluralism of groups facilitates horizontal distinction of society. This is viewed by some as more advantageous and important compared to the hierarchical type form of society. The elites are known to either ignore and/or manipulate various constituents of society such as communities, villages, trade unions, Churches, Religious groups and so forth (Scott and Marshall 2005).

2.1 Pluralism and positivist orthodoxy in some academic disciplines and works

Some sociologists rebelled against what they perceived to be prolonged hegemony of positivist orthodoxy (describing application of only one approach to social research) in the 1970s. The single approach referred to by the rebels of social research was founded on a unified philosophy and methodology of social sciences that enthroned a sort of academic dictatorship in research within Sociology. The works so indicted as representing hegemonic positivist orthodoxy or enforcing methodological exclusiveness in Sociology included those of two eminent sociologists. Prominent among them was Talcott Parsons, a person recognized as a reputable sociologist and credited with developing theories of functionalism. Also indicted was the author of 'abstracted empiricism', Paul Lazarsfeld. Paul Feyerabend's works entitled "Against Method" expressed the concerns of these rebels about Talcott Parson's ideas on functionalism (The Social System; Towards a General Theory of Action – a collaboration with Edward Shills 1951; Societies: Evolutionary and Comparative Perspectives 1966; The System of Modern Societies 1971). Paul F. Lazarsfeld's works including: The People's Choice: How the Voter makes up His Mind in the Presidential Campaign - with Bernard Berelson and Hazel Gaudet 1988); –being a revised edition of the original edition of 1944); Personal Influence: The Part Played by People in the Flow of Mass Communication - with Elihu Katz 1955). The foregoing reflected Lazarsfeld's interests in promoting survey research and theories of the middle range: These made critics' association of him with "abstracted empiricism" somewhat unjustified.

As a means of changing the positivist orthodoxy situation considered by the rebels as undesirable, the latter researchers promoted an approach they claimed allows many styles and methods of sociology to be applied in research. What some describe as epistemological anarchy (i.e. application of various research methods and theories) in sociological research was advocated as a means of redeeming the discipline from the stranglehold of tyrannical positivist orthodoxy that the discipline was hitherto held. Major academic research outcomes of this rebellion include: phenomenological and structuralist sociologies. Marxism, which was not spared the indictment, was divided into neo-Marxist factions while philosophical relativism was also founded. In order to categorise and describe them, the terms epistemological pluralism or epistemological anomie were coined to denote the diversity of theories of knowledge or paradigms that started competing with those were viewed as presenting symptoms of the positivist orthodoxy in sociological studies. Justification of the creation of this academic sociological pluralism included the argument that if natural scientists frequently engage in altering their research methods when they consider such as necessary -instead of needlessly sticking to existing ones as if they had become slaves to their work-tools (theories and methods) that had become ineffective; sociologists ought to emulate such adventures.

However, the rebellious claim about hegemony within sociology in form of positivist orthodoxy was debunked by assertions that the desired methodological pluralism was already in existence prior to the rebellion of the 1970s. As a way of buttressing this rejoinder, critics drew attention to previous literature that documented the use of diverse philosophical and/or methodological alternatives. A few of them include: Marxism, idealism, symbolic interactionism, among others (Scott and Marshall 2005). Pluralism theory is relevant to the planning of tourism products in north-central Cross River State for many reasons. As would be elaborated later, a major relevance of the pluralism theory here concerns the view espoused by experts of tourism in the 1960s concerning the kind of tourism products that African countries should place premium

on: cultural heritage. Although that advice aiming to attract tourists from the USA who were considered as people who had enjoyed much of natural heritage tourism products (beaches, among others) abundant in their country, was rather restrictive of the global tourism market –comprising a large number of countries in the membership of the United Nations and counting as well as domestic market of the destination. Therefore, pluralism is relevant for appreciating diversity in tourism products planning and marketing.

2.2. Methods and data

The investigation of tourism products design for an area under Nigeria's sub-national regions (36 states and federal capital, Abuja) and the inequality that ensues due to personalization of state government –a problem that was acknowledged at the African regional level in the 1990s – is a recent issue that is yet to receive adequate academic research attention. For such novel research projects, description has been presented as a research method- that is preferable, appropriate and deserves to be employed for implementing studies aimed at investigating issues. This decision to adopt description and the operationalisation of the description method was justified because it is a method that fits such situations whereby new research issues, and directions are to be undertaken. Moreover, for similar or the same reasons, description facilitates the generation of clues that are capable of highlighting research areas that provides hints at identifying or highlighting plausible hypotheses that could be used for exploration in future studies that are beyond the particular level(s) of the study being implemented at that moment. The preference for descriptive methods in this is justified by the way it demands less of quantification but emphasizes qualitative analyses focusing on highlighting aspects of phenomena that are yet to gain much research attention (Ogunniyi 1992). Data were obtained from various sources: secondary sources provided data on the tourism potentials by various geographic clusters and by type as well as specialized tourism resources/destinations in the study region (Ingwe 2013d).

3. Exclusion (through delay of) northern-central Cross River State from tourism development

The Duke administration (1999-2007) is to blame for the exclusion of northern and central districts from the Cross River State's tourism programme. The north-central Cross River State roughly corresponds to the region that has been christened Nigeria's "lost Province (Ogoja)". Lost because it is the only one of Nigeria's old provinces whose political fortunes never changed due to systematic exclusion in multiple dimensions: dictatorship, political, socio-economically, among others (Manton 2008). Details of how the Duke administration accomplished the exclusion of the old Ogoja province from the sub-national regional tourism programme has been elaborated recently. It involved the employment of Machiavellian tactics to emasculate politicians of the old Ogoja region from the political (and by extension economic) sphere or scheme locally and nationally. This was followed on by moving the site of tourism infrastructural development investment from the Obudu Ranch (initially a Ranch but now a Resort) to the Southern Cross River State, where the TINAPA Resort was rapidly built within a short time in an opaque operation.

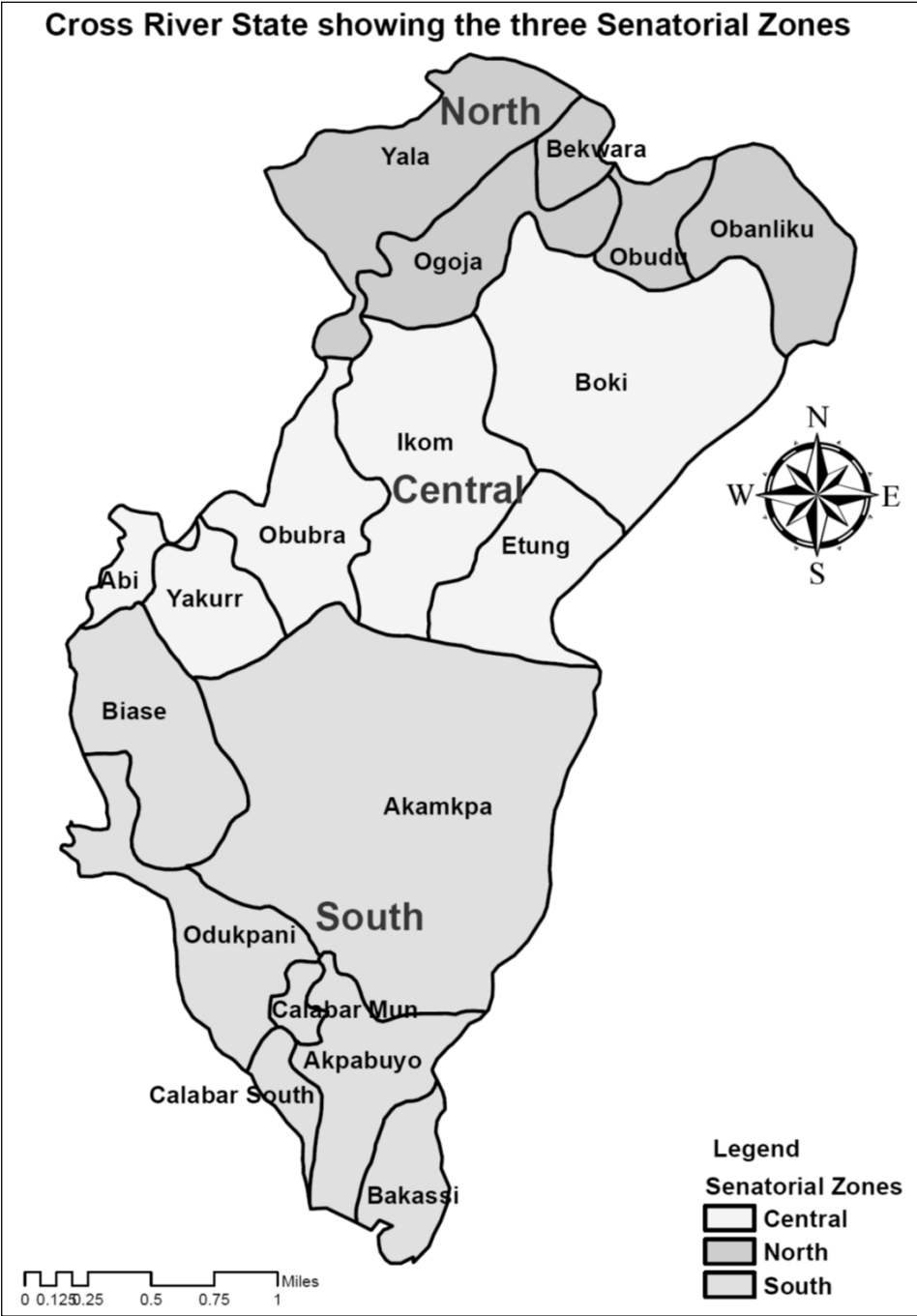


Fig. 2: Cross River State; three geo-political zones (Northern, Central and Southern) Senatorial Districts and Local Government Areas
Source: CrossRiverWatch, 2013 (March/April): 01/04.

Activists including Chief Obono Obla question the Duke administration's building of the so called Africa's pioneering leisure with business resort in a manner that was so personal to Mr. Donald Duke and his wife: Onari that and widely deplored by other indigenes of the Cross River State. It remains unknown whether the building of TINAPA was funded by public or private funds. While, the project was initially reported by Duke during his second four-year term to be funded through part of the funds statutorily allocated to the state's Local Government Areas (LGAs) from Abuja and published issuance of bonds to borrow money from the public as popular journals attests to, Duke claimed that TINAPA was the product of private investment on the eve of his eight-year administration coinciding with the commissioning of the project in April 2007. Very significant to this article is that over NG=N=45 billion had been spent on developing the tourism infrastructure by April 2007 (CrossRiverWatch 2013; Ingwe 2013a). The exclusion of northern and central parts of Cross River State also involved the Duke administration's downplaying of the fact that being more of historical monuments and/or natural resources comprising "27 stone circles" spread across the central-north, and cultural performing arts in the north, tourism potentials of these regions were/are those requiring less cost to provide infrastructure compared to applying NG=N=45 billion for building the more expensive infrastructure for the TINAPA (Ingwe 2013).

4. Why Community-based tourism development in north-central Cross River State?

In some Third World countries blighted by personalization of government –describing abuse of political power in form of applying it for selfish gains and without considering the welfare and developmental needs of people who frequently constitute cultural groups urgently requiring government attention), special autonomous development funds have been created that is free of destination government (political interference) from non-government donor sources and applied towards ameliorating the socio-economic and political plight of such victimized groups. This strategy initiated in the 1990s by creative individuals in the secretariat of the Dag Hammarskjöld Foundation (DHF), the Swedish philanthropic organization established by Swedes and their international friends to honour the untimely death in a fatal plane crash in 1961 of the former United Nations Secretary-General original bearer of the name that is now commemorated by that of the Foundation at Ndola, Zambia prompted some international governmental organizations and donor agencies to adopt this strategy for outreaching people facing socio-economic dire-straits around the world. Although never known in the development community hitherto, it became an extra-sovereign government mechanism that proved to alleviate the socio-economic conditions of cultural groups held to ransom by rival cultural groups dominating the affairs of the state at times that the victimized population's conditions transit from that of acceptable to unacceptable compared to those of others within one state's territory. This strategy attempted to address frequent challenges in Africa whereby persons heading governments grab and personalize public funds and allocate same in arbitrary and discretionary ways based on their whims and caprices (Hyden 2012, 94). While the exclusion of the old Ogoja province in northern-central Cross River State from the ongoing tourism programme and previous historical exclusion from various development programmes deserves to be viewed as a kind of discrimination that should be redressed through such an autonomous extra-government development fund, neither the Ogoja province nor another part of Nigeria –apart from Ogoniland in Rivers state – is known to have gained from the fund mentioned above. The proposal for establishing a community-based tourism development programme in

northern and central Cross River State responds to the ongoing marginalization of this north-central Cross River State from the sub-national region's budding tourism sector. This proposal has been justified by the argument that thoroughly disenfranchised with historical exclusion of the old Ogoja region from the socio-economic-political schemes of the Cross River State including the knowledge that almost all public establishments in the state were located in the Southern part as at the early 1990s. Thus, representatives and leadership of the Ogoja had in their proposal for the creation of a separate (Ogoja) state –for the region and submitted to the dictatorship of Ibrahim B. Babangida in 1992 (recently re-submitted to President Goodluck Jonathan and the House of Representatives) of the National Assembly/Parliament identified tourism as one of the potentials their region possessed and wished to develop as a means of attaining economic viability. Significantly, the proposal for Ogoja state to be made viable through tourism sector development predates the Duke administration's resuscitation of the tourism sector in the early 2000s and might have most likely have been inspired by the Ogoja state creation request and its economic viability justification. Put differently, the mishaps and misfortunes of not having had the Ogoja state created by the Babangida dictatorship and the hijacking of the tourism development vision contained in the 1992 Ogoja state request could be enough grounds to kill the tourism sector development dream of the Ogoja. That is, with the resources being in tact as divine gifts to the people and with Ogoja's vast human resources transferable into capital, the 1992 tourism vision must be realized. The strategy for realizing this tourism dream at this moment is achievable through community effort since the ongoing government has applied a combination of neoliberalising violence to wrongly invest the state public funds into the TINAPA, Marina resort, among other tourism resorts in southern Cross River State thereby excluding the northern and central parts of Cross River State.

Having suffered decades and centuries of marginalization under various forces and processes of socio-economic and environmental dynamics, it is considered high-time to employ the strategy of tourism recognized as one of the most vibrant economic sectors that generates revenue to regions that have prepared themselves; creates the most number of jobs; and markets for other goods; to come to the rescue of the "lost (Ogoja) province". Granted that wishes are not horses else beggars would ride them, there is need for approaching the subject with appropriate precautionary measures. In so doing, expected questions deserve posing and answering in this present project of generating information required for supporting and strengthening the Ogoja tourism sector development programme and conceptualizing the appropriate tourism products and services for the Ogoja region's interests, challenges, potentials. How does the proposal for tourism development in the "lost (Ogoja) province" bode with international trends, thinking, practices? What requires thinking, consideration and doing to realize the dream of developing Ogoja's tourism sector – which must be a community-driven variety – and as a means of catalyzing equalization of the stark historical disparity in socio-economic-physical development in Cross River State?

4.1 Potentials for cultural and natural heritage tourism in the north-central Cross River State

Some work has recently been done in terms of identifying cultural and natural heritage tourism potentials in this region

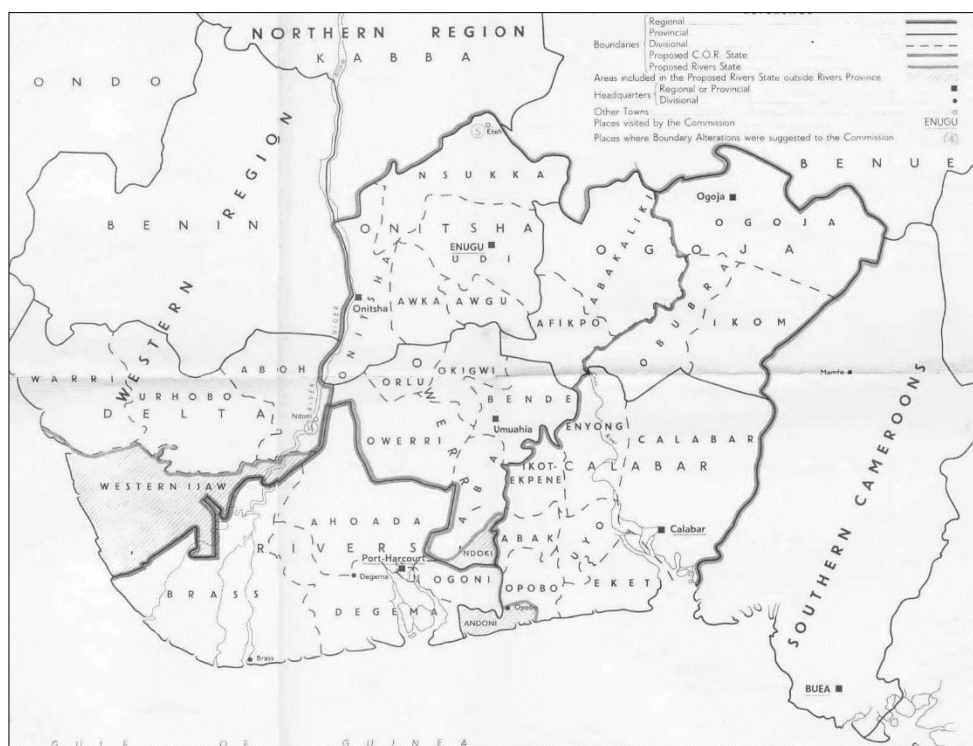


Fig. 3: Old Ogoja Province as part of former Eastern Nigeria.

5. Natural and Cultural heritage in northern and central Cross River State

5.1. Natural and Cultural heritage in central Cross River State

The 27 'stone circles' (monoliths) describing phallic artistic carvings of various complex designs and impressions on stones dotting this landscape and viewed as the most enthralling tourism attractions of this cultural region form the major tourism potentials of this region that is described by the Cross River State Government as the central cluster. These stone circles essentially represent cultural investments by natives of the region in the past because the people who created them lived several decades ago. Only a few of the 27 stone circles located at Alok and Nkarasi have reportedly been developed and presented to the tourism seeking public while those monoliths located outside these communities have been neglected. Associated with the monoliths is enormous cultural knowledge in the custody of the natives who lived the past decades, depicted on the stones knowledge covering various cultural points ranging from fertility, to records of facial tattoos, cultural values, mores, beliefs, among others. Other spoken-word knowledge forms associated with (and complementing) the tangible knowledge forms include vocal incantations, songs and dance routines. An example of the latter is the 'Ekpe' masquerade that attracts considerable interests from the natives and tourists. The size of investment to provide hospitality services within the locations of these monoliths is by far lower than the huge amounts of public funds (meant for the benefit of the entire Cross River State) invested by the state government on entirely and newly built environments (TINAPA Resort, Marina Resort, among others) for the enjoyment of a minority in Southern part of the State.

Natural heritage in Agbokim Waterfalls is located in Etung LGA, about 17 kilometres from Ikom town the capital of the Ikom Local Government Area, this natural heritage (also a component of the central tourism cluster) better deserved investment of public funds for many reasons. The waterfalls possess electricity generation potentials which were assessed some three to four decades ago to be promising but are yet to be developed. The waterfalls (which comprise seven streams that discharge from various heights to beds of lower elevation) add to the kaleidoscope of scenic tourism features or recreational attractions within the central cluster. Sadly, development of the tourism potentials of Agbokim waterfalls, like those of their Kwa Falls counterparts have been hampered by gross inadequacy of modern hospitality services/facilities such as staffed guest houses and hotels to serve the needs of tourists. The Okwango Division of the Cross River National Park, in Boki L. G. A., also located within the Central tourism cluster, is one of two components of this eco-tourism area. The other Division of the Cross River National Park (Oban) is located in the Southern cluster. Okwango component, like its counterpart (Oban Park) hosts a bio-diverse species of rare flora and fauna that attract a steady stream of tourists. However, the management of the Cross River National Park is the responsibility of the National Park Service, an agency of the Federal Government of Nigeria and outside the remit of the Cross River State Government.

5.2. Natural and ethno-cultural heritage in northern Cross River State

The Obudu Cattle Ranch had achieved international fame in the post-independence era due to the fact that it offers a temperate micro-climate within a largely tropical environment. Apart from being profusely described elsewhere in the literature (e.g. Ingwe 2004), its elaboration -beyond these introductory notes- here will not be undertaken because it has for long been hijacked by the elites who have always used it as their exclusive enjoyment thereby putting it outside the remit of what we describe as community-based tourism in the region. While not precluding the Obudu Ranch from a community-based tourism category by some political campaign that raises the injustice of its seizure by the elite, such requires further planning beyond the scope of this present study/article. The multiplicity of cultural expressions in the northern part of the state includes performing arts in form of dances, various other arts or forms of them and crafts.

One feature of the distinctiveness of each cultural group in Nigeria – and anywhere is its need to do its dances and songs in the ethnic group's language(s). Specialists of the Humanities and Arts, who describe dances as distinct 'languages' provide evidence that is useful here. Therefore, with as many as 44 different ethno-linguistic groups spread across Cross River State, this represents ubiquitous and diverse/variable expressions of dances on the landscape. This has been confirmed by records (videos of songs and dances in the sub-national region) from events such as the annual Calabar Christmas Festivals and similar ones. These exhibitions and recordings represent diversity of cultural expressions (songs, drums, sounds and the dances accompanying them) from various ethno-linguistic groups spread across the State. With only 18 local government areas, the 44 different ethno-linguistic groups could have translated into an average of about 2.5 languages per local government area except that some of the latter are more endowed with languages than others. Additionally, the variability and ubiquity of languages and their accompanying cultural expressions have been documented. The variability of cultural expressions in the state is analogous to the multiplicity of ethno-linguistic groups (or languages) in the State. With 44 different identified and documented indigenous languages - apart from the official languages (English, French and Chinese Mandarin) spoken by the various Cross

River State cultural groups (representing 10% of Nigeria's total 440 non-English languages) in the region in the mid-2000s, Cross River State is by that virtue, Nigeria's most culturally diverse in terms of ethno-linguistic cultures compared to the country's other 35 states and Federal Capital Territory, FCT (Nigeria 2006, 41-53). The foregoing could be extended. With the old Ogoja province accounting for 29 (65.9%) of the total 44 indigenous languages in the state, the bulk of languages and associated cultural expressions belong to this "lost province". Generally, it could be said that there is no part of the Cross River State that could be found without its indigenous languages and by extension its unique dance(s) or dance 'language(s)'. This cultural diversity reaches its zenith in Ukpe clan of Obudu LGA. In the latter anthropological theatre (Ubang clan) that has so far received poor attention from the governments, males and females, from their births learn and speak a language that differs from that spoken by the opposite gender in the same household ("Community where husbands, wives speak different languages").

Although known to be a rare experience worldwide by tourists who have been immensely enthralled by a people whose females and male members of one household speak different non-English languages, this virtue (or vice) of ubiquity and variability of the State's cultural endowment in the region is yet to be harnessed into tourism potentials that are capable of catalyzing revenue generation. Lack -or inadequacy- of infrastructure for promoting the diverse cultural expression through facilitation of performing arts (music, dance, among other aspects of cultural expressions) in this region is at its most serious level in northern Cross River State. The latter represents challenges that hamper the transformation of the foregoing cultural expressions into tourism potentials due to the diversity of potential cultural expressions that have been kept under-developed. Therefore, there is need to consider as urgent and imperative the establishment of performing arts complex(es) in northern Cross River State as compensation for historical negligence of the diverse cultural resources of the region as a beginning of the move towards reversing regional inequality against the sub-national region.

6. Linking socio-economic and political characteristics and trends in international tourism /politics to programming design of Ogoja tourism-initiative

6.1 What thinking prevailed in the 1960s

As part of the Dag Hammarskjöld Foundation's African tourism sector development – initiative in the 1960s (i.e. as far back as about half a century ago), it was advised that considering that about 145 million international tourists from the United States of America provided a sizable market that African countries were expected to plan towards attracting, special tourism products ought to remember those tourism products on offer in the USA. Thus, Pojislav Popovic, a United Nations tourism expert, thought that short-staying US tourists- especially those who would travel by charter flights to African countries would place premium on visiting the most catchy and most interesting tourism attractions such as places of cultural significance, cultural high-points, peoples life-styles of cultural significance, among others, and maybe game reserves. This thinking argued that since US tourism sector had numerous beaches, and elitist tourism sites aplenty there was no need for African tourism planners to emphasize such products in their tourism planning baskets (Wigley 2012, 124).

6.2 How we ought to view tourism products planning for north-central Cross River State presently in the second decade of 21st Century and beyond

The foregoing points were very well made. However, it is acknowledged here that modern tourism planning for the Ogoja region in particular and elsewhere must consider the foregoing argument and of course other pertinent factors. Planning tourism by considering the attraction of tourists from one country (be it the USA or any other one country) comes with the risk of what has become rather frequent in the foreign economic-diplomatic relations political baggage of the USA among other advanced countries of the global North: banning their nationals from visiting specific countries. This was a prolonged case with the US government which barred its citizens from visiting Nigeria in the dark days of dictatorship –especially the Sani Abacha regime (1993-1997) earlier described. The US Government also repeated the same policy later citing terror at the advent of the 11 September 2001 attack on the World Trade Centre and the Pentagon. More recently, it declared Nigeria a terrorist country during the youth militancy in the Niger Delta (1999-2009). This period coincided with the formal inauguration of Cross River State's tourism sector development programme. Although, the latter undertook a campaign to communicate the peaceful environment of the state –which is one of the Niger Delta region- this may not have been sufficient to persuade the US Government to excuse the Cross River State from the blanket ban of the Delta from receiving its citizens (US – Government-Department of State 2012). These represents enormous waste of scarce investments should a place that has been marginalized with a sub-national region in Nigeria (say, Ogoja) plan/design its tourism sector to expect tourist from a particular country that turns out later to place a travel ban on such a destination. An extension of this point is the market conceptualization factor: that of unnecessarily emphasizing on attracting tourists from one particular country out an increasing number of nation-states in the membership of the United Nations – currently at 193 (International Relations 2013).

Third is the forecasting of national economic prosperity vis a vis factually increasing economic prosperity at specific national levels – a factor believed to be associated with life-style shifts including increasing undertaking by individual citizens /residents of tourism-seeking travel locally and internationally. This is where the unnecessary emphasis on attracting tourists from one particular country runs the risk of failing to achieve the objective of generating revenue from such a source. This risk might have become near realization in the advent of the 2008 global financial crisis that degenerated into an economic crisis beginning from the USA to other states connected to the US economy (Brand and Sekler 2009).

As the experience of the Cross River State sub-national tourism sector has been one of pioneering tourism initiative of the Nigerian nation of 36 states competition for the mass tourism market is still at infancy. This is so because most of the states –like the federal government- remain entrapped in a petro-capitalist (mono-cultural economy) characterised by over-reliance on the export of petroleum oil –since the discovery of commercial deposits of this hydro-carbon in the late 1950s and more recently export of natural gas whose occurrence in association with the oil but has been wastefully flared/burnt during under-developed refining processes by oil-producing companies in connivance with government. This shows that with a population of nearly 170 million and rising rapidly, the Ogoja tourism programme could find a sizable domestic market within Nigeria for tourism products that combine what international and local tourists from Nigeria seek to patronize. This combine with claims of a growing economy should persuade academics to reasonably conclude that there exist in the rest of Nigeria and beyond sizable markets for tourism products of integrated nature for the Ogoja tourism destination. A final point on this subhead is that while designing

tourism packages exclusively for American tourists on chartered flights for about a few weeks stay in Africa/Cross River State, there is a greater need for attracting tourists from a larger combination of countries wishing to enjoy vacations of longer than a week say a month or more aiming to take in the kaleidoscope of the cultural and natural heritage abound in the north-central region.

7. Conclusion

This study has examined various aspects of tourism development in Cross River State. After examining the take-off of tourism sector development in the state in the late 1990s and early 2000s to discover the exclusion of the north-central parts of the region from the sector, it was recommended that the excluded old Ogoja province might benefit from a community-based tourism development programme which of course requires planning including tourism products on which premium must be placed in order to accomplish the goals of generating income for the people and communities that have been exposed to prolonged socio-economic exclusion. After examining the characteristics of the tourism resources of the north-central Cross River State and views that were expressed about the planning of tourism products in Africa in the 1960s as well as some socio-economic dynamics of later years up to the present, it is argued that there is a great need for integrating cultural heritage to cultural heritage as a means of attracting tourists from outside Nigeria and the budding (expanding) tourism market growing within the country that might yearn for the natural heritage tourism products that American tourism might downplay. Put differently, it is argued that there is no need planning tourism products aiming to attract tourists from one country (USA) when other tourists from several other countries have various tastes. Therefore, tourism products planning for the north-central Cross River State requires ideas and justifications drawn from evidence and creativity including considering socio-demographic, economic projections of tourism needs of the local population in Nigeria, Africa, before hinging any part of it on the global North countries where experience has shown presents precariousness of one form or the other. There is need for further research focusing on interrogating the effects of political bans of citizens of either a single country (e.g. USA) or group of countries within a specific supra-national region (say North America or the European Union) on outcomes of international tourist arrivals at particular (sub)national destinations preferably in Cross River State or elsewhere in Nigeria or Africa.

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**BETWEEN CULTURAL AND NATURAL HERITAGE: PLURALISM IN PLANNING
TOURISM PRODUCTS FOR RESCUING “THE LOST (OGOJA) PROVINCE”,
NORTH-CENTRAL CROSS RIVER STATE, NIGERIA**
Summary

Tourism sector development in Cross River State is a national leader because it has been ahead of its peers. It pioneered this economic diversification ahead of the rest of 35 sub-national regions (officially described as “states” and a “Federal Capital Territory” (in Abuja) into which Nigeria’s territory has been subdivided and organized to facilitate administration. Ruefully, Cross River State tourism development has been operating based on conceptual frames that betray confusion in economic managers’ capability to distinguish -and by extension- prioritize clearly among the existing arrays of tourism resources of two broad types/categories: naturally existing and culturally creatable counterparts possible in the sub-national region. Despite being a region that hosts Nigeria’s most popular and favourite tourism destination (Obudu Cattle Ranch Resort created by European Colonialists prior to Nigeria’s independence and featuring an autonomous tourism-hospitality industry thereafter up to the 1980s), enormous cultural heritage sites that provide potentials for conversion into viable tourism destination, among other excellent mixtures of naturally occurring tourism resources –in addition to culturally creatable tourism, most of the Northern-Central Cross River State (“Old Ogoja”) –apart from the (inter)national elite enclave that the “Colonial Obudu Ranch Resort has always been from its advent, have consigned and contrived by successive Nigeria’s sub-national administrations to socio-economic retrogression. The socio-economic exclusion of Ogoja from tourism industry has been most acute in the Fourth Republic, specifically and in the rest of Nigeria’s post-independent era, generally.

Therefore, the socio-economic exclusion of the Ogoja region in tourism development specifically and in the rest of other social, political, economic and environmental schemes of things, have culminated in the derisive description of it as the “lost Ogoja region/province”. The latter nomenclatura aims to capture the historical i.e. prolonged socio-economic deprivation and pauperization of its people resulting from the formulation and implementation of public policies and administration that marginalize it in Nigeria’s post-independent period. The latter contrasts diametrically with the good performance of Ogoja (and its famous Obudu Cattle Ranch Resort) during the British Colonial period when it was one of the fewer (than present) “(O)ld Provinces that made up Nigeria. The marginalisation of Ogoja as has been undertaken by governments of Nigeria’s Federation (FGN) and Cross River State over the post-independence era (since 1960) has been discussed and documented as strictly socio-political topics. How the marginalization of Ogoja region has been operationalised in the tourism sector strictly has never been systematically done. Yet it represents one excellent way of demonstrating how some governments have recently employed tourism sector financing as a means of implementing discriminatory policies that enable some rulers (or leaders) to express their fundamentalism (hatred for) other cultural groups constituting sub-national regions.

Nigeria’s Fourth Republic –describing a period marking the fourth attempt by Nigerians to apply democratic government in managing their social and economic affairs without interruptions by soldiers (and previously colonialists) counting from (1999 to the present) represents the most outstanding period of distortion or fundamentalist of tourism developments policy, tourism programmes/projects design and management in the history of Cross River State. Two disadvantages posed by

Cross River State Government's emphasis on infrastructure-centred tourism development during the Fourth Republic are identifiable. First, has been the socioeconomic exclusion of Ogoja from tourism infrastructure development. Second, emphasis on financing tourism infrastructure development through tax collected from Ogoja -and elsewhere in the state- among other credit-finances, the Duke administration and its successor (Liyel Imoke) systematically contrived situations whereby resulting loan and their repayment) would increase and deepen poverty and related socio-economic over-burdens borne by the Ogoja people already excluded from infrastructural development. Therefore, community tourism programmes/projects involving creating and managing cost-effective tourism development products, programmes and projects represent part of alternative strategies of socio-economic capable of providing socio-economic resilience for Ogoja. The latter is capable of reviving Ogoja region's economy, society, and environment in an endogenous, locally conceptualized and managed ways through participation by the native population of the Old Ogoja region.

Pluralism (a theoretical framework that has been valuable for understanding issues in the nexus of urbanization, among other challenges on the African continent and in Nigeria), presents a viable body of knowledge and though fragments for framing the required theorizing and conceptualizing of the region's socio-economic revival. The latter includes harnessing various tourism resources as well as devising different creative industrial management approaches. With 29 (i.e. 65.9%) of 44 indigenous languages -excluding English- in Cross River State, Ogoja's natural-physical and cultural tourism resource potentials are enormous. Two of the 29 languages –in Ubang community, Obudu area- qualifies to be described as world's last anthropological intrigue yet to fully savoured and explained: they feature women/girls, living together with men/boys in the same households speaking separate languages. Among its unharnessed, poorly mapped cultural tourism resources are: the Ikom-Ogboja 'stone circle" arrays, their nsibidi inscriptions, numerous dance routines and languages corresponding to the 29 individual languages (e.g. Ekpe), folklores. Physical tourism resources include: legendary and sublime temperate-in-Tropical climate Obudu Ranch Resort, Agbokim waterfalls, Obubra Lake, among others that require mapping, harnessing, and transformation into revenue-generating avenues.

FISH PONDS AS A FACTOR OF DEVELOPMENT IN RURAL AREAS OF BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA

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Abstract

Fish ponds as a factor of development in rural areas of Bosnia and Herzegovina

This paper explains the impact of fish farms on the development of rural areas in Bosnia and Herzegovina. Fishing in Bosnia and Herzegovina was recognized as an opportunity for industrial production, tourism and placing high quality healthy food on market as well as rural development and the possibility of creating new jobs. In terms of agroclimatic conditions, Bosnia and Herzegovina has a very favorable geographical, hydrological, climatic and ecological conditions for fish production, which is reflected in the availability of water resources of rivers, lakes and marine fish farms. In Bosnia and Herzegovina there are 41 registered fish farms of freshwater and saltwater fish and it is estimated that there are about twenty unregulated fish farms. With the available resources, the existence of tradition in production, decades of existence of lake fish ponds and dynamic development of production in cages classify fish farming as a significant branch of economy, which ensures it in the domestic market, but also on the markets of neighboring countries, the European Union.

Key words

Fish farms, regional development, rural areas, Bosnia and Herzegovina

1. Introduction

The first written records on organized fishing in Bosnia and Herzegovina date back to the early Austrian authorities. Organized water protection and legality were introduced in 1886 when there was founded the first association of fishermen in Bosnia and Herzegovina. At the beginning, the company for exploitation of forests dealt with the development of fishing, and revenues were realized from fees for fishing licenses of professional fishermen. Certainly, what was the most important was the wealth of trees and water (www.organic.ba). Exploitation of forest resources in the 20th century and building of fish ponds in the early twentieth century were simultaneously followed by the development of land reclamation and traffic connections. It is a time of faster population growth and strengthening of urban markets. In connection with fishing, other industries are being developed such as shipbuilding, coal mining industry, production of electricity and salt. (Nurković 2006, 135)

In our work we analyze fish growers (common carp, trout and sea fish), which cover more than 21,000 ha in Bosnia and Herzegovina from a total of 14 large fish farms in Bosnia and Herzegovina (www.lir.ba). Due to the environmental problems, we are now in an absurd situation in which a man has to defend against the catastrophic consequences that he himself has caused solving the fundamental problems of modern life. Primarily it is necessary to point out that fish farms on the whole territory of Bosnia and Herzegovina are always related to the low relief and ecologically least favorable terrain, mostly impermeable composition. Nowadays in Bosnia and Herzegovina technology of fish farming and fish processing is extremely developed, which does not lag behind technology trends in the EU, and the existence of tradition in production and natural resources ensures high quality of fish and fish products. In addition, manufacturers import and consume food (the most important component in the process of fish farming) which is produced in the European Union, which created an additional prerequisite for high quality of products (Aganović 1979, 79).

2. Working methods and data sources

Methodological approach is imperatively suited to the purpose of work, so ponds and fish production have a strong impact on the local and rural development in Bosnia and Herzegovina. Research has covered the local and rural development of areas in Bosnia and Herzegovina. In assessing the economic contribution of the development of ponds and fish production, quantitative methods ranging from stochastic to deterministic are used almost exclusively (Šanić 2007, 147). Rating of direct contribution of fishing to local and rural economic development in Bosnia and Herzegovina. In the research of market potentials in Bosnia and Herzegovina, there were used analytical methods for determining of tendencies and the interdependence of phenomena, conditions and opportunities i.e. limiting factors of market development. There were used a standard desk research methods with the use of secondary data, including the data of companies engaged in the production of fish in Bosnia and Herzegovina. There were also used historical and normative methods, common for agro-economic researches. For the study of overall relations in production and fish market, there was used the balance sheet method, and for the assessment of further developments in the development of local fishing, the appropriate quantitative method. As a basic method of collecting primary data

sources, there was used a test method, i.e. in-depth interview, where the main instrument was an interview reminder.

3. Fish farms in rural areas of Bosnia and Herzegovina

It is primary to establish a regional dimension of fish farms in rural areas of Bosnia and Herzegovina. It is also important to see to what extent the fish farms in these areas impacted on regional gathering in terms of the development of settlements and population as well as the development of traffic (Nurković 2012, 231-247). We should mention the importance of the fish ponds in the tourist valorisation and their impact on the possibilities for development of industry. Bosnia and Herzegovina has significant unpolluted water resources. Bosnia and Herzegovina has the centuries-old tradition of breeding salmonid and cyprinid fish species. On the territory of Bosnia and Herzegovina on average falls around 1,250 l/m² of rainfall per year, that is 250 l/m² more than the European countries average. Water resources are seven river basins: the Una, Vrbas, Bosna, Drina, Sava, Neretva with Trebišnjica and Cetina, of which 75,7% belong to the Black Sea catchment and 24,3% to the Adriatic Sea catchment, a large number of river (on the Pliva and Una) and mountain lakes (in the Dinarides) and underground (thermal, geothermal and mineral) water. Bosnia and Herzegovina also has 27 water reservoirs with a total usable volume in 1991 amounted to 3,000 million m³. Besides, the 25 km coast of the Adriatic Sea belongs to Bosnia and Herzegovina, which is all located in the municipality of Neum. In Bosnia and Herzegovina, there are 41 fish farms of freshwater and saltwater fish registered in the Veterinary Office of Bosnia and Herzegovina. The existing capacities in aquaculture in 2008 were used about 75%, and a number of high-quality farms, due to devastation, scarce material resources and problems with property rights and privatization use only 35% capacity (Hamzić 2003, 118-129).

Aquaculture products in Bosnia and Herzegovina are competitive to global market, and built processing facilities allow more quality products. Due to the quality hydrographic resources, production facilities, processing capacities, long-standing tradition and education of staff, and with the help of the state, it is possible to successfully develop this branch of agriculture (Dujmušić 2000, 32). The first fish farm in Bosnia and Herzegovina was the fish farm "Vrelo Bosne" in Ilidza from 1894 and it had a capacity of 600,000 pieces of fish roe. In Prijedor, in 1902, carp fishing started. Production of salmonid fish farms in 1982 amounted to 1,086 tons, and the production of fish for consumption in 1990 was 3000 tons. Many fish farms are expanding their capacities and the new ones are being built. In 1991 in Bosnia and Herzegovina "Gornji Ribnik" - Ključ expands the surface area of 1,6 hectares, and "Martin-Brod" - Bihać for 0,86 hectares. A new fish farm "Grahovo vrelo" - Ljubuški of the area of 0,7 hectares is being built, and many other fish farms are being prepared for the construction (Pavličević 2004, 1-2). Therefore, in Bosnia and Herzegovina in this period, the usable area of cultivated salmonid fish farms of about 6,46 hectares increases (Tab. 1, Fig. 1).

Average yields of consumer trout amounted to about 180 tons per hectare. The new technology and the transition from feeding slaughterhouse remains to dry pallets food have contributed to such yield on salmon farms (Jahutka Mišura Suić 2005, 149-170). Every full-system fish farm also produces fish spawn for their own needs, and buys the ones that are not full-system (Jahutka Mišura Homen 2004, 71-77). In the period of 1992-1995 most ponds stopped working, and most of it was

destroyed. New momentum and strong development began in 1996 with the expansion of capacity, using better quality fish food and new technologies (Baltić Tadić 2001, 34-57).

Tab. 1: Leading fish farms in Bosnia and Herzegovina, area and production of 2010.

Fish farms	Useful volume water (m ³)	Production 2010 in t
Norfish Blagaj	6.100	250
Tropik Ribnik	12.000	500
Jezero Bočac	15.000	120
Okašnica Bugojno	5.000	64
Salmon Ljubuški	5.500	150
Neretva Konjic	12.500	120
Norfish Blagaj - Salakovac	kafez	450
Tropik Bočac - Crna Rijeka	kafez	250
Riba Co Drežnica	kafez	40
Zeriko Drežnica	kafez	37
Forele Salakovac	kafez	30
Duboka Bugojno	1.000	10
Šanica Jablanica	300	12
Maoča Brčko	600	14
Ribogojilište Milići	560	20
Perići Prozor	650	20

Source: Agency for Statistics of Bosnia and Herzegovina, 2008-2013.

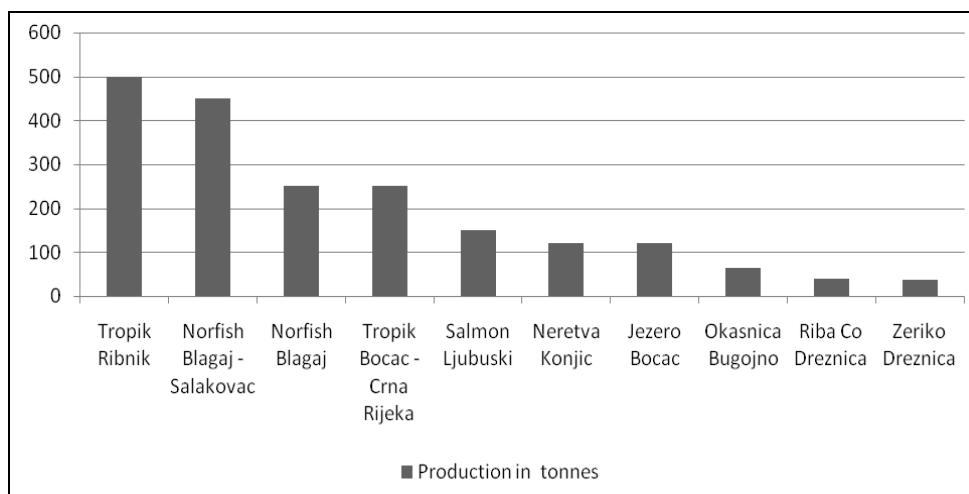


Fig. 1: Leading fish farms in Bosnia and Herzegovina, area and production of 2010.

Source: Agency for Statistics of Bosnia and Herzegovina, 2008-2013.

The existing capacities in aquaculture today are used about 75%, and a number of high-quality farms, due to devastation, scarce material resources and problems with property rights and privatization use only 35% capacity. With long-term strategy development, quality investments of the state and registration of all fish producers, this branch of agriculture could raise its production to 15.000 tonnes of fish for consumption. In addition to these, it is estimated that there are about twenty unregistered fish farms. Of course, among these farms there are major differences when it comes to capacity, the surface of objects, and at an annual production. During the year 2010, total production in aquaculture of Bosnia and Herzegovina

amounted to 7246 tons, or 3743 tons of salmonids, cyprinids 3325 tons and 178 tons of sea fish (Tab. 2).

Tab. 2: Total production in aquaculture of Bosnia and Herzegovina (in tons), 2010.

Fish Species	Production	Production	
Rainbow trout	3650	Salmonids	3.743 (52%)
Brown trout	62		
Brook trout	31		
Carp	2.670	Cyprinids	3.325 (46%)
Amur	236		
Bighead Carp	394		
Catfish	20		
Perch	5	Sea fish	178 (2%)
Sea Bass	69		
Bream	88		
Dentex	21		
Total fish	7246	7.246	
Total area		3.113 ha	

Source: www.organic.ba

In Bosnia and Herzegovina, fish farms are generally distributed in three main regions: cyprinidae, salmonid and marine (Fig. 2).

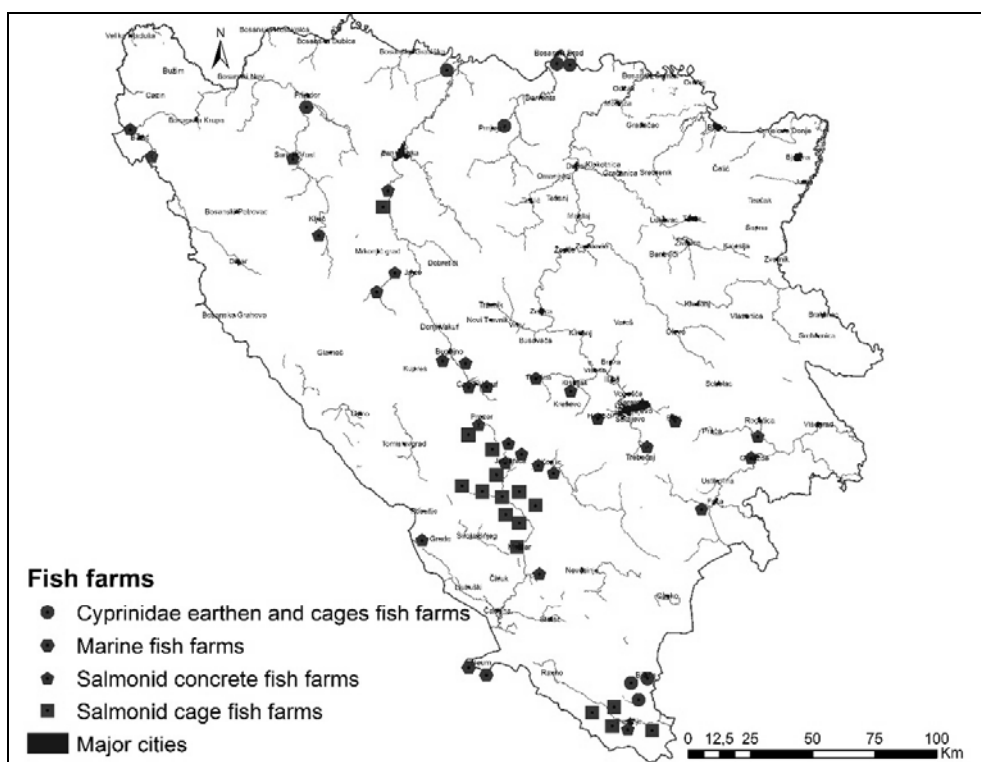


Fig. 2: Distribution of fish farms in Bosnia and Herzegovina, 2010.

Source: Nurković 2014.

4. The role and importance of ponds in the development of settlements and traffic

Building of fish farms necessarily imposed the need to build some permanent settlements, which took a part of the staff employed in fish farms (Woods 2009, 26-31). The essential feature of these settlements is that they in its development bind to the already existing surrounding places, so that neither of them became independent. In a functional sense, the settlements, expressed as parts of settlements, are exclusively focused monofunctionally, i.e. on fish farming and maintenance of the ponds. This is also reflected in their layout, i.e. in the existing content, where there is the blend of warehouses for food and fertilizer, then workshops, residential buildings, administration building, restaurants and so on. According to its location, built facilities are always connected to the main traffic, rail or road highway, which links the ponds to the loading terminal for fish (Potočnik Slavič 2010, 31-37). The mentioned settlements were developed as a direct result of the construction of the ponds at the beginning of this century. However, in some places near the built fish ponds, there already existed small settlements or economic activities, which parallel with the construction of the ponds became their center. Residents of these and such settlements are included immediately in the activities of fish farming, i.e. have become permanent labor on farms. A typical example is fish farming along the river courses of the Neretva, Trebišnjica, Bosna, Drina, Una, Sana, Sava and along natural and artificial lakes in Bosnia and Herzegovina. The first ponds were being built near the settlement of Mostar.

Here we primarily refer to the construction of access road highways and industrial trails that connected economic centers and ponds with reloading terminals on railway lines of normal track. Access roads, as well as access industrial tracks, had been already built in the initial development phase of the pond. Narrow gravel roads served as road access routes that are only in recent times, following the lifting of some railway trails, upgraded and paved. For distant markets fish were transported by trucks, along asphalt road, to the consumer. It should be added that beside these access roads and industrial rail tracks between the ponds and transfer stations, there were built adequate rail and road networks within each pond. This was necessary due to their more functional exploitation (supply of food and fertilizers, fish transport, etc.). In recent years, we have maintained the narrow-gauge railway in the fish ponds, due to the normal functioning of work. Construction of the railway and road network in the period of building of ponds, had not only the function of normal course of life and work technology in the fish ponds but also the function of shipment of fish on the market (Lorber 2005, 61-73).

5. Possibility of tourist valorization and industrial fish processing

In the modern period which is characterized by a relatively good traffic correlation, ponds distance from major urban centers is no longer a big obstacle. Nowadays ponds in Bosnia and Herzegovina are becoming interesting for urban part of the population that "escapes" from the polluted environment to yet "uncontaminated" nature. First of all, we refer to the people engaged in sport fishing and which number is growing more and more every year. In Bosnia and Herzegovina, in the year 1991, there were around 157 sports fishing associations with 19.234 members, and in 2013 there were 67 associations with 13.231 members. On the fish farms on certain waters, every holiday one can meet a relatively large number of these people. In particular, those are the residents of local centers who come to fish

ponds and catch fish. Increasing the number of sports fishermen and visits to the fish ponds, which have become more frequent, have given rise to construction of catering and tourist facilities on some ponds. They serve various fish specialities there, and some facilities offer even lodging. The fact that people are frequently visiting fish ponds confirms that ponds became in a sense a gathering place, especially on weekends and festive days. In terms of tourist valorization, the importance of fish ponds and depression zone, has significantly increased (Nurković 2013, 182-184).

So far ponds had no significant impact on the development of industrial processing of fish in Bosnia and Herzegovina. In short, the reason is that a very narrow range is included in the sale of freshwater fish. The freshwater fish is sold while still alive. Sales are, with some exceptions, focused mainly on the 3-4 months during the year, therefore almost exclusively seasonal. Because of the way of sale, trade networks for the trading of fish is almost completely separated from the other commercial networks. It is also numerically insufficient, so that marketing of fish represents a bottleneck of fishing industry in Bosnia and Herzegovina. Today's way of selling live fish will have to be supplemented in the future by selling concessionary fish. Fish production in Bosnia and Herzegovina is one of the few branches of the food industry which has succeeded to meet the standards and criteria set and ensure placing on the market of the European Union. In Bosnia and Herzegovina there are four fish-processing plants that have obtained an export license for the European Union, Tropic Banja Luka, Laks Mostar, Norfish Mostar and Zuvla Stolac. Bosnia and Herzegovina is, in spite of such a treatment of government, among the top ten producers of fish in Europe. According to statistical data of the State Statistics Agency in Sarajevo, it produces about 10.000 tonnes of fish for consumption, to which we still need to add roes, juvenile fish and 70% of the production is exported.

6. Conclusion

Fishing in Bosnia and Herzegovina was recognized as an opportunity for the production and placing of high quality healthy food on the market, then as rural development, as well as the possibility of creating new jobs. In Bosnia and Herzegovina in the former state, there were not any built and organized fish processing plants. As Bosnia and Herzegovina has a very rich water resources for freshwater fish production and as fish production is constantly on the rise, fish processing has prospects, especially if you want to achieve greater domestic production and consumption and reduce imports. The impact of new socio-geographic factors at the end of the 20th century (rapid population growth, urbanization and strengthen the cities' markets, hydromelioration activities, logging, construction of road and rail transport), and natural and geographical preconditions (depression character and tight composition, water and more favorable climate conditions) were important factors in the development of fishing in Bosnia and Herzegovina.

The construction of Norfish modern plant for freshwater fish processing in Salakovac, according to the standards of Norway, which is among the leading countries in the world in the production, fish farming, processing and placing of fish and fish products on the market, production and processing of fish in Bosnia and Herzegovina is also done in the plant Salmo Ljubuški, where only cleaning and freezing is performed in the process of fish processing. Fishing in Bosnia and Herzegovina at the beginning of its current development is a young production

branch, in spite of the multitude of natural resources we have for this economic activity. Contrary to the needs, it has been rarely found in the interest of official economic policy, so there are rare project approaches towards planning in this area. In the contemporary period which is characterized by a relatively good traffic correlation, ponds distance from major urban centers is no longer a big obstacle. Nowadays ponds in Bosnia and Herzegovina become interesting for the urban part of the population that "escapes" from the polluted city centers to yet "uncontaminated" nature. Besides that, it was found that it is necessary to raise awareness of the citizens about the importance of this sector, in which the veterinary services of countries play an important role.

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FISH PONDS AS A FACTOR OF DEVELOPMENT IN RURAL AREAS OF BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA

Summary

Fishing in Bosnia and Herzegovina was recognized as an opportunity for the production and placing of high quality healthy food on the market, then as rural development, as well as the possibility of creating new jobs. In Bosnia and Herzegovina in the former state, there were not any built and organized fish processing plants. As Bosnia and Herzegovina has a very rich water resources for freshwater fish production and as fish production is constantly on the rise, fish processing has prospects, especially if you want to achieve greater domestic production and consumption and reduce imports. The impact of new socio-geographic factors at the end of the 20th century (rapid population growth, urbanization and strengthen the cities' markets, hydromelioration activities, logging, construction of road and rail transport), and natural and geographical preconditions (depression character and tight composition, water and more favorable climate conditions) were important factors in the development of fishing in Bosnia and Herzegovina.

The construction of Norfish modern plant for freshwater fish processing in Salakovac, according to the standards of Norway, which is among the leading countries in the world in the production, fish farming, processing and placing of fish and fish products on the market, production and processing of fish in Bosnia and Herzegovina is also done in the plant Salmo Ljubuški, where only cleaning and freezing is performed in the process of fish processing. Fishing in Bosnia and Herzegovina at the beginning of its current development is a young production branch, in spite of the multitude of natural resources we have for this economic activity. Contrary to the needs, it has been rarely found in the interest of official economic policy, so there are rare project approaches towards planning in this area. In the contemporary period which is characterized by a relatively good traffic correlation, ponds distance from major urban centers is no longer a big obstacle. Nowadays ponds in Bosnia and Herzegovina become interesting for the urban part of the population that "escapes" from the polluted city centers to yet "uncontaminated" nature. Besides that, it was found that it is necessary to raise awareness of the citizens about the importance of this sector, in which the veterinary services of countries play an important role.

RABA TAL NA OBMOČJIH Z VELIKO POPLAVNO NEVARNOSTJO V SLOVENIJI

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Izvleček

Raba tal na območjih z veliko poplavno nevarnostjo v Sloveniji

V članku smo analizirali rabo tal na območjih z veliko poplavno nevarnostjo v Sloveniji leta 2014. Prikazali smo predvsem neustrezne oblike rabe tal na poplavnih območjih. Prav tako smo prikazali trende v spreminjanju rabe tal na poplavnih območjih med leti 2000 in 2014 ter analizirali trende na območju občin, ki so najbolj ogrožene zaradi poplav. V nadaljevanju smo analizirali stanje rabe tal na območju poplav ob Dravi novembra leta 2012.

Ključne besede

poplave, raba tal, GIS, Slovenija

Abstract

Land use in the areas of great flood hazard in Slovenia

In the article, we analysed the land use in areas of great flood hazard in Slovenia in the year 2014. We mainly examined inappropriate land use in the areas of great flood hazard. We showed the trends in land use changes in the flood regions between the years 2000 and 2014 and analysed the trends in the municipalities mostly threatened by floods. Further on, we separately analysed the current state of land use in the flood region along Drava River in November 2012.

KeyWords

Floods, land use, GIS, Slovenia

Uredništvo je članek prejelo 4. decembra 2014

1. Uvod

Poplave so hidrogeografski pojav, ki ga lahko obravnavamo iz različnih zornih kotov. Slovar slovenskega knjižnega jezika (2008) poplave opredeljuje kot »razlitje, razširjanje velike količine vode po kaki površini«. Geografski terminološki slovar (Kladnik Lovrenčak Orožen-Adamič 2005) poplave definira kot »redno ali obdobjno razlitje vode iz prenapolnjene rečne struge, jezerske kotanje ali morja«. Pravilnik o metodologiji za določanje območij, ogroženih zaradi poplav in z njimi povezane erozije celinskih voda in morja, ter o načinu razvrščanja zemljišč v razrede ogroženosti (UL RS 60/2007, 8375) podaja nekaj temeljnih pojmov, povezanih s poplavami: »Poplava je naravni pojav začasne preplavljenosti zemljišč, ki z vodo običajno niso preplavljena. Poplavna nevarnost je možnost nastanka poplav in z njimi povezanih erozijskih procesov, predvsem kot posledice naravnih dejavnikov, vključuje pa tudi posledice človekovega delovanja. Poplavna ogroženost je možnost škodnih posledic, predvsem za življenje in zdravje ljudi, okolje, gospodarske in negospodarske dejavnosti ter kulturno dediščino zaradi njihove izpostavljenosti poplavni nevarnosti«. Poplave so običajen pojav, vendar človek pri odnosu do vodotokov zanemarljivo dejstvo, da rekam poleg samega korita pripada še poplavna ravnica neposredno ob vodotoku. V preteklosti, ko so agrarne dejavnosti v naši družbi imele večjo vlogo in je človek bolj upošteval naravne omejitve, so na poplavnih ravninah prevladovala ekstenzivna oblika rabe tal (logi, pašniki), medtem ko so bile njivske površine, naselja in komunikacije na višjih terasah, ki niso bile ogrožene zaradi poplav (Stritar 1990).

S prehodom iz pretežno agrarne v industrijsko družbo in s koncentracijo prebivalstva in dejavnosti na dnu dolin in kotlin, so se neustrezne oblike rabe tal začele pojavljati tudi na poplavnih območjih. Proces se je pospešil po osamosvojitvi Slovenije, ko smo s spremembo družbenega sistema začeli spreminjati tudi vrednote. Po eni strani so kmetijska zemljišča izgubljala svoj pomen, zato se je proces ozelenjevanja, zaraščanja in ogozdovanja še bolj pospešil, hkrati pa so se na kmetijska zemljišča začele širiti pozidane površine (Žiberna 2013). Poplavna območja so v novem sistemu postale zanimive za interese javnega in zasebnega kapitala, ki je na poplavnih območjih prepoznal potencialna zemljišča za nove stanovanjske soseske in obrtno-industrijske cone. Po drugi strani pa se je občutek za naravne omejitve – tudi pod vplivom tehnološkega razvoja – začel zmanjševati. Pogosto so prostorski načrtovalci na nivoju občin spregledali osnovno funkcijo poplavnih območij (Komac Natek Zorn 2008, 10). Vzrokov za tak odnos je več: nepoznavanje naravnih pojavov in procesov, nepoznavanje konkretnih razmer na terenu in vedno bolj agresivni človekovi posegi v prostor (Wilkinson 2005). V skrajnih primerih bi lahko govorili celo o nekakšnem »socialnem determinizmu«, ki pretirano zmanjšuje pomen naravnih dejavnikov pri človekovih posegih v prostor (Komac Natek Zorn 2008, 10). Ena od pomembnih posledic omenjenih procesov je večanje družbene škode ob poplavnih dogodkih. S preventivnimi ukrepi kot so omejevanje neprimernih oblik rabe tal na poplavnih območjih bi lahko bistveno razbremenili del državnega proračuna, namenjenega odpravljanju posledic škode ob poplavih.

Poplava je naravni pojav, ki je posledica specifičnih vremenskih, hidroloških, reliefnih in pedogeografskih značilnosti dane pokrajine. V zadnjih desetletjih pa se kot pomemben modifikator poplavnih pojavov pojavlja človek. Zaradi njegovih posegov v vodni režim se poplavni učinek potencira, lahko pa se zgodi celo to, da se poplave pojavljajo tam, kjer se ob odsotnosti človekovih vplivov v prostor sicer ne

bi. Analize poplav v letih 1990 in 1991 v severovzhodni Sloveniji so pokazale, da je v Pesniški in Ščavniški dolini večina razlitij nastala zaradi premajhnih prepustov na Pesnici in Ščavnici ter na njunih pritokih (Žiberna 1991, Žiberna 1992).

V članku smo analizirali rabo tal na območjih z veliko poplavno nevarnostjo na območju Slovenije leta 2014. Prikazali smo predvsem neustrezne oblike rabe tal na poplavnih območjih. Prav tako smo prikazali trende v spreminjanju rabe tal na poplavnih območjih med leti 2000 in 2014 ter analizirali trende na območju občin, ki so najbolj ogrožene zaradi poplav. V nadaljevanju smo posebej analizirali stanje rabe tal na območju poplav ob Dravi novembra leta 2012.

2. Metodologija

V Sloveniji smo leta 2007 sprejeli Pravilnik o metodologiji za določanje območij, ogroženih zaradi poplav in z njimi povezane erozije celinskih voda in morja, ter o načinu razvrščanja zemljišč v razrede ogroženosti (UL RS 60/2007, 8375). Ta jasno določa območja, ogrožena zaradi pojava poplav. Območja poplavne nevarnosti se razvrščajo v razrede poplavne nevarnosti, pri čemer je odločujoče tisto merilo, ki izkazuje največji razred nevarnosti. Razredi poplavne nevarnosti po tem pravilniku so naslednji:

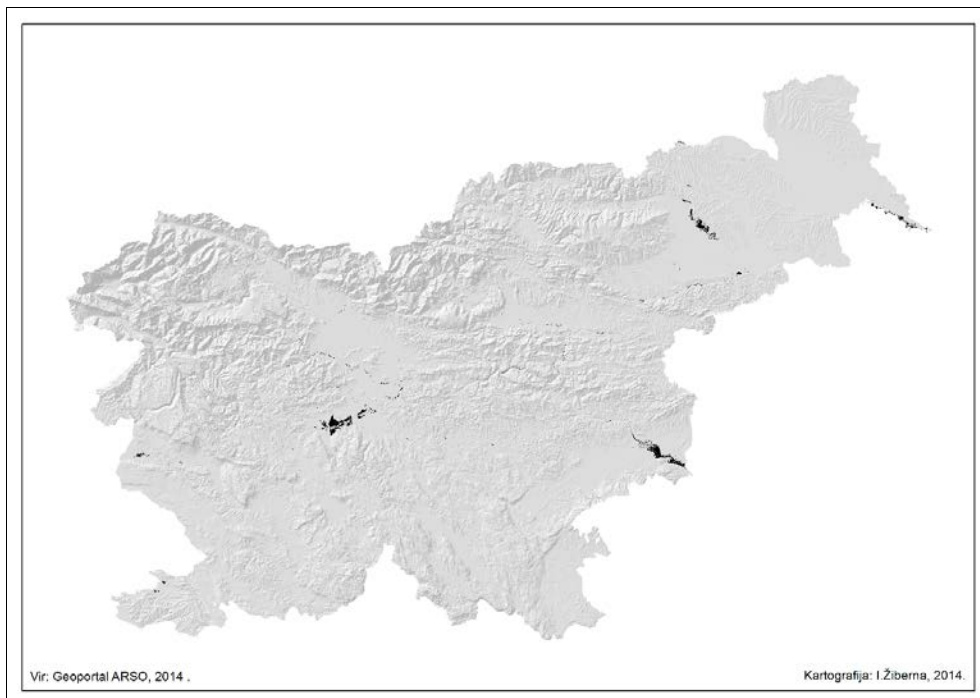
- razred velike nevarnosti, kjer je pri pretoku Q_{100} ali gladini G_{100} globina vode enaka ali večja od 1,5 m oziroma zmnožek globine in hitrosti vode enak ali večji od 1,5 m²/s,
- razred srednje nevarnosti, kjer je pri pretoku Q_{100} ali gladini G_{100} globina vode enaka ali večja od 0,5 m in manjša od 1,5 m oziroma zmnožek globine in hitrosti vode enak ali večji od 0,5 m²/s in manjši od 1,5 m²/s oziroma, kjer je pri pretoku Q_{10} ali gladini G_{10} globina vode večja od 0,0 m,
- razred preostale nevarnosti, kjer je pri pretoku Q_{100} ali gladini G_{100} globina vode manjša od 0,5 m oziroma zmnožek globine in hitrosti vode manjši od 0,5 m²/s,
- razred zelo majhne nevarnosti, kjer poplava nastane zaradi izrednih naravnih ali od človeka povzročenih dogodkov (npr. izredni meteorološki pojavi ali poškodbe ali porušitve protipoplavnih objektov ali drugih vodnih objektov).

Pri tem oznake za pretok (Q_{100} ali Q_{10}) in gladino (G_{100} ali G_{10}) pomenijo verjetnost nastanka poplavne nevarnosti ob pretokih Q_{100} ali Q_{10} oziroma verjetnost nastopa gladin G_{10} ali G_{100} , ki povzročijo poplavo (UL RS 60/2007, 8375-8377).

Za potrebe naše analize smo uporabili podatke o območjih z veliko poplavno nevarnostjo (OVPN). Podatki so v vektorski obliki v shp formatu na voljo na Geoportalu ARSO (Medmrežje 1). Seveda se je pri tem potrebno zavedati, da se konkretne poplave lahko neenakomerno pojavljajo po različnih območjih Slovenije in da te lahko močno presegajo OVPN, kar pomeni, da je lahko škoda še večja. Podatke o območju poplav ob Dravi v letu 2012 smo pridobili iz študij, ki jih je po poplavah izdelal Vodnogospodarski biro Maribor (Juvan 2013; Mišič 2014). Podatke o rabi tal smo povzeli po javno objavljenih podatkih, ki jih letno objavlja Ministrstvo za kmetijstvo, gozdarstvo in prehrano (Medmrežje 2). Vse omenjene podatke smo za naše potrebe iz vektorske oblike pretvorili v rastrske podatke z velikostjo celice (piksla) 5 m x 5 m. V nadaljevanju smo povezave med rabo tal in poplavnimi območji analizirali s pomočjo navzkrižnih tabel.

3. Raba tal na območjih z veliko poplavno nevarnostjo v Sloveniji

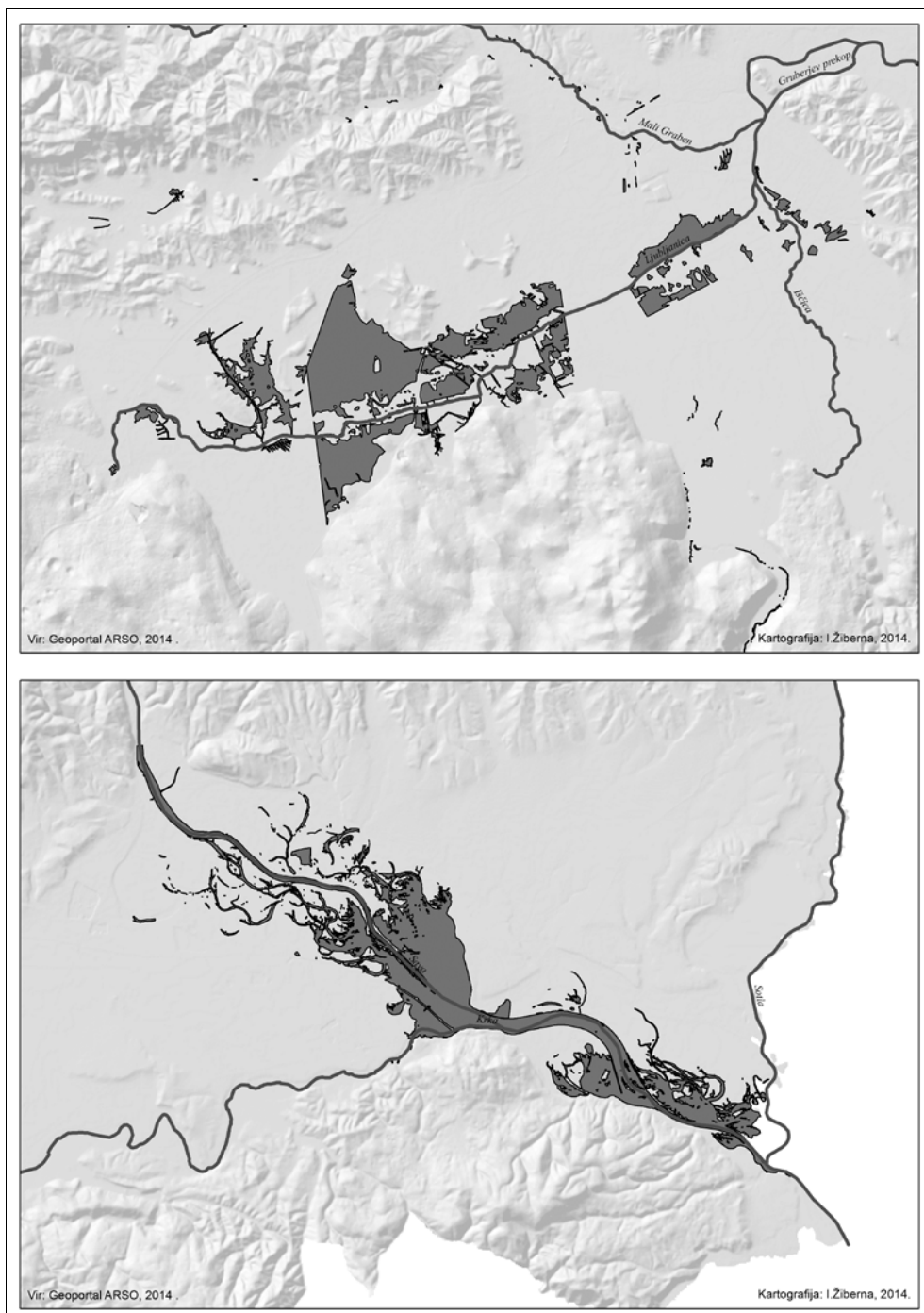
Območja z veliko poplavno nevarnostjo so v večjih kompleksih predvsem ob Ljubljani na Ljubljanskem barju, ob Savi na Krško-Brežiškem polju, ob Dravi med Malečnikom in Ptujem ter na območju Borla, ob Muri na območju slovensko-hrvaške meje ter ob Vipavi na območju njenega spodnjega toka. Ostala območja se nahajajo fragmentarno, v ozkih pasovih ob vodotokih. Skupaj pokrivajo 6103,2 ha površja.



Slika 1: Območja z veliko poplavno nevarnostjo v Sloveniji.

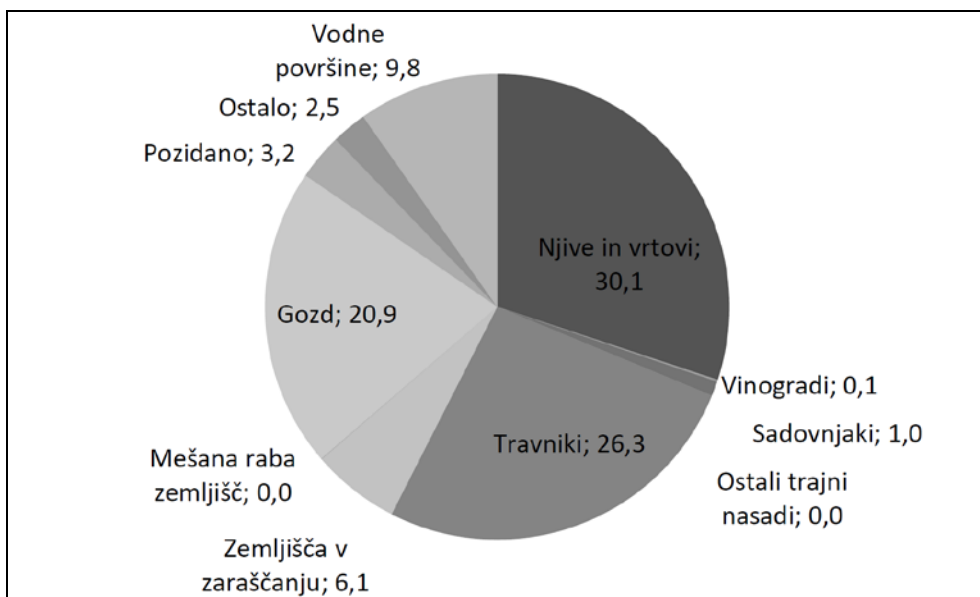
Vir: Geoportal ARSO, 2014.

Leta 2000 so na OVPN prevladovali njive in vrtovi (2204,6 ha ali 36,1 % vseh oblik rabe tal na OVPN), sledili so travniki (1396,6 ha ali 22,9 %) in gozd (1006,0 ha ali 16,5 %). Mešana raba zemljišč se je nahajala na 424,0 ha (6,9 %), zemljišča v zaraščanju pa na 194,5 ha (3,2 %). Nekoliko skrbi podatek, da so se leta 2000 pozidane površine nahajale na 141,0 ha (2,3 %). Do leta 2014 so se njivske površine na OVPN zmanjšale na 1836,7 ha, a so še vedno pokrivali 30,1 % površja OVPN. Na OVPN so se najbolj povečale gozdne površine (na 1273,5 ha ali na 20,9 % vsega površja OVPN) ter travniške površine (na 1604,9 ha ali na 26,3 % vsega površja OVPN). Zemljišča v zaraščanju so se povečala na 374,5 ha (ali na 6,1 % površja OVPN), pozidane površine pa na 196,4 ha (ali na 3,2 % vsega površja OVPN).



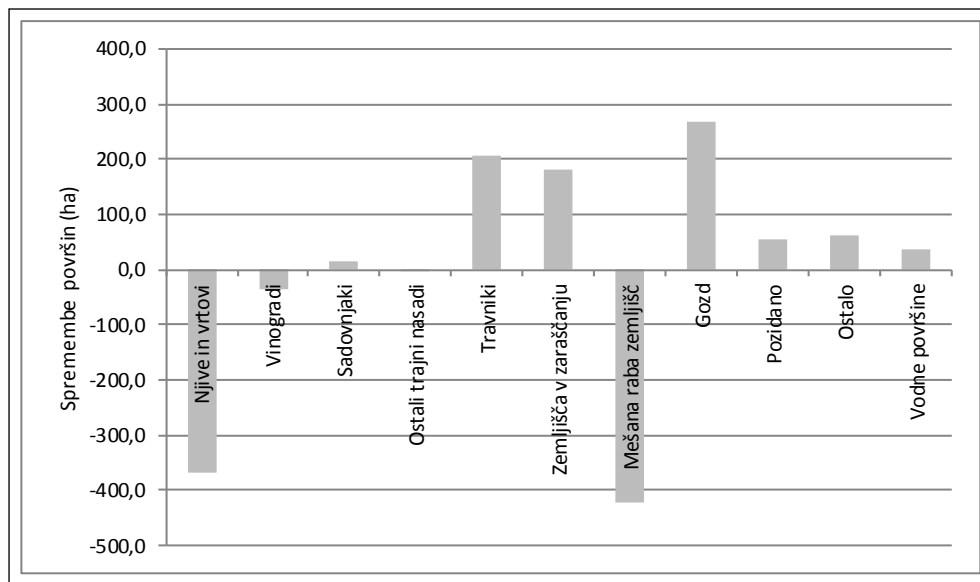
Slika 2: Območja z veliko poplavno nevarnostjo na Ljubljanskem barju (zgoraj) in Krško-Brežiškem polju (spodaj).

Vir: Geoportal ARSO, 2014.



Slika 3: Struktura rabe tal na območjih z veliko poplavno nevarnostjo v Sloveniji leta 2014 (v %).

Vir: Lastni izračuni.



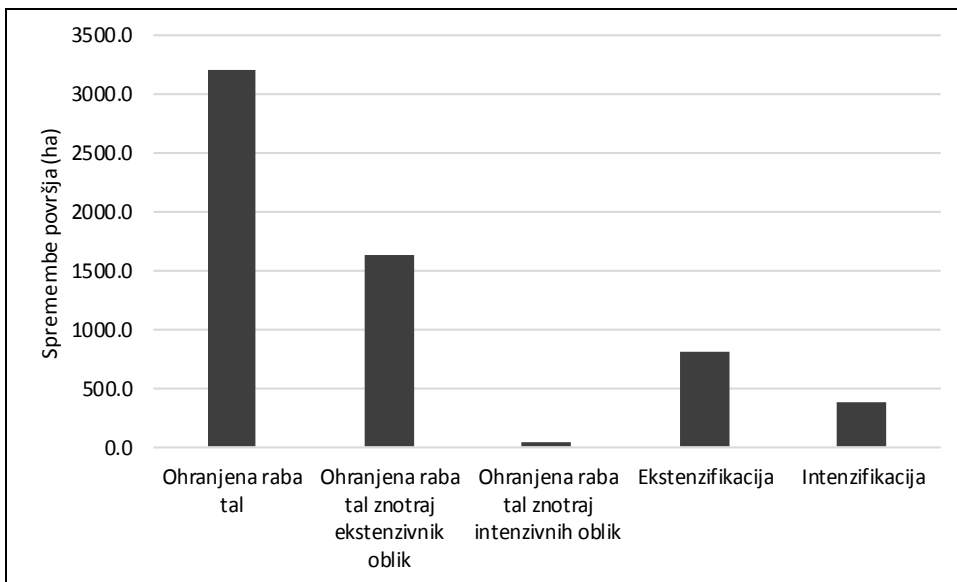
Slika 4: Spremembe površin posameznih kategorij rabe tal na OVPN v Sloveniji med leti 2000 in 2014 (v ha).

Vir: Lastni izračuni.

V spremembah površin posameznih kategorij rabe tal lahko zasledimo vsaj dva procesa. Zmanjšanje intenzivnih oblik rabe tal je ponekod res lahko posledica večje osveščenosti, vendar se ob poznavanju splošnih trendov zmanjševanja obdelovalnih

površin v Sloveniji (Žiberna 2013) ne moremo znebiti vtisa, da gre proces ekstenzifikacije na OVPN bolj pripisati splošnemu zmanjševanju obdelovalnih površin, kot iskreni želji po usklajevanju primernih oblik rabe tal na OVPN. Tudi proces širjenja pozidanih površin na poplavna območja je najbrž rezultat tega procesa in vzrokov, ki smo jih že omenili.

Kategorije rabe tal smo zaradi lažje analize smeri sprememb rabe tal razdelili v dve veliki kategoriji, pri čemer smo kot glavni kriteriji upoštevali škodni potencial (Komac Natek Zorn 2008, 50). Med intenzivne oblike rabe tal smo uvrstili njive in vrtove, vinograde, sadovnjake, ostale trajne nasade in pozidane površine, med ekstenzivne oblike pa vse ostale kategorije. Analiza smeri sprememb rabe tal kažejo, da se je v omenjenem obdobju na OVPN raba tal ohranila na 3210,7 ha (52,6 %). Do sprememb, vendar znotraj ekstenzivnih oblik je prišlo na 1640,9 ha (26,9 %). Najpogosteje je šlo za prehod gozda v mešano rabo zemljišč (782,5 ha), zemljišč v zaraščanju v mešano rabo zemljišč (99,4 ha), travnikov v mešano rabo zemljišč (94,8 ha) in travnikov v zemljišča v zaraščanju (85,4 ha). Naslednja pogosta kombinacija smeri sprememb rabe tal je ekstenzifikacija, ki se je odvijala na 818,4 ha (13,4 %) površin na OVPN. Znotraj tega procesa se kot najpogostejša kombinacija sprememb pojavlja prehod njiv in vrtov v travnike (619,7 ha), njiv in vrtov v mešano rabo zemljišč (46,6 ha) ter njiv in vrtov v zemljišča v zaraščanju (31,9 ha).



Slika 5: Spremembe rabe tal na OVPN v Sloveniji v obdobju 2000-2014 glede na tip spremembe (v ha).

Vir: Lastni izračuni.

Proces intenzifikacije se je odvijal na skupaj 384,6 ha (6,3 %) površin znotraj OVPN. Znotraj tega procesa so se najpogosteje pojavljali prehodi travnikov v njive in vrtove (233,2 ha), gozdov v njive in vrtove (103,8 ha) ter mešane rabe zemljišč v njive in vrtove (18,2 ha). Znotraj intenzivnih oblik se je raba tal ohranila le na 48,5 ha (0,9 %): vinogradi so prešli v sadovnjake na 18,6 ha, vinogradi v njive in vrtove

na 9,9 ha, sadovnjaki v njive in vrtove na 7,6 ha, medtem ko so pri ostalih vrstah sprememb le te na površinah okoli 1 ha ali manj.

Poplave na različnih oblikah rabe tal ne naredijo enake škode. Najvišja škoda je običajno povzročena na obdelovalnih površinah (njive in vrtovi, vinogradi, sadovnjaki, ostali trajni nasadi) in na infrastrukturnih objektih, ki so v našem primeru uvrščeni v kategorijo pozidane površine. Škodni potencial je zelo težko realno ovrednotiti. V ocenah škode se praviloma upošteva le neposredna škoda, nastala zaradi izpada pridelka in zaradi poškodovane človekove infrastrukture, medtem ko škode, ki je nastala zaradi ohromljenega prometa na komunikacijah, zaradi izpada električne energije in končno psihične škode pri ljudeh v takih ocenah ne upoštevamo (Komac Natek Zorn 2008, 49). Če prej omenjene kategorije rabe tal z največjim škodnim potencialom (njive in vrtovi, vinogradi, sadovnjaki, ostali trajni nasadi, pozidane površine) združimo v kategorijo neustrezne rabe tal na OVPN, lahko dobimo zanimivo strukturo rabe tal na poplavnih območjih. Na 6103,2 ha znotraj OVPN je leta 2000 39,8 % površja imelo neustrezno obliko rabe tal. Ta delež se je do leta 2014 zmanjšal za 5,4 %. Do zmanjšanja neustrezne oblike rabe tal na OVPN je prišlo predvsem zaradi splošnega trenda opuščanja obdelovalnih površin. Če znotraj neustreznih oblik rabe tal izpostavimo pozidane površine, pa je trend manj ugoden. Pozidane površine so se v omenjenem obdobju na OVPN povečale za 86,5 ha, zaradi česar se je škodni potencial povečal. Analiza širjenja pozidanih površin na OVPN v obdobju 2000-2014 kaže, da je bilo leta 2014 le 106,9 ha (54,1 % vseh pozidanih površin na OVPN leta 2014) takih pozidanih površin, ki so bile pozidane že v letu 2000, medtem ko je slaba polovica pozidanih površin nastala na novo. Med temi je šlo za pozidavo na nekdanjih njivah in vrtovih (31,4 ha ali 15,9 %), na travnikih (24,4 ha ali 12,4 %), gozdnih površinah (12,6 ha ali 6,4 %) in mešani rabi zemljišč (11,1 ha ali 5,6 %), če naj omenimo le najpomembnejše spremembe v pozidane površine. Proces je zaskrbljujoč iz dveh razlogov:

- pozidane površine se najintenzivneje širijo na njive in vrtove,
- pozidane površine se intenzivno širijo na poplavna območja.

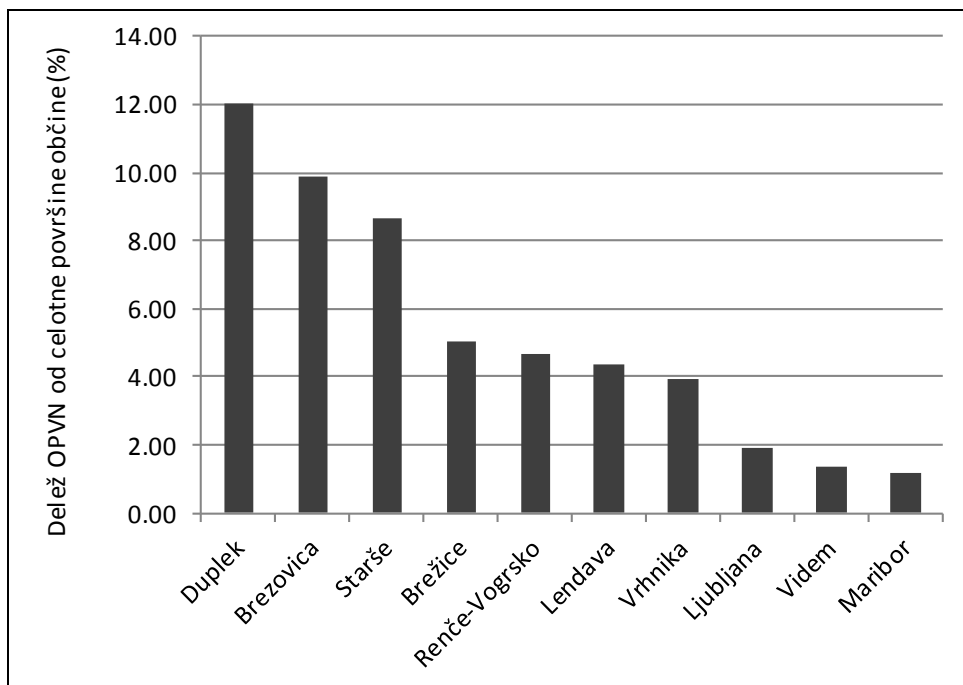
Če upoštevamo škodni potencial sedanjih oblik rabe tal na OVPN, lahko tudi v finančnem smislu ocenimo potencialno neposredno škodo, do katere lahko pride ob morebitnih poplavah na OVPN. Pri oceni škodnega potenciala smo se naslonili na metodologijo, ki so jo uporabili Komac, Natek in Zorn (2008, 50). Največji škodni potencial v obeh obdobjih nastopa na pozidanih površinah ter njivah in vrtovih. V letu 2014 je na pozidanih površinah znašal škodni potencial dobrih 98 milijonov evrov in je predstavljal kar 53,6 % vsega škodnega potenciala na OVPN. Na njivskih površinah in vrtovih je ta znašal 58,7 milijonov evrov (32,1 %), medtem ko je na ostalih oblikah rabe tal škodni potencial manjši in predstavlja manj kot 15 % celotnega škodnega potenciala na OVPN. Zaradi umika obdelovalnih površin na OVPN se je škodni potencial pri njivah in vrtovih v analiziranem obdobju zmanjšal za slabih 12 milijonov evrov, pri pozidanih površinah pa povečal za 27,7 milijonov evrov. V celoti se je škodni potencial v zadnjih 15 letih povečal za dobrih 16 milijonov evrov. Proces lahko označimo kot neracionalen in neugoden, saj je škoda zaradi vsakoletnih naravnih nesreč že tako zelo velika, neustrezne oblike rabe tal na poplavnih območjih pa jo le še povečujejo.

Preglednica 1: Škodni potencial na OVPN v letih 2000 in 2014 (v evrih).

Raba tal	2000	2014	Razlika
Njive in vrtovi	70,545,760.0	58,773,520.0	-11,772,240.0
Vinogradi	2,170,750.0	391,500.0	-1,779,250.0
Sadovnjaki	2,372,375.0	3,122,500.0	750,125.0
Ostali trajni nasadi	300.0	50.0	- 250.0
Travniki	13,965,550.0	16,048,975.0	2,083,425.0
Zemljišča v zaraščanju	583,567.5	1,123,432.5	539,865.0
Mešana raba zemljišč	2,119,950.0	11,037.5	-2,108,912.5
Gozd	4,024,080.0	5,093,900.0	1,069,820.0
Pozidano	70,511,250.0	98,212,500.0	27,701,250.0
Ostalo	85,675.0	149,652.5	63,977.5
Vodne površine	280,003.8	298,736.3	18,732.5
Skupaj	166,659,261.3	183,225,803.8	16,566,542.5

Vir: MKGP, 2014; Lastni izračuni.

Občine v Sloveniji so zelo neenakomerno izpostavljene pojavom poplav. Po skupni površini, ki v posamezni občini leži znotraj OVPN je na vrhu občina Brežice (1345,5 ha), sledijo pa občine Brezovica (898,3 ha), Lendava (532,3 ha), Ljubljana (519,2 ha), Duplek (480,9 ha), Vrhnika (452,8 ha), Starše (293,1 ha), Krško (204,7 ha), Maribor (170.1 ha) in Renče-Vogrsko (137,5 ha). Po deležu OVPN od celotne površine občine pa je na vrhu občina Duplek (12,03 %), sledijo pa občine Brezovica (9,85 %), Starše (8,63 %), Brežice (5,02 %), Renče-Vogrsko (4,66 %), Lendava (4,33 %), Vrhnika (3,93 %), Ljubljana (1,89 %), Videm (1,37 %) in Maribor (1,15 %).



Slika 6: Delež OVPN od celotne površine občine v Sloveniji za deset poplavno najbolj ogroženih občin.

Vir: Lastni izračuni.

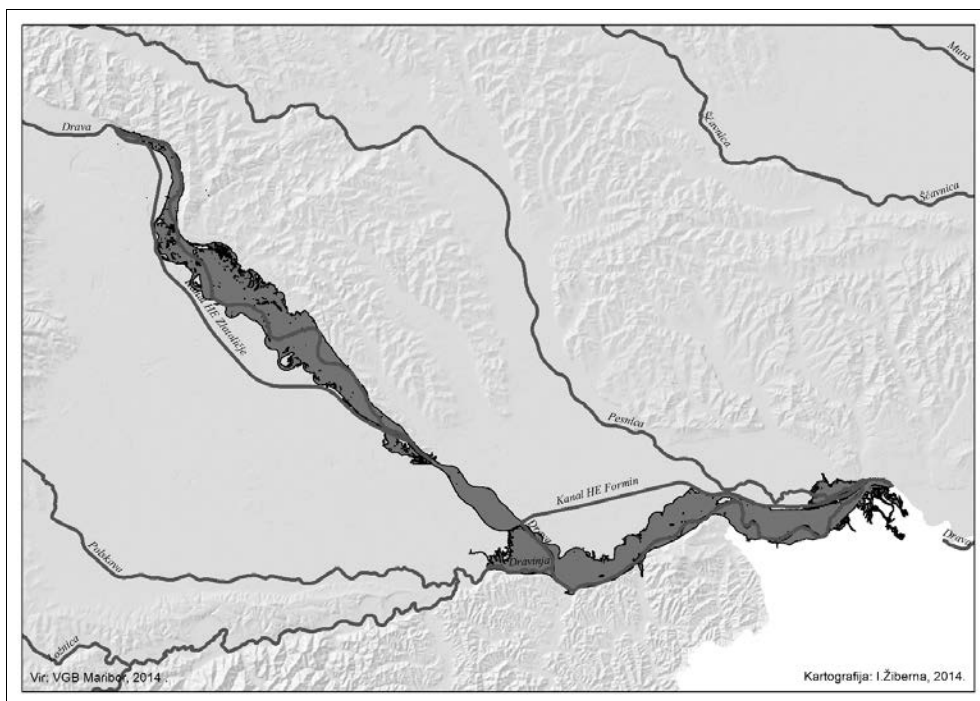
Neustrezne oblike rabe tal so po občinah, ki ležijo na OVPN prav tako neenakomerno razporejene. Tako leta 2000 in kot leta 2014 je bilo največ neustreznih oblik rabe tal na OVPN na območju občine Brezovica. Te so se od leta 2000, ko so znašale 623,8 ha do leta 2014 zmanjšale za 344,7 ha. V občini Brežice, ki so bile po neustreznih oblikah rabe tal na OVPN s 397,1 ha na drugem mestu so se do leta 2014 povečale za 135,5 ha. Občina Brežice je danes s 532,7 ha prepričljivo na prvem mestu po neustreznih oblikah rabe tal na OVPN. Na tretjem mestu se je leta 2000 s 334,1 ha nahajala občina Duplek, vendar so se neustrezne oblike rabe tal do leta 2014 zmanjšale za 20,7 ha. Med občinami z večjimi površinami neustreznih oblik rabe tal na OVPN so se leta 2014 znašle še občine Ljubljana (208,6 ha), Starše (148,6 ha), Renče-Vogrsko (95,1 ha), Vrhnika (78,6 ha), Videm (55,1 ha), Lendava (52,9 ha) in Maribor (45,9 ha). Skrb povzročajo predvsem občine, na katerih se neustrezne oblike rabe tal na OVPN povečujejo (Brežice za 135,5 ha, Renče-Vogrsko za 13,4 ha, Videm za 11,4 ha, Lendava za 8 ha), kar dela te občine bolj ranljive ob pojavu poplav, hkrati pa nastala škoda bremeni državni proračun. V vsakem primeru pa taki trendi mečejo senco na strokovne službe, ki bi naj skrbele za ustrezen prostorski razvoj posamezne občine.

4. Raba tal na območju poplav ob Dravi novembra 2012

4. in 5. novembra 2012 so severno Slovenijo zajele močne padavine, ko je padlo od 50 do 100 l/m² padavin. Pretok Drave se je na območju med Dravogradom in Mariborom povečal od običajnih 500 m³/s na 3000 m³/s. Ob tem dogodku je bilo predvsem med Mariborom in Ormožem poplavljenih več naselij na obeh bregovih. Zaradi poplav je nastala materialna škoda na stanovanjskih hišah, gospodarskih objektih, prometnicah in bencinskih črpalkah, podrti je bila desna brežina Drave ob odvodnem kanalu HE Zlatoličje, zaradi česar je dravska voda vdrla v odvodni kanal. Najhujše so bile razmere na odseku od Maribora do Starš, kjer so bili poplavljeni večji deli naselij Malečnik, Zrkovci, Dogoš, Duplek in Dvorjane. V naseljih Loka, Rošnja, Starše, Zlatoličje in Hajdoše so bili poplavljeni le manjši deli naselij, ki ležijo pod dravsko teraso. Porušila se je tudi brežina odvodnega kanala HE Formin, voda pa je zalila elektrarno (Klaneček 2013). Poplavljenih je bilo skupaj 5035,4 ha površin.

Poplavne površine so bile po občinah neenakomerno razporejene. Najbolj so prizadele občino Duplek, kjer je bilo pod vodo 758,9 ha ali 15,1 % od vseh poplavljenih površin ob Dravi. Poplavljene je bilo 19,1 % celotne površine občine. Bolj prizadete ob poplavih leta 2012 so bile še občine Starše (674,1 ha ali 13,4 %), Ptuj (628,8 ha ali 12,5 %), Gorišnica (624,6 ha ali 12,4 %) in Markovci (603,3 ha ali 12,0 %).

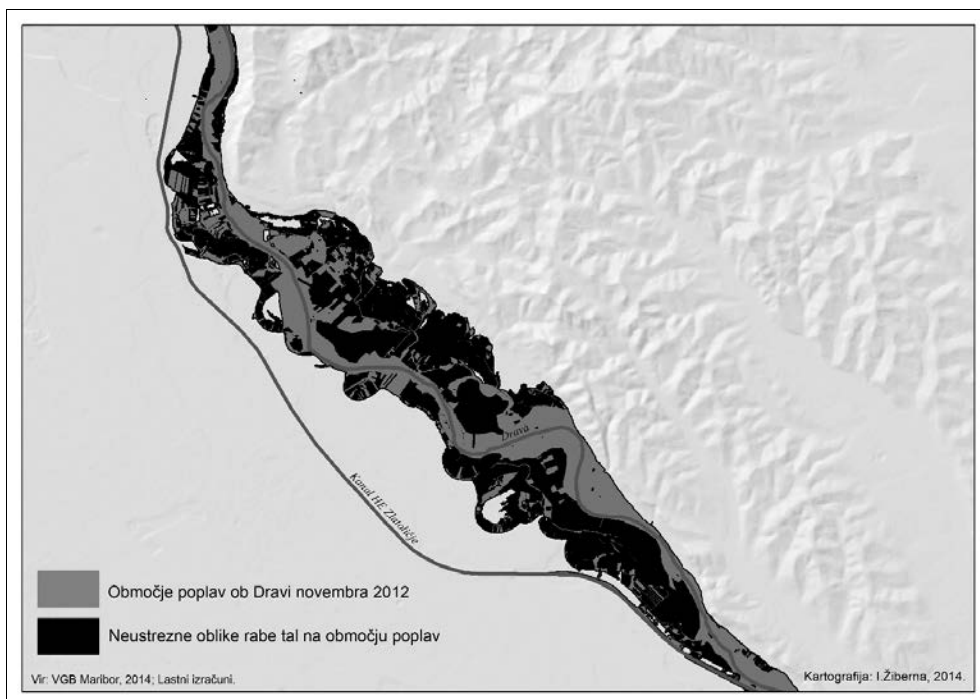
Struktura rabe tal na območju poplav novembra 2012 je bila naslednja: prevladovala so njivske površine in vrtovi (2153,8 ha ali 42,7 % vsega poplavljenega območja med Mariborom in Ormožem), gozdovi (1392,3 ha ali 27,6 %), travniki (315,4 ha ali 6,2 %), pozidane površine (175,9 ha ali 3,5 %) in zemljišča v zaraščanju (161,2 ha ali 3,2 %). Ostale kategorije rabe tal so bile zaradi poplav manj prizadete.



Slika 6: Območje poplav novembra 2012 ob Dravi med Mariborom in Ormožem.
Vir: VGB Maribor, 2014.

Zanimivo je, da se je na območju poplav ob Dravi leta 2012 po letu 2000 najbolj zmanjšala mešana raba zemljišč (za 124,5 ha), ob tem pa tudi travniki (za 48,4 ha) in zemljišča v zaraščanju (za 22,0 ha), istočasno pa so se povečale površine z gozdovi (za 145,9 ha), pozidane površine (za 16,2 ha) in sadovnjaki (za 7,7 ha). Njivske površine in vrtovi so se na območju poplav zmanjšali le za 6 ha (ali za 0,2 % skupne površine njiv in vrtov na območju poplav ob Dravi). Proces spreminjanja rabe tal na poplavnem območju ob Dravi je torej nekoliko drugačen od tistega, ki smo ga lahko zasledili na območju celotne Slovenije: najintenzivnejše oblike rabe tal se ohranjajo, medtem ko se travniki, mešana raba zemljišč in zemljišča v zaraščanju umikajo predvsem gozdnim površinam. Slednje bi z vidika škodnega potenciala lahko ocenili kot pozitivno, še vedno pa problem predstavljajo njive in vrtovi ter pozidane površine.

Neustreznih oblik rabe tal je bilo na celotnem območju poplav leta 2012 2347,3 ha, kar je predstavljalo kar 46,6 % vseh poplavljenih površin. Tudi poplavljene neustrezne oblike rabe tal so bile neenakomerno razporejene po občinah. Največ površin z neustrezno obliko rabe tal je bilo v občini Duplek (481,2 ha ali kar 20,5 % od vseh poplavljenih neustreznih oblik rabe tal ob Dravi novembra 2012). V občini Starše je bilo pod vodo 379 ha neustreznih oblik rabe tal (16,2 %), v občini Markovci 296,5 ha ali 12,6 % in v občini Gorišnica 292,7 ha ali 12,5 %. Na poplavljenih površinah po občinah je bil najvišji delež neustrezne oblike rabe tal od vseh poplavljenih površin v občini Miklavž na Dravskem polju (72,9 %), sledile pa so občine Hajdina (66,2 %), Duplek (63,4 %), Ormož (63,1 %) in Starše (56,2 %).



Slika 7: Neustrezne oblike rabe tal na območju poplav ob Dravi med Dogošami in Slovenjo vasjo.

Vir: VGB Maribor, 2014; Lastni izračuni.

Preglednica 2: Poplavljenе površine in neustrezne oblike rabe tal ob poplavih ob Dravi leta 2012 po občinah.

Občina	Vse poplavljenе površine ob Dravi leta 2012		Neustrezne oblike rabe tal		Delež neustreznih oblik rabe tal od vseh popl. povr. %
	ha	%	ha	%	
Duplek	758.9	15.1	481.2	20.5	63.4
Gorišnica	624.6	12.4	292.7	12.5	46.9
Maribor	418.6	8.3	178.6	7.6	42.7
Ormož	279.6	5.6	176.6	7.5	63.1
Ptuj	628.8	12.5	143.6	6.1	22.8
Starše	674.1	13.4	379.2	16.2	56.2
Videm	213.5	4.2	97.5	4.2	45.7
Zavrč	19.7	0.4	2.0	0.1	10.0
Hajdina	332.8	6.6	220.3	9.4	66.2
Markovci	603.3	12.0	296.5	12.6	49.1
Miklavž na Dr.p.	82.9	1.6	60.5	2.6	72.9
Cirkulane	52.5	1.0	18.5	0.8	35.3
Vsota	5035.4	100.0	2347.3	100.0	46.6

Vir: Lastni izračuni, 2014.

Ne glede na dejstvo, da so bile poplave novembra 2012 izjemnih razsežnosti, pa bi strokovne službe v občinah, ki ležijo ob Dravi morale v prihodnje posege v prostor načrtovati bolj smotno in pri tem upoštevati, da vodotoki zase terjajo še kaj več od golega korita. Zlasti nižinske reke, kar Drava na tem območju nedvomno je,

preprosto potrebujejo še poplavno ravnico ob koritu, kamor pa je smiselno umeščati oblike rabe tal s čim manjšim škodnim potencialom.

5. Zaključek

S prehodom iz pretežno agrarne v industrijsko družbo in s koncentracijo prebivalstva in dejavnosti na dnu dolin in kotlin, so se neustrezne oblike rabe tal začele pojavljati tudi na poplavnih območjih. Proces se je pospešil po osamosvojitvi Slovenije, ko smo s spremembo družbenega sistema začeli spreminjati tudi vrednote. Po eni strani so kmetijska zemljišča izgubljala svoj pomen, zato se je proces ozelenjevanja, zaraščanja in ogozdovanja še bolj pospešil, hkrati pa so se na kmetijska zemljišča začele širiti pozidane površine. V obdobju 2000-2014 so se njivske površine na OVPN zmanjšale na 1836,7 ha, a so še vedno pokrivale 30,1 % površja OVPN. Na OVPN so se najbolj povečale gozdne površine (na 1273,5 ha ali na 20,9 % vsega površja OVPN) ter travniške površine (na 1604,9 ha ali na 26,3 % vsega površja OVPN). Zemljišča v zaraščanju so se povečala na 374,5 ha (ali na 6,1 % površja OVPN), pozidane površine pa na 196,4 ha (ali na 3,2 % vsega površja OVPN).

Kategorije rabe tal z največjim škodnim potencialom (njive in vrtovi, vinogradi, sadovnjaki, ostali trajni nasadi, pozidane površine) so leta 2000 pokrivale 39,8 % površja OVPN. Ta delež se je do leta 2014 zmanjšal za 5,4 %. Do zmanjšanja neustrezne oblike rabe tal na OVPN je prišlo predvsem zaradi splošnega trenda opuščanja obdelovalnih površin. Če znotraj neustreznih oblik rabe tal izpostavimo pozidane površine, pa je trend manj ugoden, saj so se te povečale za 86,5 ha. Analiza širjenja pozidanih površin na OVPN v obdobju 2000-2014 kaže, da je bilo leta 2014 le 106,9 ha (54,1 % vseh pozidanih površin na OVPN leta 2014) takih pozidanih površin, ki so bile pozidane že v letu 2000, medtem ko je slaba polovica pozidanih površin nastala na novo.

Če upoštevamo škodni potencial sedanjih oblik rabe tal na OVPN, lahko tudi v finančnem smislu ocenimo potencialno neposredno škodo, do katere lahko pride ob morebitnih poplavih na OVPN. Največji škodni potencial v obeh obdobjih nastopa na pozidanih površinah ter njivah in vrtovih. V letu 2014 je na pozidanih površinah znašal škodni potencial dobrih 98 milijonov evrov in je predstavljal kar 53,6 % vsega škodnega potenciala na OVPN. Na njivskih površinah in vrtovih je ta znašal 58,7 milijonov evrov (32,1 %), medtem ko je na ostalih oblikah rabe tal škodni potencial manjši in predstavlja manj kot 15 % celotnega škodnega potenciala na OVPN. Zaradi umika obdelovalnih površin na OVPN se je škodni potencial pri njivah in vrtovih v analiziranem obdobju zmanjšal za slabih 12 milijonov evrov, pri pozidanih površinah pa povečal za 27,7 milijonov evrov. V celoti se je škodni potencial v zadnjih 15 letih povečal za dobrih 16 milijonov evrov. Nastala škoda seveda bremeni državni proračun. V vsakem primeru pa taki trendi mečejo senco na strokovne službe, ki bi naj skrbele za ustrezen prostorski razvoj občine. Tu se kažejo tudi velike možnosti sodelovanja med strokovnimi službami na vseh ravneh lokalne uprave in znanostjo, ki sicer razpolaga z znanstvenim aparatom, a ga na žalost ne more ali ne zna posredovati zainteresirani javnosti. Ena od nalog geografije pa je vsekakor tudi ta, da opozarja na stranpota družbenega in prostorskega razvoja.

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LAND USE IN THE AREAS OF GREAT FLOOD HAZARD IN SLOVENIA

Summary

With the transition from mainly agrarian into industrial society as well as population densification and concentration of businesses at the bottom of valleys and basins, inappropriate land use started to appear at flood regions. After Slovenian independence, the process worsened not only because of the social system change but also because of the values shifts. Agricultural land started to lose its value. For this reason, agricultural land started to change into built-up areas; the process of grassing over, overgrown and afforestation was increased.

Between the years 2000 and 2014, fields in the areas of great flood hazard shrank to 1836.7 hectares, but were still covering 30.1% of areas of great flood hazard (AGFH). Forest and meadow areas had the biggest increase. Forest area increased to 1273.5 ha or 20.9 % of the AGFH and meadow area increased to 1604.9 ha or 26.3% of the AGFH. Areas in the process of overgrown increased to 374.5 ha (or 6.1% of AGFH) and built-up areas increased to 196.4 ha (or 3.2% of AGFH).

Categories with the biggest damage potential (fields, gardens, vineyards, orchards, other permanent crops, built-up areas) were categorised as inappropriate land use. We analysed the changes of these categories that occurred between 2000 and 2014. 39.8% of the AGFH that covers 6103.2 hectares of land had inappropriate land use. This share lowered to 5.4% in 2014. Inappropriate land use in AGFH decreased mainly due to general trend of arable land abandoning. If we expose the built-up areas within inappropriate ways of land use, the trend is less favourable. The built-up areas increased for 86.5 hectares. Consequently, so did the damage potential. The analysis of built-up expansion in AGFH during 2000-2014 shows that in 2014 there were only 106.9 ha of built-up areas that existed already in 2000 (that is 54.1% of all built-up areas in AGFH in the year 2014) whereas almost 50% of the built-up areas were recently built.

If we take into account the damage potential of the current land use in AGFH, we can also financially assess the potential direct damage that can occur during floods in AGFH. Built-up areas, fields and gardens face the biggest damage potential in both periods of time. In the year 2014, damage potential of built-up areas was 98 million Euros which was 53.6% of the damage potential in general in AGFH. The damage potential of fields and gardens was 58.7 million Euros (32.1%) whereas the damage potential of other types of land use was smaller and it was less than 15% of the whole damage potential in AGFH.

Because of the withdrawal of the arable land in AGFH, damage potential of fields and gardens decreased for almost 12 million Euros in the analysed period of time, but damage potential of the built-up areas increased for 27.7 million Euros. Altogether, damage potential in the last 15 years increased for 16 million Euros. The harm that has been done is a big burden for the state budget. However, these trends are a big minus for professional services that should take care for the most suitable spatial development of municipalities. This is also where the biggest opportunities for cooperation between the professional services at all levels of local administration and science. One of the jobs of geography is also, without a doubt, to warn the society about the bad social and spatial development.

POZNAVANJE TRAJNOSTNEGA RAZVOJA NA REGIONALNI RAVNI NA PRIMERU DRAVINJSKE DOLINE

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Izvleček

Poznavanje trajnostnega razvoja na regionalni ravni na primeru Dravinjske doline

Poznavanje trajnostnega razvoja na regionalni ravni je ključ za načrtovanje takih dejavnosti, ki temeljijo na varovanju ekosistemov, na povezovanju ljudi in vključevanju vseh sektorjev. Zato je bila izvedena raziskava o poznavanju trajnostnega razvoja v Dravinjski dolini. Namreč na tem območju so bili v zadnjih sedmih letih izpeljani mnogi projekti na temelju upoštevanja trajnostnega razvoja. Raziskava je vključila 250 ljudi, anketne vprašalnike pa je vrnilo 100 ljudi. Vprašanja so bila vezana na vrednotenje pomena kulturne in naravne dediščine, večnamenske rabe podeželja, naložb v človeške vire, naložb v inovacije, naložb v kvalitetno kmetijsko proizvodnjo, na trajnostno gospodarjenje z naravnimi viri, ohranjanje kulturne pokrajine in pomembnost varovanja okolja. Osebe, ki so odgovarjale na anketni vprašalnik živijo v občinah Zreče, Slovenske Konjice, Oplotnica, Vitanje, Poljčane, Makole in Majšperk. Ugotovitve kažejo, da ljudje ne dajajo največjo težo zgolj denarju in ugodobju, ampak aktivni participaciji in ohranjeni naravi. Najvišji deleži podpore gredo ustvarjanju zelenih delovnih mest, izboljšanju življenja na podeželju in povečanju prepoznavnosti Dravinjske doline z lastno blagovno znamko.

Abstract

Recognizing the sustainable development on regional level with the example of Dravinja valley

Recognizing sustainable development on regional level is the key for planning of the activities that base on ecosystem protection, people connection and in inclusion of all sectors into progress, as well as on the self-sufficiency with the inclusion of the local people. This is why the research about knowing the sustainable development in Dravinja valley was made. During last seven years have been many projects on the sustainability base performed in this area. Research included 250 people, questionnaires were returned from 100 people. Questions were attached into the topic of the evaluation of the cultural and natural heritage influence, multi-purposeful use of rural areas, human resources investments, investments into innovation, investments into qualitative farm production, on sustainable management with natural resources, preserving of the cultural landscape and importance of environment protection. People that answered questionnaires live in municipalities Zreče, Slovenske Konjice, Oplotnica, Vitanje, Poljčane, Makole and Majšperk. Findings show that people do not give the greatest importance on money and comfort, but also on active participation and preserved nature. The biggest parts of support go on creation of green workplaces, improvement of life in rural areas and increasing of the Dravinja valley recognition with own brand.

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1. Uvod

Ob krizi, ko se iščejo poti ponovnega zagona in oživitve družbe na zdravih temeljih, je lahko prav trajnostni pristop pomembno izhodišče za napredek na lokalni in regionalni ravni. Dosedanje usmeritve razvoja niso trajnostno zasnovane, saj ne upoštevajo ekosistemskih dimenzij, dimenzij celovitosti, samooskrbnosti in vključenosti ljudi (Vovk Korže 2012). Za doseg trajnosti so namreč potrebne celovite in dovolj enostavne usmeritve, da jih je možno udejanjiti na lokalni in regionalni ravni. Kot domneva Latouch (Radej 2009), bi bilo treba izdelati drugačno paradigmo razvoja. Tudi v lokalnih skupnostih se vse bolj krepi interes po udejanjanju trajnosti tako na lokalni kot regionalni ravni.

Prav zato so bile že pred desetletji predvidene regionalne in lokalne agende, ki bi s svojimi trajnostnimi zasnovami preventivno varovale naravne vire in porazdelile obveznosti in odgovornosti do okolja med vse, predvsem pa med onesnaževalce. Tako so regionalne kakor tudi lokalne agende izhajale iz poziva, ki je bil objavljen v 28. poglavju Agende 21 (Agenda 21 1992) vsem lokalnim skupnostim, da naj izdelajo lastne programe dejavnosti po vzoru Agende 21, v katerih naj splošne cilje Agende 21 prenesejo v konkretne načrte in akcije za svoje območje. Danes vidimo, da udejanjanje trajnosti ni enostavno in da mora vključevati celotno skupnost, ki v pripravo in izvajanje takega programa pritegne večino sektorjev na svojem območju (General discussion of progress implementation of Agenda 21 1995; Špes 2008, Gaberšček 2007).

Na območju Dravinjske doline, ki spada v območje Nature 2000, so že od leta 2007 vzpostavljene izobraževalne in raziskovalne učne poti s ciljem obveščanja javnosti o pomenu trajnosti (Štih 2014).

Občine v Dravinjski dolini povezuje reka Dravinja, ki je že v preteklosti ustvarila slikovito pokrajino z mnogimi naravnimi potenciali. Poleg lege in naravne dediščine imajo te občine podobno zgodovino in kulturno dediščino. Prav te skupne lastnosti so bile temelj vzpostavitve skupnih kolesarskih, učnih in pohodnih poti v Dravinjski dolini. Vzpostavljene kolesarske, učne in pohodne poti so označene z učnimi tablami, učnimi točkami, klopmi in mizami ter informacijskimi točkami. V povezavi z domačini, z društvom in in občinami postajajo prav občine Dravinjske doline prepoznavne po ohranjeni kulturni in naravni dediščini, na kateri temeljijo nove dejavnosti. Odličen zgled je dosedanja infrastrukturna oprema učnih točk in učnega poligona v občini Poljčane, ki je kot učna občina vodilna na področju izobraževalnega turizma, z novimi kolesarskimi, učnimi in pohodnimi potmi pa to vlogo prevzemajo tudi sosednje občine. Učne poti so pomembna izobraževalna infrastruktura, ki podpira učni turizem v Dravinjski dolini. V sklopu projekta Oživitev kulturne in naravne dediščine Dravinjske doline so bile vzpostavljene nove učne poti v treh občinah in sicer (Vovk Korže s sodelavci 2014a):

- v občini Makole: na novo je urejena Učna pot sv. Lenart, ki vodi od makolskega trga po novo urejenih serpentinastih stopnicah z ograjo do kapelice Sv. Lenart, ki ima tudi na novo urejeno ograjo; prav tako je na novo vzpostavljena učna točka o rudniku Šega, ki je pravi zgodovinski spomin na kopanje rjavega premoga z povsem na novo urejenim dostopom do jame; v Štatenbergu pri dvorcu so na novo urejene učne table za vsebine, ki pokrivajo etnološko učno pot do Ložnice, Krajinski park Štatenberg z dvorcem, Formo vivo in predstavitev društev. Na novo je urejena tudi učna pot do Ložnice, kjer je obnovljen vodnjak, dostop do

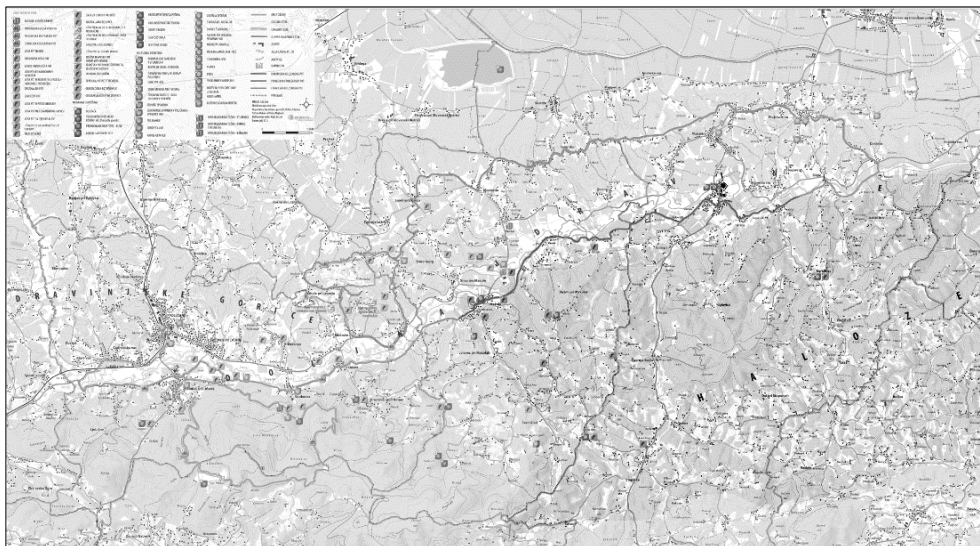
reke Ložnice ter učna tabla o življenju nekoč in danes v dolini Ložnice. Posebaj privlačno je urejen tudi prostor ob igrišču kot učilnica v naravi;

- v občini Majšperk so na novo urejene naslednje učne poti: učna pot na ruševine gradu Monsberg z učno tablo o mogoči graščini v srednjem veku; učna pot okoli Sestrškega jezera z dvema učnima tablama o rastlinah in živali na tej akumulaciji; učna točka Naraplje pri vaškem mlinu z urejenim prostorom kot učilnico. Postavljen je tudi poligon za učenje o orientaciji, kjer je možno s pomočjo količkov, zemljevidov in kompasov preiskovati orientacijske sposobnosti v naravi. V naselju Stoperce pa je vzpostavljena Geografska učna pot Stoperce, ki vodi po haloških gričih in omogoča edinstveno doživljanje Haloz. Učna pot ima atrijsko postavitve pri cerkvi sv. Antona v Stopercih, nato pa vodi z učnimi tablami proti Fiderškemu vrhu, Sv. Ani in do zaselka Klučice ter se sklone v Litožu;

- v občini Poljčane je preko projekta oživitve naravne in kulturne dediščine označena učna točka Belojača, edinstvena kraška jama v tem delu Slovenije. Sicer pa je v občini Poljčane že vzpostavljenih več učnih poti, med najbolj pomembnimi so Učna pot na Boč, Dravinjska učna pot, Samostanska učna pot v Studenicah, Učna pot med kamnolomi v dolini Bele, Učna pot o rudarstvu v Klečah, Učna pot v etnološko vas Križeča vas z mlinom na veter in kmečko izbo, učna točka rastlinska čistilna naprava in opazovalnica za ptice in številne pohodne učne poti (Opazovalna, Ekoremediacijska, O potočnih raki, Med znamenitimi drevesi, Sv. Treh Kraljev). Dodatno ponudbo učnim in pohodnim potem daje Učni poligon Dole z inovativnimi vsebinami samooskrbe in ekoremediacij ter o novih zelenih poklicih s praktično delavnico. Na območju Dravinjske doline so urejene pohodne poti po celotnem območju ob reki Dravinji, kjer se prepletajo z drugimi že vzpostavljenimi ureditvami (Dravinjsko kolesarsko potjo). Tako je ob reki Dravinji možno videti opazovalnico za ptice, oazo za oddih z Črnogovim kozolcem in rastlinsko čistilno napravo, pot je možno nadaljevati na Boč po gozdni učni poti. V Studenicah je samostanska učna pot, možnost ogleda kraških pojavov ob vznožju Boča ter pot nadaljevati na Boč. V Hrastovcu pod Bočem so sledovi rudarjenja, zato je tudi urejena učna pot o rudarstvu v Klečah pri Hrastovcu. Na meji z občino Makole je kraška jama Belojača z netopriji kot zadnji ostanek apnenca, ki se s platojem Leneš končuje prav na tem mestu. Že v občini Makole je v neposredni bližini Belojače tudi rudnik Šega, od koder je možna peš pot do Šoder grabna in slapa Šoštarca, kjer so ohrajeni sledovi geomorfološkega delovanja vode. V občini Makole so pohodne poti še na Sveti Lenart, kjer stoji kapelica in je čudovit pogled na Dravinjsko dolino. V neposredni bližini je krožna tematska pohodna pot Forme Vive z mnogimi umetninami na prostem. Tod vodi tudi pohodna pot na ruševine gradu v Starem gradu. V občini Makole vodi pohodna pot še do Sv. Ane, kjer se že povezuje z Geografsko učno potjo Stoperce. Iz Stoperc v občini Majšperk je povezava na poligon za orientacijski pohod ali tek v naselju Naraplje, kjer je tudi učna točka ob vaškem mlinu. V občini Majšperk je še novo urejena pohodna pot na ruševine gradu Monsberg ter 8 km dolga pohodna pot preko Gumil do Sestrškega jezera, kjer je poligon za opazovanje ptic. Od Sestrškega jezera proti zahodu že v občini Makole je pohodna pot med Ložnico in Štatenbergom in proti Svetim Trem kraljem. Tod je povezava tudi s poligonsko kolesarsko potjo in pohodno potjo do učnega poligona Dole. Učni poligon Dole, namenjen razvoju novih znanj s področja samooskrbe in ekoremediacij. V zaselku Hrastje je brunarica z manjšimi nočitvenimi možnostmi. Med brunarico in Učnim poligonom Dole je tudi opazovalna pohodna pot ter pohodna pot potočnih rakov. Na območju občin Poljčane, Makole in Majšperk je označenih več naravnih in kulturnih spomenikov,

ki jih je možno obiskati tudi po pohodnih poteh. Med njimi so znana mogočna drevesa, krajinski parki, zavarovana območja ter dvorci in cerkvice (Vovk Korže s sodelavci 2014a).

V okviru projektov za razvoj podeželja in regionalnih razvojnih programov so bile realizirane številne ureditve tudi v drugih občinah, predvsem v Zrečah in Slovenskih Konjicah, ki dajeta turizmu velik poudarek.



Slika 1: Turistična karta Dravinjske doline povezuje naravno in kulturno dediščino z učnimi potmi, opazovališči in učnim poligonom.

Vir: Vovk Korže s sodelavci 2014b.

2. Metodologija

Z namenom, da preverimo poznavanje trajnostnega razvoja na regionalni ravni na območju Dravinjske doline, je bila izpeljana anketa z devetnajstimi vprašanji. Vprašanja so bila vezana na vrednotenje pomena kulturne in naravne dediščine, večnamenske rabe podeželja, naložb v človeške vire, naložb v inovacije, naložb v kvalitetno kmetijsko proizvodnjo, na trajnostno gospodarjenje z naravnimi viri, ohranjanje kulturne pokrajine in pomembnost varovanja okolja.

Cilj raziskave je bil preveriti poznavanje trajnostnega razvoja na območju Dravinjske doline, saj so tod mnoge ureditve zasnovane prav na upoštevanju trajnostnih pristopov. Izhodišče raziskave je bilo, da se ljudje zavedajo pomena trajnostnih pristopov, saj v projektih, ki potekajo v Dravinjski dolini aktivno sodelujejo že od leta 2007.

2.1 Raziskovalni vzorec

Empirična raziskava je potekala na vzorcu 250 ljudi v Dravinjski dolini. Osebe, ki so odgovarjale na anketni vprašalnik živijo v občinah Zreče, Slovenske Konjice, Oplotnica, Vitanje, Poljčane, Makole in Majšperk. Anketni vprašalnik je bil namenjen izbranemu vzorcu in sistematično strukturiran. Anketne vprašalnike smo razposlali na elektronske naslove fizičnih oseb in elektronske naslove javnih institucij, kot so šole,

vrtni, knjižnice, domovi upokojencev in ostalim v omenjenih občinah, nekaj anket pa smo razdelili tudi ročno, saj je vzorec zajemal osebe vseh starostnih razredov, med katerimi pa vsi nimajo elektronskih naslovov. Anketiranje je opravila Monika Štih (Štih 2014).

2.2 Postopki zbiranja podatkov

Podatke smo zbirali s pomočjo kvantitativne in kvalitativne tehnike. Anketni vprašalnik je bil sestavljen predvsem iz vprašanj zaprtega tipa, pri čemer smo uporabljali kvantitativno tehniko, nekaj pa je bilo tudi vprašanj odprtega tipa, za kar smo uporabili kvalitativno tehniko. Vsebino dokumentov pa smo analizirali tudi s kvalitativno oz. fenomenološko analizo, pri čemer smo ugotavljali pogled anketiranih na posamezna vsebinska izhodišča. Anketni vprašalnik je obsegal 19 vprašanj in so bili anonimni.

Razposlali in razdelili smo 250 anketnih vprašalnikov. Razposlani in razdeljeni so bili sredi meseca septembra 2013, vrnjeni pa so bili sredi meseca oktobra 2013 ter v istem mesecu tudi obdelani. Vrnjenih in obdelanih je bilo 100 anketnih vprašalnikov.

2.3 Postopki obdelave podatkov

Pridobljene podatke smo s pomočjo anketnih vprašalnikov zbrali, nato smo kvantitativne podatke, ki smo jih pridobili z odgovori na vprašanja zaprtega tipa, kvantitativno obdelali z deskriptivno in inferenčno statistiko, saj smo iz izbranega vzorca sklepali na vse občane izbranih občin. Za obdelavo kvantitativnih podatkov smo uporabljali program SPSS. Kvalitativne podatke, ki smo jih pridobili z odgovori na vprašanja odprtega tipa, smo kvalitativno obdelali z ročno kvalitativno vsebinsko analizo. Odgovore smo grupirali v dimenzije trajnosti (ekosistemska, dimenzija celovitosti in blaginje ter dimenzija samooskrbe in vključene javnosti). Navedene dimenzije veljajo kot stebri trajnostnega razvoja (Vovk Korže 2011; Špes 2009). Ugotovljeni rezultati so nam služili za oblikovanje spoznanj na področju poznavanja trajnostnega razvoja na regionalni ravni.

3. Rezultati poznavanja trajnostnega razvoja v Dravinjski dolini

V anketah, ki so bile zajete v obdelavo je bil vzorec anketiranih sestavljen takole:

Preglednica 1: Anketirani glede na spol.

Spol	Odstotek
Moški	42.0
Ženski	58.0
Skupaj	100.0

Vir: Podatki izračunani iz odgovorov, pridobljenih z anketnim vprašalnikom.

Preglednica 2: Anketirani glede na starostni razred.

Starost	Odstotek
do 20 let	5.0
od 21 do 40 let	63.0
od 41 do 60 let	30.0
več kot 60 let	2.0
Skupaj	100.0

Vir: Podatki izračunani iz odgovorov, pridobljenih z anketnim vprašalnikom.

Preglednica 3: Anketirani glede na občino bivanja.

Občina	Odstotek
Majšperk	20.0
Makole	28.0
Poljčane	17.0
Slovenske Konjice	12.0
Vitanje	7.0
Oplotnica	11.0
Zreče	5.0
Skupaj	100.0

Vir: Podatki izračunani iz odgovorov, pridobljenih z anketnim vprašalnikom.

Preglednica 4: Anketirani glede na izobrazbo.

Izobrazba anketiranih	Odstotek
Nedokončano osnovnošolsko izobraževanje	3.0
Končano osnovnošolsko izobraževanje	2.0
Poklicno izobraževanje	14.0
Srednje tehnično strokovno izobraževanje	20.0
Končana gimnazija	12.0
Višješolsko izobraževanje	13.0
Visokošolsko izobraževanje	20.0
Univerzitetno izobraževanje	14.0
Magisterij znanosti	2.0
Skupaj	100.0

Vir: Podatki izračunani iz odgovorov, pridobljenih z anketnim vprašalnikom.

Vprašanja, ki se nanašajo na poznavanje trajnostnega razvoja (okoljski, ekonomski in družbeni vidik) smo združili v Preglednici 5.

Preglednica 5: Odgovori na vprašanja o pomembnosti elementov trajnostnega razvoja.

Vprašanja	Da %	Ne %	Drugo %
Pomembnost kulturne in naravne dediščine	80	15	5
Pomembnost večnamenske rabe podeželja	80	15	5
Pomembnost naložb v človeške vire	80	15	5
Pomembnost naložb v inovacije	83	12	5
Pomembnost naložb v kvalitetno kmetijsko proizvodnjo	85	10	5
Pomembnost trajnostnega gospodarjenja z naravnimi viri	83	12	5
Pomembnost ohranjanja kulturne pokrajine	78	17	5
Pomembnost varovanja okolja	92	3	5
Pomembnost ohranjanja naravnih virov	85	15	0
Pomembnost rodovitne zemlje	88	12	0
Pomembnost predelave domače hrane	90	10	0
Pomembnost čiste vode in zraka	85	15	0
Pomembnost ohranjene naravne dediščine	87	13	0
Pomembnost ohranjene kulturne dediščine	87	13	0
Pomembnost povezave na lokalni ravni	88	12	0
Pomembnost skupne blagovne znamke	83	17	0
Pomembnost ustvarjanja novih delovnih mest	96	4	0
Pomembnost izboljšanja življenja na podeželju	94	6	0
Pomembnost povečanja prepoznavnosti območja Dravinjske doline	92	8	0

Vir: Podatki izračunani iz odgovorov, pridobljenih z anketnim vprašalnikom.

Trditve so bile postavljene pozitivno v smeri ali se jim zdi pomembno upoštevati pri razvoju regije kulturno in naravno dediščino, večnamensko rabo podeželja, naložbe v človeške vire, naložbe v inovacije, naložbe v kvalitetno kmetijsko proizvodnjo, pomembnost trajnostnega gospodarjenja z naravnimi viri, ohranjanja kulturne pokrajine, varovanja okolja, ohranjanje naravnih virov, pomembnosti rodovitne zemlje, predelava domače hrane, čistost vode in zraka, ohranjena naravna dediščina, ohranjena kulturna dediščina, povezave na lokalni ravni, skupna blagovna znamka, ustvarjanje novih delovnih mest, izboljšanje življenja na podeželju in povečanje prepoznavnosti območja Dravinjske doline.

Preglednica 6: Pomembnost posameznih dejavnikov za kvaliteto življenja.

Dejavnik	Odstotek
Izboljšanje konkurenčnosti kmetijskega, prehranskega in gozdarskega sektorja	15.8
Spodbujati okolju prijazno kmetovanje	14.1
Izboljšati gospodarski in socialni položaj podeželja	42.4
Spodbujati lokalne razvojne pobude podeželja	15.8
Povezati interese posameznih občin	11.9
Skupaj	100.0

Vir: Podatki izračunani iz odgovorov, pridobljenih z anketnim vprašalnikom.

Na vprašanje odprtega tipa, ki se je glasilo »Kako si vi predstavljate delovanje novih regij, ki bi temeljile na zaposlitvi domače delovne sile?« so anketirani odgovorili takole:

- delovanje v dobrobit vseh prebivalcev, z vso podporo občin in lokalnih skupnosti, z vsem kar nudi višjo kvaliteto življenja;
- delovanje takšnih regij je nujno potrebno, predvsem z vidika zaposlitev znotraj regij in samooskrbe regije;
- takšen pristop reševanja regionalizacije v Sloveniji bi privedel k skladnejšemu in trajnejšemu razvoju;
- predhodno prilagoditi šolski sistem, ki bi bil naravnan na potrebe trga, z večjim poudarkom na poklicni izobrazbi in praksi;
- subvencioniranje izobraževanja za poklice, pomembne za to področje in za delovanje funkcionalne regije;
- spodbujati = pomagati pri konkretnih dilemah ter s podporo pri izobraževanju in samozaposlitvi;
- spodbujati obstoječa podjetja k zaposlovanju domače delovne sile in predvsem spodbujati mlade, da ostanejo v regiji (problem je premalo razvita industrija za mlade inovatorje);
- izboljšanje stanja gospodarskih dejavnosti, ki nudijo možnost zaposlitve in spodbujanje posameznikov, ki so že naredili nekaj v smeri razvoja in se trudijo ustvariti nekaj svojega v domačem kraju;
- spodbujati ljudi k povezovanju v kmetijske, turistične, gozdarske in druge dejavnosti;
- v kolikor bi se pridelovalci različnih izdelkov povezali med seboj, bi lahko prodirali na druge trge, kar bi zagotovo prineslo pozitivne rezultate tako za regijo kot za posameznike;
- skupna blagovna znamka in s tem nova delovna mesta, predvsem na področju kmetijstva in turizma (vinotoči, turistične kmetije);
- za doseg takega cilja je potrebno veliko složnosti in predvsem dobra strategija, ki bo tudi dobro predstavljena in v katero bodo vključeni ljudje, ki jo bodo tudi razumeli in razumeli cilj h kateremu stremiti;

- spodbujanje in oživitev obrti, ki so izumrle;
- možnost večje samooskrbe in spodbujanje uporabe lokalnega;
- medsebojno svetovanje in morebitno skupno zaposlovanje strokovnjakov, ki bi pripomogli k razvoju regije s skupno raziskavo trga in iskanjem tržnih niš;
- nove investicije v gospodarstvo, kmetijstvo in turizem;
- občine bi se povezale, območje bi postalo bolj prepoznavno, kmetijstvo bolj konkurenčno zaradi večjih količin (kot včasih zadruga);
- promocija regije v vseh sklopih njenega delovanja;
- zmanjšanje brezposelnosti;
- rezultat bi že bil, če bi nove regije delovale tako, da bi se kmetu ponovno splačalo pridelovati in predelovati domačo hrano, lahko bi bilo več zaposlenih na kmetijah;
- izkoriščanje naravnih dobrin, njihova predelava in trženje;
- koristna poraba denarja;
- povezati bi se morali (mladi) ljudje z inovativnimi zamislimi na vseh področjih;
- za vsako na novo ustanovljeno delovno mesto bi bil pogoj, da se zaposli občana, ne pa ljudi iz drugih regij;
- več usposabljanj in ozaveščenj prebivalcev teh občin;
- sprememba namembnosti določenih kmetijskih zemljišč za namene gospodarskih panog.

Iz navedenih podatkov izstopajo visoki deleži podpore elementom trajnostnega razvoja in pozitiven odnos anketiranih do vseh navedenih izhodišč, na katerih temeljijo trajnostni pristopi.

4. Poznavanje dimenzij trajnostnega razvoja v Dravinjski dolini

Trajnostni razvoj je pogosto tolmačen kot okoljski, ekonomski in socialni vidik. Te vidike lažje opišemo z dimenzijami kot so ekosistemska, dimenzija celovitosti in blaginje ter dimenzija salooskrbnosti z vključeno javnostjo (Vovk Korže 2011; Falkenmark 2005).

4.1 Ekosistemska dimenzija

Čeprav je pri trajnostnih zasnovah poudarek na enako uravnoveženem razvoju okoljskih, gospodarskih in socialnih sistemov, je za doseganje blaginje potrebno pripisati večjo težo okolju, torej naravi. Namreč ekosistemi so s svojimi ekosistemskimi storitvami osnova za preživetje. Nepremišljeno ravnanje z ekosistemi povratno negativno vpliva na naše blagostanje, na kakovost in razpoložljivost osnovnih virov in s tem na naše zdravje. Zato je pri poudarjanju pomena povezave vseh podsistemov v regiji oz. lokalni skupnosti treba izpostaviti kot prednostno ekosistemsko dimenzijo, ki določa smeri povezav ostalih sistemov. Ta dimenzija je torej skladna z ekosistemskim pristopom, ki se je pojavil v zadnjih desetletjih in ga lahko umestimo kot najbolj pomembno dimenzijo trajnostne zasnove RA 21. Ohranjanje biološke raznovrstnosti in ekosistemov oz. ekosfere je zato tudi ekopolitično vprašanje, ki zahteva znanje, odgovornost, celostni sistemski pristop in obravnavo planeta Zemlje kot pomembne vrednote, ki nam omogoča razvoj in preživetje.

4.2 Dimenzija celovitosti in blaginje

Pomemben razlog za neuspeh strategije trajnostnega razvoja je t.i. razkosanje razvoja na gospodarski, socialni, ekološki, človekov in lokalni razvoj ter podpiranje vsakega delnega razvoja posebej (Radej 2009). Tak pristop je razdrobil kompleksna vprašanja

napredka na manjše problemske sklope, s čimer je zabrisal njihova medsebojna razmerja. To je toliko spornejše, ker so ta razmerja pogosto konfliktna. Posledica je, da živimo v dobi razvojev po ločenih delih, ko poskušajo vlade s čarovnijo lepljenja vedno novih pridevnikov na dogmo razvoja zamegliti pogled na negativne posledice razvojnega koncepta. Tudi če na koncept razvoja prilepijo pridevnik družbeni, se podpira gospodarska rast. Koncept trajnostnega razvoja, s katerim si vlade prizadevajo dokazati, da je možen gospodarsko učinkovit, ekološko vzdržen, družbeno enakopraven razvoj z demokratičnimi temelji, ki je geopolitično sprejemljiv in kulturno raznoličen, ne podpira celovitih pristopov (pač pa razvoj deli v ločene sestavine), kar se je izkazalo kot neuspešno. To torej pomeni, da je potrebno sestavine oz. kapitale določene regije (okoljski kapital, človeški kapital, gospodarski kapital) povezati in jih razvijati skupaj, ne vsakega posebej. Kot najbolj nazoren primer necelovitega pristopa je obstoj Nature 2000, kjer mnoga območja, ki so zavarovana, stagnirajo, ker ni prišlo do povezave naravnega kapitala s socialnim, človeškim in ekonomskim.

Gospodarska rast, usmerjana v proizvodnjo materialnih dobrin ne bi smela tako usodno vplivati na procese v družbi in naravi kot doslej. Latouche je prepričan, da je treba zasnovati družbo nerasti. Če hočemo doseči blaginjo, se moramo najprej vprašati, kaj pomeni to, da ekonomija vlada nad vsem drugim v življenju – v teoriji in praksi, predvsem pa v naših glavah. Koncept nerasti tako predvsem uvaja zahtevo po ponovni opredelitvi meja ekonomske racionalnosti (Radej 2009).

4.3 Dimenzija samooskrbnosti in aktivne vključene javnosti

Regije imajo socialni, naravni in gospodarski kapital, ki so sami po sebi mrtvi, če niso med seboj povezani. Pomembno je, da so povezani med seboj z vsebinami, ki so jim skupne. Povezava je temeljna za samooskrbne regije podlaga celostne obravnave in napredka oz. blaginje. Celostni učinki nastajajo šele presečno (Radej 2009). Ravno zato je vsak vidik delnega razvoja s stališča celostne blaginje lahko ocenjen šele glede na sekundarne vplive, ki jih ima na druge delne razvoje, ki imajo drugačne primarne cilje. Samooskrbnost, ki temelji na spoštovanju ekosistemov lahko s preseki podsistemov razvije mnoge nove preseke, ki pomenijo trdno mrežo in povezavo narave in človeka. Samooskrbnostna dimenzija tudi pomeni, da se aktivirajo »mnoga kolesa«, ki ob skupni viziji peljejo v eno smer, kar je temeljna razlika od t.i. svetilniških pristopov, ki so na zunaj sicer vidni, a v bistvu so v temi - to je prisposoba za velike projekte, ki regiji dejansko ne prinesejo dolgoročne blaginje, celo nasprotno). V knjigi Politik der Inwertsetzung (2007) je med odločitvami, ki jih mora narediti vsaka regija na poti k trajnosti tudi navedena samooskrbnost kot osnova za celovit regionalni razvoj (Krotscheck s soavtorji 2007).

Anketirani so izrazili posameznim dimenzijam elementom razvoja naslednjo podporo v deležu, ki je razviden v Preglednicah 7 - 9:

Preglednica 7: Ekosistemska dimenzija:

Dimenzija	Delež %
Pomembnost varovanja okolja	92
Pomembnost rodovitne zemlje	88
Pomembnost ohranjanja naravnih virov	85
Pomembnost čiste vode in zraka	85
Pomembnost ohranjene naravne dediščine	87
Pomembnost trajnostnega gospodarjenja z naravnimi viri	83
Povprečen delež	86,7

Vir: Lastni izračuni.

Preglednica 8: Dimenzija celovitosti in blaginje.

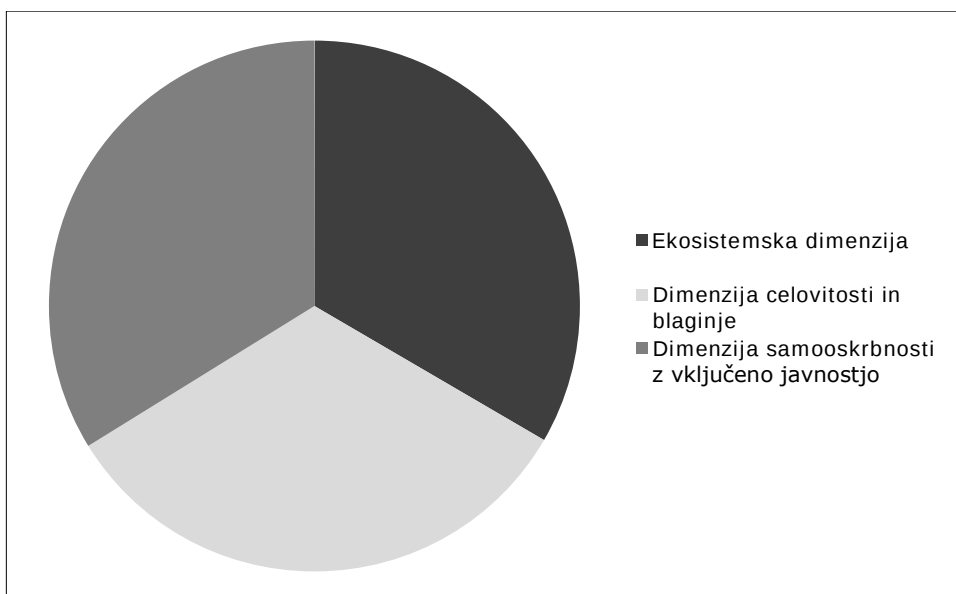
Dimenzija	Delež %
Pomembnost izboljšanja življenja na podeželju	94
Pomembnost povezave na lokalni ravni	88
Pomembnost ohranjene kulturne dediščine	87
Pomembnost naložb v človeške vire	80
Pomembnost ohranjanja kulturne pokrajine	78
Pomembnost naložb v inovacije	83
Povprečen delež	85

Vir: Lastni izračuni.

Preglednica 9: Dimenzija samooskrbnosti z vključeno javnostjo.

Dimenzija	Delež %
Pomembnost ustvarjenja novih delovnih mest	96
Pomembnost povečanja prepoznavnosti območja Dravinjske doline	92
Pomembnost predelave domače hrane	90
Pomembnost naložb v kvalitetno kmetijsko proizvodnjo	85
Pomembnost skupne blagovne znamke	83
Pomembnost večnamenske rabe podeželja	80
Povprečen delež	87,7

Vir: Lastni izračuni.



Slika 2: Sintezni pogled na podporo posameznim elementom trajnostnega razvoja.

Vir: Lastni izračuni.

Anketiranci so dali največjo težo dimenziji samooskrbnosti z vključeno javnostjo. Lokalno prebivalstvo območja Dravinjske doline zelo dobro pozna pomen trajnostnega razvoja. Glede na to, da v Dravinjski dolini že potekajo mnoge izobraževalno-turistične dejavnosti, lahko sklepamo, da je učni turizem prav preko učnih poligonov in učnih poti pripomogel k pozitivni visoki podpori elementom trjnostenga razvoja. Kot ponudniki so domačini vključeni v podporne dejavnosti (gastronomsko- turistična ponudba na izletniških in turističnih kmetijah, vodenje, ponudba na lokalnih tržnicah).

Ljudje podpirajo aktivnosti v smeri trajnostnega razvoja na območju Dravinjske doline. To je razvidno tudi iz podpore ekosistemski dimenziji, ki so ji anketiranci namenili 86,7 % podpore. Da je učna regija Dravinjska dolina prepoznana po trajnostnem razvoju potrjuje tudi 85 % podpora dimenziji celovitosti in blaginje. Z vzpostavitvijo učne regije Dravinjske doline so se ljudje aktivno vključili v posamezne dejavnosti in jih tudi prevzeli preko društev. Nastalo je tudi novo ustanovljeno Društvo zakladi Dravinjske doline, ki povezuje občine ob reki Dravinji in šteje okoli aktivnih 90 članov. Vsi so ponudniki blaga ali storitev in sodelujejo v regiji pri izvajanju dejavnosti.

Pomembna ugotovitev analize je visoka podpora samooskrbi in tudi visoka podpora ekosistemski dimenziji, torej naravi, medtem ko se je dimenzija celovitosti in blaginje uvstila na tretje mesto. Ta ugotovitev jasno kaže, da ljudje ne dajajo največjo težo zgolj denarju in udobju, ampak aktivni participaciji in ohranjeni naravi.

5. Zaključek

V Dravinjski dolini od leta 2007 potekajo različne aktivnosti in projekti, ki so zasnovani trajnostno. Učinek teh aktivnosti je po sedmih letih viden v delovanju učne regije Dravinjske doline. Učni poligon in ureditve na terenu v povezavi z društvi, ponudniki in občinami omogočajo izkustveno izobraževanje za trajnostni razvoj. Obiskovalcem je na voljo številna turistično- izobraževalna infrastruktura, v povezavi z naravno in kulturno dediščino. Predvsem mladi si z izkustvenim izobraževanjem pridobijo uporabno in aktualno znanje. S ciljem prenosa znanja med ljudi, so na voljo številni izobraževalni programi, namenjeni posameznikom, skupinam in družinam ter razne druge aktivnosti in ogledi, vključno s strokovnim vodenjem. Takšen premik na področju izkustvenega izobraževanja predstavlja predvsem za slovensko šolstvo velik napredek in nam omogoča mednarodno prepoznavnost, saj imamo kot država izjemne možnosti, da vzpostavimo pogoje za izkustveno izobraževanje, ne samo za potrebe Slovenije, temveč, da odpremo Slovenijo kot učno regijo za Evropo in svet.

Lega, naravni pogoji, podobna zgodovina in kulturna dediščina so idealna podlaga za nadaljnje skupno načrtovanje trajnostnega regionalnega razvoja občin v Dravinjski dolini. Glede na odgovore ljudi, ki so sodelovali v anketi, le ti s povprečno oceno 86,5 % podpirajo trajnostni razvoj (vse tri dimenzije), kar je izredno visok delež. Najvišji deleži podpore gredo ustvarjanju zelenih delovnih mest, izboljšanju življenja na podeželju in povečanju prepoznavnosti Dravinjske doline z lastno blagovno znamko. Le ta je že nastala in se imenuje Zakladi Dravinjske doline (Vovk Korže 2014a, Vovk Korže 2014b).

Morda je lahko prav Dravinjska dolina primer dobre prakse lokalno-regionalnega razvoja na temelju inovativnosti, tradicionalnega znanja, ekosistemskih značilnosti in vključenih ljudi. Ljudje prav temu elementu trajnostnega razvoja pripisujejo največji pomen, saj tudi sami sodelujejo in ustvarjajo izdelke in storitve in tako pomembno vplivajo k zmanjševanju globalizacijskih trendov ter h krepitvi lokalno-regionalno zasnovanega razvoja. Zaključimo lahko, da se v Dravinjski dolini že uresničuje trajnostni razvoj in da le ta ne pozna občinskih meja.

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RECOGNIZING THE SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT ON REGIONAL LEVEL WITH THE EXAMPLE OF DRAVINJA VALLEY

Summary

Some decades ago were very popular regional and local agendas with the notions of sustainable development as well as prevention over natural resources and fair distribution of responsibilities between all especially between polluters. This is how regional and local agendas actually derived from the call published in 28th chapter of Agenda 21 to all local communities, to create their own programs according to the Agenda 21 in which should general aims be transferred into actions for their own areas. Today we know that only the entire community can do that if it can get into the preparation and performance all the sectors in its area. In the Dravinja valley area that belongs into the Natura 2000 area, have been since 2007 established educational and explorational educational pathways with the purpose of informing public about the meaning of sustainability. Municipalities in Dravinja valley are connected by the river Dravinja which has created picturesque scenery through the history until today with much natural potential. Since the municipalities Makole, Majšperk and Poljčane have similar history and cultural heritage as well as similar location and natural heritage, were these common characteristics the base for establishment of cycling, educational and walking pathways in Dravinja valley. Established cycling, educational and walking pathways are marked with learning boards, learning points, benches and tables for resting and with information boards. Thematic educational pathways in Dravinja valley are appropriate for all generations, so that they can holistically experience the environment, learn about the processes in nature and fully live with it. In connection with local people, local societies and municipalities are municipalities in Dravinja valley becoming recognized after preserved cultural and natural heritage on which new services base.

With the purpose to check what people know about sustainability on regional level in the area of Dravinja valley the survey with nineteen questions was performed. Questions were attached to the topic of evaluation of meaning of the cultural and natural heritage, multi-purposeful use of rural area, investments into the human resources, investments into innovations, investments into farm production, onto sustainable management of natural resources, preservation of cultural environment and importance of environment protection. The aim of the research was to check knowing the purpose of sustainable development in the area of Dravinja valley, since here are many arrangements created on the basis of sustainable development. Starting point of research was that people are aware of the sustainable development approaches, since they actively cooperate in projects performed in Dravinja region. Empirical research was performed on 250 people in the Dravinja region. People answering the questionnaires live in municipalities Zreče, Slovenske Konjice, Oplotnica, Vitanje, Poljčane, Makole in Majšperk.

Local people from the area of Dravinja valley very well know the meaning of sustainable development. According to the fact that in Dravinja valley many educational – touristic activities are performed, we can conclude that learning tourism has become known activity in the region especially by our learning polygons. People support the activities, since they cooperate in the activity by its supporting activities (gastronomic-touristic offer on touristic farms, guiding, offer on local market). People support activities for sustainable development in the Dravinja valley. This is as well seen from the support of ecosystem dimension, to which the respondents gave 86,7% of support. Teaching region of Dravinja valley is recognized after sustainable

development which is supported with 85% towards the holism and prosperity dimension. With the establishment of teaching region Dravinja valley people have actively started to cooperate in certain activities and took them over by the association. New association was created; it is called "Association of Dravinja valley treasures" which connects municipalities by river Dravinja and counts around 90 members. All offer some goods or services and actively cooperate in the region. Important is the finding of the research that there exists high support to self-providing as well a high support to ecosystem dimension, nature, while the dimension of holism and prosperity has placed on the third place. Those findings clearly show that people do not give the greatest importance on money and comfort, but to active participation and preserved nature as well, which is extremely important to know. According to the people's answers, that cooperated in the survey, people support sustainable development by 86,5% (all three dimensions), which is very high rate. The highest percentages of support go to creation of green workplaces, improvement of life in rural areas and increasing of the recognition of Dravinja valley with its own brand.

DOMAČE NALOGE PRI POUKU GEOGRAFIJE – UČNI IZZIVI ALI LE OBVEZNOSTI ?

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Izvleček

Domače naloge pri pouku geografije - učni izzivi ali le obveznosti ?

V prispevku so predstavljena nekatera teoretična izhodišča, ki opredeljujejo domače naloge kot pomemben del učnega procesa. Učenci z njimi dopolnjujejo pridobljeno znanje in razvijajo sposobnosti pri predmetu, predvsem pa se usposabljaajo za samostojno učenje in prepoznavanje osebne odgovornosti zanj. S študijem primera predstavljamo raziskavo o pogostosti, namembnosti in vsebini domačih nalog pri pouku geografije ter motiviranosti učencev in učiteljev zanje na osnovni šoli Petrovče. Rezultati kažejo, da se učenci in učitelji na teoretični ravni sicer zavedajo pozitivnega vpliva domačih nalog na učenčevo učenje in razvijanje samostojnosti. Kljub temu učenci nalog ne opravljajo redno, učitelji dajejo premalo raznolike in diferencirano osmišljene domače naloge.

Ključne besede

domača naloga, osnovna šola, geografija, učenec, učitelj

Abstract

Geography homeworks - didactic challenges or just learning obligations?

In the article there are some theoretical starting points presented as homework being an important part of educational process. Pupils throw homework complement the gained knowledge and are developing abilities at courses, above all they are training their independent learning and recognising personal responsibilities for it. With the case study of the Primary school Petrovče we are introducing the research on frequency, intended use and content of homework at the class of geography and the motivation of pupils and teachers for them. Results are indicating, that pupils, and teachers are on theoretical level otherwise aware of the positive influence of homework on pupils learning and development of independence. Nevertheless pupils are not regularly doing their homework and teachers are giving too little diverse and differential thought-out homework.

Keywords

Homework, primary school, geography, student, teacher

1. Uvod

Že iz izbora termina za učno delo izven rednega pouka lahko razberemo raznolikost pogledov na to, kaj vse naj le-to obsega in čemu je namenjeno. Poleg termina domače naloge se v strokovni literaturi uporabljajo še drugi izrazi, npr. domače delo, domača vaja in domače učenje (Poljak 1974, Brinovec 2004, Čagran 2007, Vahčič Mlakar 2007, Šček Prebil 2010). Ker se termin domača naloga pojavlja najpogosteje, smo se omejili nanj in z njim zajemamo vse oblike in namene učnega dela učencev izven pouka npr. domače učenje, vaje, ipd.

Opredelitev namena domačih nalog se v zadnjih štiridesetih letih v slovenskem šolskem prostoru ni bistveno spremenila. Poljak (1974, 230) jih že pred štiridesetimi leti definira kot »aktivnost učencev, ki izhaja iz vsakdanjih obveznosti do dela v šoli, pomaga pa izpolnjevati učne naloge in se izvaja mimo šolskega dela«. Opredeleževala sta se tudi dva namena domačih nalog, tako izobraževalni kot vzgojni: »Vzgojni cilji domačih nalog so, ko učenci razvijajo različne osebnostne lastnosti, kot so vztrajnost, urejenost, natančnost, razvijanje občutka odgovornosti do dela. Poleg tega utrjujejo, razširjajo in poglobljajo znanja ter razvijajo različne sposobnosti, kar prištevamo pod izobraževalne cilje domačih nalog« (Novak 1979, 61).

Novejše opredelitve pomena in namena domačega dela se že širijo tudi na področje prenosa znanj in veščin: »Domače naloge so nadgradnja učnih ur, s katerimi učenec znanje utrdi. Učencu krepijo delovne navade in ga povezujejo z družino in okolico. Domače naloge so uspešen del izobraževalnega procesa, ki se nikoli ne konča v šoli, ampak poteka povsod in nenehno. Tudi in predvsem doma.« (Vahčič Mlakar 2007, 55).

Izhajajoč iz didaktičnih načel, ki naj usmerjajo načrtovanje domačih nalog, velja zlasti izpostaviti:

- Načelo znanstvenosti, ki opredeljuje, da mora celoten izobraževalni proces (torej tudi domače naloge) biti znanstveno nesporen in veljaven. Znanstvenost se kaže v ciljih, vsebinah, oblikovanju in izvajanju procesa. Pri tem velja poudariti tudi vidik celostnosti vzgojno – izobraževalnega dela, kjer se učenje ne začne in ne konča v šoli, ampak je sestavni del našega življenja. Zatorej naj bi domače naloge pomagale pri povezovanju med teoretičnim in praktičnim (izkustvenim) učenjem ter povezoval tako formalno kot neformalno znanje.
- Načelo pestrosti/raznolikosti vzgojno-izobraževalnega dela. Osrednji namen je, da so domače naloge raznolike in aktualne. Raznolikost se naj izraža tako v vsebini, namenu, obliki, tehniki, času izvajanja in drugih kriterijih. Naloge naj bodo blizu učenčevim življenjskim izkušnjam in interesom.
- Načelo diferenciacije in individualizacije vzgojno izobraževalnega dela. Domače naloge naj bodo diferencirane tako, da jih bodo sposobni reševati vsi učenci. Različno individualno prilagojene naj bodo v obsegu, po težavnosti, po postopku dela, spoznavnih stilih učencev, oblikah izvajanja itd., upošteva naj se tudi učenčev interes.
- Načelo racionalizacije in ekonomičnosti. Pri načrtovanju domačih nalog je potrebno tudi razmisliti o optimalni rabi časa, učil in učnih pripomočkov, učnih metod in oblik dela v povezavi s psihofizičnimi zmožnostmi učencev in učiteljev.

Razlikujemo različne vrste domačih nalog. La Conte jih deli v tri skupine (1981):

- Vaja: reševanje vaj je najbolj poznana vrsta domačih nalog. Namen takšne naloge je dajanje možnosti učencem, da utrdijo nova znanja in spretnosti. Pri

geografiji je takšen primer naloge takrat, kadar mora učenec v šoli pridobljeno znanje ponoviti doma.

- Priprava: namen je, da se učenci pripravijo in informirajo za naslednjo učno uro oz. prihajajoče šolsko delo, npr. da si preberejo novo poglavje v učbeniku in odgovorijo na vprašanja ali brskajo po različnih virih informacij, opravijo morda samostojna opazovanja doma, na poti v šolo. Najpomembneje pri takšni vrsti naloge je, da damo učencem primerna navodila, v katerih moramo učencem razložiti namen domače naloge. Pri nalogah je potrebno upoštevati njihovo zahtevnost in obseg. Pri učencih spodbujamo iniciativnost, kreativnost, domišljijo, uporabo različnih sredstev informiranja, ipd.

- Razširitev: od učenca zahteva nadgradnjo že usvojenega znanja. Pri takšni vrsti nalog se spodbuja posameznikove interese in sposobnosti. Običajno so tovrstne domače naloge časovno daljše, njihov namen je spodbujanje avtentičnih načinov učenja. Naloga je po navadi zgrajena okoli določenega problema, ki ga učenec poskuša rešiti. Naloge so navadno individualne, razen če učenci sodelujejo v skupinah, kjer ima vsak svojo zadolžitev.

Vrste domačih nalog lahko opredeljujemo tudi glede na različne kriterije: tehniko izvedbe (pisne, ustne, praktične); obliko izvedbe (individualne, parne, skupinske, kolektivne); nujnost izvršitve (obvezne, prostovoljne); učenčevo možnost izbire (predpisane - učitelj določi vsebino in način reševanja, nepredpisane - vsebino in način reševanja izbere učenec sam); čas izvrševanja domače naloge (kratkoročne – učenec nalogo opravi do naslednje ure, dolgoročne – učenec ima več časa za izvedbo); upoštevanje učenčeve individualnosti (nediferencirane, kvantitativno diferencirane – po obsegu in količini, kvalitativno diferencirane – po težavnostni stopnji, metodično diferencirane – po postopku dela, interesno diferencirane – po upoštevanju učenčevega interesa); cilje domače naloge (naloge vaje in utrjevanja, poglobljanja in razširjanja znanja, sistematizacije znanja, uporabe znanja v danih primerih – učitelj določi primere, v katerih učenec uporabi novo znanje, uporabe znanja v iskanih primerih – učenec sam poišče primere, v katerih uporablja novo znanje, priprava na obdelavo nove snovi (Brinovec 2004, Čagran 2007; Šček Prebil 2010)).

Opisane opredelitve domačih nalog so bile teoretično izhodišče za opredelitev raziskave o pomenu domačih nalog pri pouku geografije.

2. Raziskava pomen domačih nalog pri pouku geografije na primeru Osnovne šole Petrovče.

V slovenskem učnem načrtu za geografijo v osnovnih šolah (ZRSŠ 2008) domače delo učencev ni neposredno navedeno v didaktičnih priporočilih za izvedbo pouka, kot tudi ne v zapisu učnih ciljev. Učiteljevi strokovni avtonomiji je torej prepuščeno, da z vidika namena in ciljev pouka geografije učno delo organizira tako, da bodo le-ti ob zaključku izobraževanja učencev doseženi.

Na primeru izbrane osnovne šole smo želeli ugotoviti, kakšen je odnos učencev in njihovih staršev ter učiteljev geografije do domačih nalog na predmetni stopnji. Celotna raziskava izvedena na osnovni šoli Petrovče v letu 2013 je zajela dve področji: analizo opravljenih domačih nalog, ki so jih učenci v dveh oddelkih osmih razredov imeli v aprilu in maju 2013 pri pouku geografije (pogostost, opis in namen domačih nalog, učne metode in učna gradiva, uporabljena pri domačih nalogah) ter mnenjsko raziskavo učencev, učiteljev in staršev o domačih nalogah pri pouku

geografije ter mnenje učencev, staršev in učiteljev geografije o domačih nalogah pri pouku geografije.

V prispevku se osredotočamo na prvi del raziskave, ki je vezan na analizo domačih nalog, ki so jih učenci v dveh oddelkih osmih razredov imeli v aprilu in maju 2013 pri pouku geografije na Osnovni šoli Petrovče.

2.1. Metodologija in struktura raziskave

Raziskava temelji na deskriptivni in kavzalno – neeksperimentalni metodi empiričnega pedagoškega raziskovanja. Raziskovalne hipoteze so bile implicitno izražene v obliki raziskovalnih vprašanj, za vsak posamezni del raziskave je bil izdelan seznam raziskovalnih spremenljivk in izdelan preizkus odvisnih zvez med spremenljivkami po raziskovalnih vprašanjih. Kot raziskovalni pripomoček je bil oblikovan anketni list za učence in učiteljico geografije v obliki vprašanj in preglednice, v katero so sodelujoči zapisovali vrsto in namen domačih nalog, njihovo pogostost, uporabo učnih metod ter učnih gradiv za preteklo obdobje dveh mesecev (april in maj 2013).

Anketni listi za učence in učiteljico o domačih nalogah pri pouku geografije na Osnovni šoli Petrovče je vključeval naslednja vprašanja: Kako pogosto učenci dobijo domačo nalogo pri pouku geografije? Kakšna je domača naloga, ki jo dobijo učenci pri pouku geografije? Katera učna gradiva učenci uporabljajo pri reševanju domačih nalog pri pouku geografije? Kakšne so učne metode, ki jih uporablja učitelj pri domačih nalogah pri pouku geografije? Kakšen je po mnenju učitelja namen domačih nalog pri pouku geografije?

2.2. Postopki zbiranja, obdelave in predstavitve podatkov.

Anketne liste so udeleženci reševali pri pouku v mesecu juniju 2013. Učenci so jih rešili med poukom, učiteljica pa izven pouka. Na začetku anketnih listov so bila vprašanja o objektivnih dejstvih (spol, razred, delovna doba, starost, končana stopnja izobrazbe). Sledila so vprašanja o pogostosti, vsebini, oblikah, načinu izvedbe, preverjanju, diferenciaciji, ocenjevanju in pomenu domačih nalog pri pouku geografije. Zanesljivost smo zagotovili z natančnimi navodili in enopomenskimi, specifičnimi vprašanji.

Pridobljeni podatki so bili obdelani s statističnim programom SPSS, verzija 20. Podatke smo tabelarično prikazali in izračunali absolutne (f) ter odstotne (f %) frekvence. Anketni listi z vprašanji odprtega tipa smo kategorizirali, kategorije pa nato rangirali po pogostosti samega pojavljanja (f).

2.3. Raziskovalni vzorec

Raziskava temelji na neslučajnostnem vzorcu učencev osmih razredov, ki so bili vpisani v šolskem letu 2012/2013 na osnovno šolo Petrovče. Učenci devetih razredov v raziskavi niso sodelovali, ker so v času raziskave že zaključevali s poukom. Šesti in osmi razredi so imeli geografijo po fleksibilnem predmetniku, zato z vidika relativne časovne oddaljenosti tudi ni bilo smotrno učence spraševati o dogodkih izpred nekaj mesecev, saj ti geografije v času izvedbe raziskave niso imeli. Anketne liste so reševali učenci 8. a (16 učencev) in 8. c (15 učencev) razreda, 8. b razred v raziskavo ni bil vključen, ker je pouk geografije potekal po fleksibilnem predmetniku in so že, kot šestošolci in devetošolci, zaključili svoje delo. Anketni list o domačih nalogah, ki so jih imeli učenci 8. a in 8. c razreda v aprilu in maju 2013,

je rešila učiteljica geografije, ki je poučevala osme razrede. Šesti razred in sedmi razred je poučevala druga učiteljica geografije.

Preglednica 1: Število (f) in strukturni odstotek učiteljev geografije glede na spol in delovno dobo.

Spol	Moški		Ženski		Skupaj	
Delovna doba	f	f %	f	f %	f	f %
Manj kot 10 let	0	0,0	2	66,7	2	66,7
Več kot 30 let	0	0,0	1	33,3	1	33,3
Skupaj	0	0,0	3	100,0	3	100,0

Vir: Dobnik, Anketni vprašalnik vezan na mnenje učiteljev geografije o domačih nalogah pri pouku geografije na Osnovni šoli Petrovče, 2013.

Preglednica 2: Število (f) in strukturni odstotek (f %) učencev, ki so reševali zbirne liste, glede na razred.

Razred	f	f %
8. a	16	51,6
8. c	15	48,4
Skupaj	31	100,0

Vir: Dobnik, Zbirni listi za učence o domačih nalogah pri pouku geografije na Osnovni šoli Petrovče, 2013.

2.4. Rezultati in interpretacija

Rezultati so predstavljeni po zaporedju vprašanj na anketnem listu za vsak razred posebej.

1. Kako pogosto učenci dobijo domačo nalogo pri pouku geografije?

Učenci 8. a razreda so imeli v mesecih aprilu in maju 2013 skupno 20 ur geografije (trikrat tedensko). Poleg tega je bila v mesecu aprilu izvedena šola v naravi. V Preglednico 3 smo jo zabeležili po dnevih, ko bi učenci sicer imeli geografijo. V maju je bila izvedena ekskurzija. Skupno bi tako učenci lahko imeli največ 24 domačih nalog pri predmetu geografija.

Anketirani učenci 8.a razreda so odgovorili, da so imeli domačo nalogo pri pouku geografije 18-krat. Enkrat je 8 učencev odgovorilo, da so imeli domačo nalogo in 8 učencev, da niso imeli domače naloge. Vsi anketirani učenci so odgovorili, da v šoli v naravi, na ekskurziji in na dan pisnega preizkusa niso imeli geografskih domačih nalog. Učiteljica je odgovore učencev potrdila v primeru šole v naravi in pisnega preizkusa.

Razlika se je pojavila pri ekskurziji, kjer so učenci imeli geografsko domačo nalogo. Pri temi Avstralija in Oceanija – podnebje in rastlinstvo, kjer je bilo enako število učencev, ki so odgovorili, da je bila domača naloga in enako število tistih, ki so odgovorili, da je ni bilo, je učiteljica odgovorila, da ni bilo domače naloge. Domačo nalogo pri geografiji so učenci imeli 19-krat.

Preglednica 3: Učenci 8. a razreda in pogostost domačih nalog pri pouku geografije v mesecu aprilu in maju.

Datum (april 2013) – ure geografije	Tema učne ure	Učenci - domača naloga da/ ne	Učiteljica- domača naloga da/ne
Tor	Podnebje in rastlinstvo Severne Amerike	da = 12 ne = 4	da
Čet	Ponavljjanje	da = 13 ne = 3	da
Pet	Pisni preizkus	da = 0 ne = 16	ne
Tor	Poprava pisnega preizkusa	da = 15 ne = 1	da
Čet	Tornadi in hurikani	da = 14 ne = 2	da
Pet	Prebivalstvo	da = 13 ne = 3	da
Tor	Gospodarstvo	da = 11 ne = 5	da
Čet	ZDA	da = 12 ne = 4	da
Pet	Kanada	da = 10 ne = 6	da
Tor	Šola v naravi	da = 0 ne = 16	ne
Čet	Šola v naravi	da = 0 ne = 16	ne
Pet	Šola v naravi	da = 0 ne = 16	ne
Tor	Ekskurzija	da = 0 ne = 16	da
Čet	Lega in delitev Južne Amerike	da = 9 ne = 7	da
Pet	Površje Južne Amerike	da = 13 ne = 3	da
Tor	Podnebje in rastlinstvo Južne Amerike	da = 11 ne = 5	da
Čet	Krčenje tropskega deževnega gozda	da = 14 ne = 2	da
Pet	Prebivalstvo Južne Amerike	da = 9 ne = 7	da
Tor	Gospodarstvo Južne Amerike	da = 10 ne = 6	da
Čet	Ponavljjanje in utrjevanje	da = 12 ne = 4	da
Pet	Avstralija in Oceanija - lega	da = 13 ne = 3	da
Tor	A in O - površje	da = 10 ne = 6	da
Čet	A in O - podnebje in rastlinstvo	da = 8 ne = 8	ne
Pet	Preverjanje znanja Amerika	da = 10 ne = 6	da

Vir: Dobnik, Zbirni listi za učence in učiteljico o domačih nalogah pri pouku geografije na Osnovni šoli Petrovče, 2013.

Učenci 8. c razreda so imeli v mesecih aprilu in maju 2013 skupno 20 ur geografije (trikrat tedensko). Poleg tega je bila tako kot v 8. a razredu v mesecu aprilu izvedena šola v naravi. V Preglednico 4 smo jo zabeležili po dnevih, ko bi učenci sicer imeli geografijo. V maju je bila izvedena ekskurzija. Skupno bi tako učenci lahko imeli največ 24 domačih nalog pri predmetu geografija.

Preglednica 4: Učenci 8. c razreda in pogostost domačih nalog pri pouku geografije v mesecu aprilu in maju.

Datum (april 2013) – ure geografije	Tema učne ure	Učenci - domača naloga da/ne	Učiteljica- domača naloga da/ne
sre	Ponavljjanje	da = 13 ne = 2	da
pet	Pisni preizkus	da = 0 ne = 15	ne
pon	Analiza pisnega preizkusa	da = 13 ne = 2	da
sre	Prebivalstvo	da = 10 ne = 5	da
pet	Gospodarstvo	da = 12 ne = 3	da
pon	ZDA	da = 13 ne = 2	da
sre	Kanada	da = 13 ne = 2	da
pet	Srednja Amerika	da = 12 ne = 3	da
pon	Šola v naravi	da = 0 ne = 15	ne
sre	Šola v naravi	da = 0 ne = 15	ne
pet	Šola v naravi	da = 0 ne = 15	ne
pon	Lega in delitev Južne Amerike	da = 10 ne = 5	da
tor	Ekскурzija	da = 1 ne = 14	da
sre	Površje Južne Amerike	da = 9 ne = 6	da
pet	Podnebje in rastlinstvo Južne Amerike	da = 6 ne = 9	ne
pon	Krčenje tropskega deževnega gozda	da = 11 ne = 4	da
sre	Prebivalstvo Južne Amerike	da = 10 ne = 5	da
pet	Gospodarstvo Južne Amerike	da = 9 ne = 6	da
pon	Ponavljjanje in utrjevanje	da = 12 ne = 3	da
Sre	Avstralija in Oceanija - lega	da = 9 ne = 6	da
pet	A in O - površje	da = 10 ne = 5	da
pon	A in O - podnebje in rastlinstvo	da = 9 ne = 6	da
sre	A in O - prebivalstvo	da = 13 ne = 2	da
pet	Preverjanje znanja Amerika	da = 12 ne = 3	da

Vir: Dobnik, Zbirni listi za učence in učiteljico o domačih nalogah pri pouku geografije na Osnovni šoli Petrovče, 2013.

Anketirani učenci 8. c razreda so odgovorili, da so imeli domačo nalogo pri pouku geografije 18 x. V šoli v naravi niso imeli geografske domače naloge, prav tako ne na ekskurziji in na dan pisnega preizkusa znanja ter pri obravnavi Podnebja in rastlinstva Južne Amerike. En učenec je odgovoril, da je na ekskurziji imel domačo nalogo in to je bil po potrditvi učiteljice pravilen odgovor. Učiteljica je potrdila ostale odgovore učencev. Izkazalo se je, da so učenci imeli 19 x domačo nalogo pri pouku geografije.

2. Kakšna je domača naloga, ki jo dobijo učenci pri pouku geografije?

Na osnovi odgovorov anketirane učiteljice smo ugotovili, da so imeli učenci najpogosteje za domačo nalogo pri pouku geografije reševanje nalog iz delovnega zvezka in reševanje delovnih listov. Štirikrat so imeli za domačo nalogo izpolnjevanje nemih kart, dvakrat izpis podatkov iz učbenika, enkrat dokončanje poprave in enkrat izdelavo miselnega vzorca. Anketirani učenci so učiteljčine odgovore v večini potrdili. Do razhajanja je prišlo pri temi Prebivalstvo, kjer je sedem učencev odgovorilo, da so dobili za domačo nalogo reševanje vaj iz delovnega zvezka, dva sta odgovorila, da je bilo za domačo nalogo reševanje delovnih listov, štirje pa se niso spomnili, kaj je bilo za domačo nalogo. Učiteljica je odgovorila, da so imeli pri temi Prebivalstvo za domačo nalogo reševanje nalog iz delovnega zvezka in reševanje delovnega lista. Pri temi ZDA je večina (7) učencev

odgovorila, da so imeli za domačo nalogo izpis podatkov iz učbenika. To po mnenju učiteljice ni bilo res, saj so imeli za domačo nalogo izpolnjevanje neme karte.

Preglednica 5: Število učencev 8. a razreda (f) in opis domačih nalog.

Tema učne ure	Učenci (f) - opis domače naloge (najpogostejši odgovori)							Učiteljica - opis domače naloge
	DZ	DL	NK	P	U	MV	N	
Podnebje in rastlinstvo Severne Amerike	9	2	0	0	0	0	1	DZ
Ponavljjanje	2	5	0	0	2	0	4	DL
Poprava pisnega preizkusa	1	0	0	13	0	0	1	P
Tornadi in hurikani	2	0	0	0	12	0	0	U
Prebivalstvo	7	2	0	0	0	0	4	DZ, DL
Gospodarstvo	3	1	0	0	7	0	0	U
ZDA	3	1	0	0	7	0	1	NK
Kanada	4	0	0	0	3	0	3	DZ
Ekskurzija	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	DL
Lega in delitev Južne Amerike	4	0	4	0	0	0	1	NK
Površje Južne Amerike	5	0	4	0	2	0	2	DZ
Podnebje in rastlinstvo Južne Amerike	10	0	0	0	0	0	1	DZ
Krčenje tropskega deževnega gozda	6	0	0	0	7	0	0	MV
Prebivalstvo Južne Amerike	2	7	0	0	0	0	0	DL
Gospodarstvo Južne Amerike	8	0	0	0	2	0	0	DZ
Ponavljjanje in utrjevanje	0	11	0	0	1	0	0	DL
Avstralija in Oceanija - lega	3	0	8	0	0	1	1	NK
A in O - površje	4	0	5	0	0	0	1	NK
Preverjanje znanja Amerika	0	10	0	0	0	0	0	DL

Vir: Dobnik, Zbirni listi za učence in učiteljico o domačih nalogah pri pouku geografije na Osnovni šoli Petrovče, 2013.

*Opomba: v tabeli pri opisu domačih nalog niso navedeni tisti učenci, ki so odgovorili, da domače naloge pri pouku geografije niso imeli. Razlaga kratic vseh preglednicah v nadaljevanju enaka enko kot v Preglednici 5: Število učencev 8. a razreda (f) in opis domačih nalog.

Razlaga kratic:

DZ – reševanje nalog v delovnem zvezku

DL – reševanje delovnega lista

NK – izpolnjevanje nemih kart

N – učenec se ne spomni, kaj je bilo za domačo nalogo

MV – delanje miselnega vzorca

U – izpis podatkov iz učbenika

P – dokončanje poprave

Pri ekskurziji noben učenec ni zapisal, da so imeli geografsko domačo nalogo, učiteljica je zapisala, da so imeli za nalogo reševanje delovnega lista. Pri temi Lega in delitev Južne Amerike so štirje učenci odgovorili, da so imeli za nalogo reševanje delovnega zvezka, prav tako štirje so odgovorili, da so imeli za nalogo izpolnjevanje neme karte, takšno je bilo tudi mnenje učiteljice. Za temo Krčenje tropskega deževnega gozda je šest učencev odgovorilo, da so imeli za nalogo reševanje delovnega zvezka, sedem učencev pa, da so morali izpisati podatke iz učbenika. Učiteljica je odgovorila, da so morali učenci narediti miselni vzorec. Sklepamo lahko, da so učenci z izpisom iz učbenika imeli v mislih izpis v obliki miselnega vzorca.

Iz odgovorov anketirane učiteljice smo ugotovili, da so imeli učenci pri pouku geografije šestkrat za domačo nalogo izpolnjevanje nemih kart, petkrat so imeli reševanje nalog iz delovnega zvezka, štirikrat reševanje delovnih listov ter po enkrat dokončanje poprave, izdelavo miselnega vzorca in odgovarjanje na vprašanja v učbeniku. Učenci so v večini potrdili učiteljčine odgovore. Le pri temi Kanada jih je šest odgovorilo, da so imeli za nalogo reševanje delovnega zvezka. Prav tako jih je

šest odgovorilo, da so imeli za nalogo izpolnjevanje neme karte, eden je odgovoril, da so imeli za nalogo izpis podatkov iz učbenika. Učiteljica je odgovorila, da so imeli za nalogo izpolnjevanje neme karte. Pri ekskurziji je le en učenec odgovoril, da so imeli geografsko domačo nalogo, in sicer reševanje delovnega lista, kar je navedla tudi učiteljica.

Preglednica 6: Število učencev 8. c razreda (f) in opis domačih nalog.

Tema učne ure	Učenci - opis domače naloge (najpogostejši odgovori)								Učiteljica - opis domače naloge
	DZ	DL	NK	P	U	MV	N	VP	
Ponavljjanje	2	9	0	0	1	0	1	0	DL
Analiza pisnega preizkusa	1	0	0	10	0	0	2	0	P
Prebivalstvo	7	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	DZ
Gospodarstvo	8	2	0	0	0	0	2	0	DZ
ZDA	4	0	7	0	2	0	0	0	NK
Kanada	6	0	6	0	1	0	0	0	NK
Srednja Amerika	3	3	0	0	0	0	1	5	VP
Lega in delitev Južne Amerike	3	1	6	0	0	0	0	0	NK
Ekskurzija	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	DL
Površje Južne Amerike	3	0	6	0	0	0	0	0	NK
Krčenje tropskega deževnega gozda	4	1	0	0	0	5	1	0	MV
Prebivalstvo Južne Amerike	2	6	0	0	2	0	0	0	DL
Gospodarstvo Južne Amerike	8	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	DZ
Ponavljjanje in utrjevanje	0	10	0	0	0	0	2	0	DL
Avstralija in Oceanija - lega	3	0	5	0	0	0	1	0	NK
A in O - podnebje in rastlinstvo	8	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	DZ
A in O - prebivalstvo	13	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	DZ
Preverjanje znanja Amerika	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	DL

Vir: Dobnik, Zbirni listi za učence in učiteljico o domačih nalogah pri pouku geografije na Osnovni šoli Petrovče, 2013.

*Opomba: v tabeli pri opisu domačih nalog niso navedeni tisti učenci, ki so odgovorili, da domače naloge pri pouku geografije niso imeli.

3. Katera učna gradiva učenci uporabljajo pri reševanju domačih nalog pri pouku geografije?

Vsi anketirani učenci so navedli, da so domače naloge pri pouku geografije reševali s pomočjo naslednjih učnih gradiv: učbenik, zvezek, delovni zvezek, atlas, ročni zemljevid; svetovni splet (učna gradiva so zapisana po pogostosti uporabe, od najpogostejše uporabljenega do najmanjkrat uporabljenega gradiva).

Anketirana učiteljica je zapisala, da je domače naloge pri pouku geografije sestavljala s pomočjo naslednjih učnih gradiv: učbenika, delovnega zvezka in atlasa. Pri posamezni domači nalogi si je pomagala s kombinacijo več učnih gradiv hkrati. Ugotovimo lahko, da je učiteljica geografije predvidela samo tri učna gradiva, kar je enkrat manj, kot so jih zaznali (oz. jih uporabili) učenci.

4. Kakšne so učne metode, ki jih uporablja učitelj pri domačih nalogah pri pouku geografije?

Učiteljica, ki smo jo anketirali, je v večini primerov odgovorila, da je bila pri geografskih domačih nalogah uporabljena metoda dela s pisnimi viri. Pod njo je uvrstila delo z učbenikom, delovnim zvezkom in učnimi listi. 8. a razred je imel 15 domačih nalog z metodo dela s pisnimi viri in 3 domače naloge z grafično metodo (risanja). 8. c razred je imel 12 domačih nalog z uporabljenno metodo dela s pisnimi viri in 6 nalog z grafično metodo (risanja).

Preglednica 7: Mnenje učiteljice o učnih metodah domačih nalog pri pouku geografije v 8. a in 8. c razredu.

8. a			8. c		
Tema učne ure	Opis naloge	Učna metoda	Tema učne ure	Opis naloge	Učna metoda
Podnebje, rastlinstvo S. Amerike	DZ	metoda dela s pisnimi viri	Ponavljjanje	DL	metoda dela s pisnimi viri
Ponavljjanje	DL	metoda dela s pisnimi viri	Analiza pisnega preizkusa	P	metoda dela s pisnimi viri
Analiza pisnega preizkusa	P	metoda dela s pisnimi viri	Prebivalstvo	DZ	metoda dela s pisnimi viri
Tornadi in hurikani	U	metoda dela s pisnimi viri	Gospodarstvo	DZ	metoda dela s pisnimi viri
Prebivalstvo	DZ, DL	metoda dela s pisnimi viri	ZDA	NK	grafična metoda (risanja)
Gospodarstvo	U	metoda dela s pisnimi viri	Kanada	NK	grafična metoda (risanja)
ZDA	NK	grafična metoda (risanja)	Srednja Amerika	VP	grafična metoda (risanja)
Kanada	DZ	metoda dela s pisnimi viri	Lega in delitev Južne Amerike	NK	grafična metoda (risanja)
Ekskurzija	DL	metoda dela s pisnimi viri	Ekskurzija	DL	metoda dela s pisnimi viri
Lega in delitev Južne Amerike	NK	metoda dela s pisnimi viri	Površje Južne Amerike	NK	grafična metoda (risanja)
Površje JA	DZ	metoda dela s pisnimi viri	Krčenje TDG	MV	metoda dela s pisnimi viri
Podnebje in rastlinstvo JA	DZ	metoda dela s pisnimi viri	Prebivalstvo JA	DL	metoda dela s pisnimi viri
Krčenje TDG	MV	metoda dela s pisnimi viri	Gospodarstvo JA	DZ	metoda dela s pisnimi viri
Prebivalstvo JA	DL	metoda dela s pisnimi viri	Ponavljjanje, utrjevanje	DL	metoda dela s pisnimi viri
Gospodarstvo Južne Amerike	DZ	metoda dela s pisnimi viri	Avstralija in Oceanija - lega	NK	metoda dela s pisnimi viri
Ponavljjanje in utrjevanje	DL	metoda dela s pisnimi viri	A in O - površje	NK	grafična metoda (risanja)
Avstralija in Oceanija - lega	NK	grafična metoda (risanja)	A in O - podnebje in rastlinstvo	DZ	metoda dela s pisnimi viri
A in O - površje	NK	grafična metoda (risanja)	A in O - prebivalstvo	DZ	metoda dela s pisnimi viri
Preverjanje znanja Amerika	DL	metoda dela s pisnimi viri	Preverjanje znanja Amerika	DL	metoda dela s pisnimi viri

Vir: Dobnik, Zbirni listi za učiteljico o domačih nalogah pri pouku geografije na Osnovni šoli Petrovče, 2013.

5. Kakšen je po mnenju učitelja namen domačih nalog pri pouku geografije?

Preglednica 8: Mnenje učiteljice o namenu domačih nalog pri pouku geografije v 8. a in 8. c razredu.

8. a			8. c		
Tema učne ure	Opis naloge	Namen naloge	Tema učne ure	Opis naloge	Namen naloge
Podnebje, rastlinstvo S. Amerike	DZ	ponovitev snovi	Ponavljjanje	DL	ponovitev snovi
Ponavljjanje	DL	ponovitev snovi	Analiza pisnega preizkusa	P	ponovitev snovi
Analiza pisnega preizkusa	P	ponovitev snovi	Prebivalstvo	DZ	ponovitev snovi
Tornadi in hurikani	U	oblikovanje povzetkov	Gospodarstvo	DZ	ponovitev snovi
Prebivalstvo	DZ, DL	ponovitev snovi	ZDA	NK	ponovitev snovi
Gospodarstvo	U	oblikovanje povzetkov	Kanada	NK	ponovitev snovi
ZDA	NK	orientacija na zemljevidu	Srednja Amerika	VP	orientacija na zemljevidu
Kanada	DZ	ponovitev snovi	Lega in delitev Južne Amerike	NK	orientacija na zemljevidu
Ekskurzija	DL	ponovitev snovi	Ekskurzija	DL	ponovitev snovi
Lega in delitev Južne Amerike	NK	ponovitev snovi	Površje Južne Amerike	NK	orientacija na zemljevidu
Površje JA	DZ	ponovitev snovi	Krčenje TDG	MV	ponovitev snovi
Podnebje in rastlinstvo JA	DZ	ponovitev snovi	Prebivalstvo JA	DL	ponovitev snovi
Krčenje TDG	MV	ponovitev snovi	Gospodarstvo JA	DZ	ponovitev snovi
Prebivalstvo JA	DL	ponovitev snovi	Ponavljjanje, utrjevanje	DL	ponovitev snovi
Gospodarstvo Južne Amerike	DZ	ponovitev snovi	Avstralija in Oceanija - lega	NK	ponovitev snovi
Ponavljjanje in utrjevanje	DL	ponovitev snovi	A in O - površje	NK	ponovitev snovi
Avstralija in Oceanija - lega	NK	orientacija na zemljevidu	A in O - podnebje in rastlinstvo	DZ	ponovitev snovi
A in O - površje	NK	ponovitev snovi	A in O - prebivalstvo	DZ	ponovitev snovi
Preverjanje znanja Amerika	DL	ponovitev snovi	Preverjanje znanja Amerika	DL	ponovitev snovi

Vir: Dobnik, Zbirni listi za učiteljico o domačih nalogah pri pouku geografije na Osnovni šoli Petrovče, 2013.

Anketirana učiteljica je v večini primerov, ne glede na temo učne ure in dejansko domačo nalogo, odgovorila, da je bil namen domačih nalog pri pouku geografije ponovitev snovi. V 8. a razredu so učenci štirinajstkrat imeli domačo nalogo z namenom ponovitve snovi, dvakrat nalogo z namenom oblikovanja povzetkov in dvakrat nalogo z namenom orientacije na zemljevidu. Učenci 8. c razreda so imeli petnajstkrat domačo nalogo z namenom ponovitve snovi in trikrat nalog z namenom orientacije na zemljevidu. Vendar pa se tudi tu potrdi že ugotovljeno, da je potrebno navodilo za domače delo podati ne samo v ustni ampak tudi v pisni obliki in tako preprečiti raznolikost razumevanja le-tega pri učencih in seveda tudi odstopanja od učiteljevih pričakovanj.

3. Zaključek

V slovenskem učnem načrtu za geografijo v osnovnih šolah (ZRSŠ 2008) domače delo učencev ni neposredno navedeno v didaktičnih priporočilih za izvedbo pouka, kot tudi ne v zapisu učnih ciljev. Učiteljevi strokovni avtonomiji je torej prepuščeno, da z vidika namena in ciljev pouka geografije kot poznavanja pogojev dela in seveda najpomembneje, raznolikih zmožnosti in potreb njegovih učencev, učno delo organizira tako, da bodo le-ti ob zaključku izobraževanja tudi doseženi. Sama opredelitev namena domačih nalog se v zadnjih štiridesetih letih v slovenskem šolskem prostoru ni bistveno spremenila, kot tudi ne osnovni vzgojno – izobraževalni namen. Se pa novejša opredelitev pomena in namena domačega dela, ob že uveljavljenih, z zadnjo prenovo učnega načrta za geografijo v letu 2008, širijo tudi na področje prenosa znanj in veščin tako med šolskimi predmeti, kot povezovanje formalnega in neformalnega učenja.

Raziskava o domačih nalogah pri pouku geografije na Osnovni šoli Petrovče je pokazala, da anketirani učenci 8. a in 8. c razreda pogosto dobijo domače naloge, saj so le-te imeli 19-krat pri 24 urah opazovanega pouka. Glede na namen domačih nalog so izrazito prevladovala vaje ponavljanja in utrjevanja vsebinskega znanja. Manjkajo področja grajenja sistematizacije znanja in prenosa znanja. Pri tem velja opozoriti na določena odstopanja v razumevanju namena domačih nalog med učenci in učiteljico. Slednja je bila mnenja, da je bil namen nalog bistveno bolj raznolik (tudi priprava na nove učne naloge in razširitev znanja) kot so to sprejemali njeni učenci. Ob številčni prevladi tovrstnih domačih nalog je namen vaje lahko tudi vprašljiv zlasti, če je to prevladujoč način domačega dela in postane tako lahko za učence ne motivirajoč. Sposobnejši učenci vajo hitro usvojijo in v nadaljevanju naloge rešujejo rutinsko, predvsem zato, da nalogo opravijo. Pri slabših učencih se zgodi, da naloge ne razumejo in zato ali predčasno obupajo ali pa nalogo prepišejo od drugega. To še ne pomeni, da te vrste domačih nalog niso pomembne, zelo so dragocene, če so pravilno izbrane glede na sposobnosti posameznega učenca in njegov napredek in, če učenec dobi ustrezno povratno informacijo. Žal večje stopnje individualiziranosti in diferenciranosti v zadanih nalogah v opazovanem primeru ni bilo, čeprav bi po našem mnenju prav v okviru šole v naravi in interdisciplinarne ekskurzije bile za to velike možnosti. Sicer pa so se prav pri teh dveh oblikah izvedbe učnega dela najbolj razlikovali odgovori anketiranih učencev in učiteljice ali je bilo domače delo predvideno ali ne. Sklepamo lahko, da je bila komunikacija med učiteljico in učenci ustna in premalo jasno opredeljena, da bi učenci (z izjemo enega) zaznali kot njihovo nalogo.

Glede na tehniko izvedbe domačih nalog so v opazovanem primeru najpogosteje reševali naloge iz delovnega zvezka, delovnih listov in nemih kart. Pri reševanju so si učenci najpogosteje pomagali z učbenikom, nato z zvezkom, delovnim zvezkom, atlasom, ročnim zemljevidom, računalnikom in dostopom na svetovni splet. Ugotovimo lahko, da je učiteljica geografije sicer predvidela manj raznolikih učnih virov (tri različne vrste), kot so jih dejansko uporabljali učenci, kar je z vidika aktivnosti učencev razveseljivo, saj so poznali in imeli širše možnosti, kot je bilo predvideno (npr. uporaba računalnika in dostop do svetovnega spleta). Prav tako pa lahko ugotovimo, da gre v vseh primerih samo za pisne vire oz. kartografske vire, niti enkrat ni bilo predvideno domače delo, pri katerem bi učenci uporabili izkustvene metode učnega dela in učne pripomočke, ki presegajo pisne oziroma kartografske vire. Vse domače naloge anketiranih učencev so bile določene glede na vsebino in način reševanja in enotne za vse učence. Da bi kvalitetneje lahko zajeli

raznolike možnosti samostojnega domačega dela in predvsem spodbujali individualizirano učenje učenja, bi v opazovanem primeru bila potrebna večja usmerjenost v bolj raznolike učne oblike (individualne, parne, skupinske), vpeljevanje možnosti učenčeve izbire (ko vsebino in način reševanja izbere učenec sam) ter tako večje upoštevanje učenčeve individualnosti (diferenciacija po obsegu in količini, težavnostni stopnji in postopku dela).

Ugotovitev predstavljene raziskave o pomenu domačih nalog pri pouku geografije na primeru Osnovne šole Petrovče ne moremo posplošiti na celotno področje pouka geografije v Sloveniji, nam pa lahko pomagajo pri oblikovanju nadaljnjih strategij načrtovanja strokovnega spopolnjevanja učiteljev kot tudi izpopolnjevanja didaktičnih navodil za izvedbo učnega načrta za pouk geografije, ki bo temu področju učnega dela v prihodnje moral nameniti več pozornosti. Domače naloge ostajajo izziv kvalitetnejšemu delu na področju načrtnega učenja učenja.

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GEOGRAPHY HOMEWORKS – DIDACTIC CHALLENGES OR JUST LEARNING OBLIGATIONS?

Summary

In Slovene curriculum for geography in primary schools (ZRSŠ, in 2008), pupils homework isn't listed directly in didactic references for its realisation. We also don't find homework recorded among educational goals. Thus is left to the teacher's professional autonomy, that they act like they think it is best from point of view of learning intention and learning goals of their class, pupils. They should organise teaching in way that their pupils will achieve educational goals. Alone the definition of intention of pupils homework didn't change elementary in the Slovene school practice within last fourteen years. The same applies to the upbringing and educational intention.

Newer definition of meaning and intention of pupils homework are being spread with the last renovation of curriculum for geography in 2008. They are spreading on the areas of transfers of knowledge's and skills as well as among school objects, as connecting of formal and unofficial learning.

Research on homework at class of geography on The Primary school Petrovče indicated, that interviewed pupils of 8th A class and 8th C class often get homework. They got homework nineteen times at 24 hours of observed lectures (2 months). Based on the intent of the homework the prevailing homework was repeating and retrenchment of content.

Systematization of knowledge and transfer of knowledge and skills are missing. We must stress certain discrepancies within understanding of intention of homework between interviewed pupils and a teacher. The teacher thought, that intention of homework had been more diverse (also preparing on new learning tasks and extension of knowledge) as this was realised by pupils.

The sense of homework can be also questionable next to numerical dominance of homework with repeating and retrenchment of knowledge. This is valid especially when this is the dominant manner of homework and it can become for pupils dis-motivating. More capable pupils assimilate tasks quickly and they are delivering tasks routinely, therefore they are doing the homework because they have to. By weaker students it happens that they often resign or copy exercise from others as a result of not understanding the homework or specific exercise. This doesn't mean yet, that these kinds of homework aren't important. They are valuable, however only, if they are planned and chosen considering the abilities of an individual pupil and his progress and if the pupil gets suitable feedback. Unfortunately larger rate of individualization and differentiation in homework wasn't observed in these classes. In our opinion diverse possibilities would be within the frame of outdoor learning and an interdisciplinary excursions. Answers of interviewed pupils and the teacher differentiated the most right at these two shapes of the realisation of learning: was homework planned or not.

Based on the learning tools used in the observed cases the most often used tools of homework were workbooks, worksheets and blank charts (maps). By solving them the pupils most often used the textbook than the notebook, workbook, atlas, manual map, computer and access to the World Wide Web as the solution. The geography teacher foresaw fewer diverse didactic sources (three different

kinds), as pupils were using them actually. Nevertheless it is welcome, that pupils know and have wider possibilities, as it was foreseen (e. g. use of a computer and access to a world web). We can find out as well, that they had used only written sources and cartographic sources in all cases. In homework it wasn't foreseen not even once that pupils would use empirical didactic procedures (as learning by doing).

All homework of interviewed pupils were chosen according to content and way of solving and the same for all pupils. The geography teacher should scoop diverse possibilities of independent homework and above all she should encourage learning of learning in observed classes. Students should work in more diverse didactic forms (of individual, tandem, group), they should be introduced to more possibilities of choice of different tasks and method of solving exercises, also didactic differentiation after extent and rate should be included, as well as larger spread of difficulty level and learning methods.

Findings of introduced research about meaning of homework at geography classes on case of Primary school Petrovče, can't be generalised on to all Slovenian school geography classes. But it can help us with formation of future strategies of planning of teachers improving seminars and to rethink about didactic instructions for today's geography curriculum. We will devote more thought to this field of didactic part in the future. We think that homework is still a challenge to more quality planned learning.

TEACHER EDUCATOR'S PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

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Abstract

Teacher Educator's Professional Development

This study examines the stages of teacher educators' professional development. In a framework based on the literature on teacher professional development, we focus especially on the stages/levels of teacher educators' professional development. The Results of an empirical study conducted at the University of Maribor in February 2012 indicate that there are no differences between the stages of professional development of teacher educators and non-teacher educators.

Key words

Non-teacher and teacher educators, stages of professional development

1. Introduction

As many researchers (Snoek et al. 2009, 2011; Barber Mourshed 2007, Hattie 2009) point out, the teacher is among the most important factors that affect the quality of a student's education. As Snoek and his co-authors (2011, 651) note, it is "/.../ therefore appropriate to assume that teacher educators have an important influence on the quality of the learning of student-teachers." Although the amount of international literature has grown in the last five years – as noted by Murray and Harrison (2009, 109) – teacher educators do not receive enough attention in the framework of empirical research; furthermore, policy documents about teacher education rarely include a strong focus on teacher educators' professional development.

In the present article we focus on teacher educators as a professional group. The category "teacher educators" is defined and labelled very differently in different countries (ETUCE 2008). The term encompasses different groups, e.g. academic staff in higher education who are teachers of education, academic staff in higher education who are teachers of school subjects, education researchers, supervisors of practice in school etc. (Report of Peer Learning Activity 2010). Teacher educators are a very heterogeneous group: they work in a variety of environments, come from different educational backgrounds, have different levels of qualification and possess different types of competence to different degrees (Report of Peer Learning Activity 2010). We should point out that only university- based teacher educators were included in the present research.

We first introduce some models of teachers' professional development within a theoretical framework based on the literature about professionalism. In the second section, we present the results of a study about Slovenian teacher educators' professional development and make recommendations for further research.

2. Theoretical framework

In the course of his professional development, every teacher goes through certain stages, and each of these stages has its own characteristics, role and consequences. There have been many attempts to shed light on these stages from diverse conceptual starting points. Zuzovsky (1990) distinguishes between two different views of professional development. In the first, the teacher's professional development is perceived in the form of steps in a hierarchical structure, granting him progressively more authority. The second view emphasises the teacher's inner development, which leads to autonomous thinking and actions (in this case, professional development represents only one aspect of the teacher's comprehensive personal development); the teacher develops from the level of conformity, through the level of conscientiousness, to the level of autonomy. Feiman-Nemser and Floden (1986) list three approaches to teacher professional development, as follows:

- the model of change, linked to teachers' dilemmas, concerns and aspects of thinking (e.g. F. Fuller's model);
- cognitive and developmental theories (e.g. Berliner 1992, 1994);
- teachers' professional growth through additional training, which is based on the teachers' assessment of their needs and the problems they face, and is developed on the basis of action research.

F. Fuller (as cited in Veenman 1984, Kagan 1992 and Eraut 1997) developed a three- stage model of teacher professional development, which was based on the teachers' dilemmas and concerns at particular stages. Huberman (1993, 1995) expanded the model and diversified it on many different levels. In the context of teacher professional development, Dreyfus (as cited in Elliott 1991) emphasised the significance of possessing the skill of understanding through interpretation. This skill changes during the course of an individual's professional progress, and significantly affects the perception and overall assessment of a situation, as well as the decision on which course of action to take. Chickering (1991) linked a teacher's development to his personal growth, whereas Sheckey and Allen (1991) – similarly to Kolb (1984, 1991) – linked it to the process of empirical learning.

In the next section, we shall present the Fuller model in more detail, since it represents one of the first empirical attempts to define teacher development. Furthermore, the author linked teacher development to changes in thinking about professional dilemmas and concerns (Veenman 1984, Feiman, Floden 1986). Teacher development progresses through three stages (as cited in Veenman 1984, 161), as follows:

1. Survival

S. Veenman (ibid.) speaks of "reality shock". At this stage, the teacher is faced with managing a class for the first time, and, above all, focuses on the issue of professional survival – he is concerned with his own role and position, as well as with questions about his qualifications, adequacy and suitability (Eraut 1997: 72):

- How can I survive in class?
- Am I suited to be a teacher?
- Am I sufficiently qualified?

2. Mastery/expertise

At this stage, the teacher focuses on the teaching process, becomes self-assured, clings to routine and uses traditional methods. He is apprehensive about trying new approaches, and ascribes this state-of-mind to external factors. He asks himself the following questions (as cited in Eraut 1997):

- How can I establish a relationship with the students?
- How do the students perceive me?
- Am I accepted by the students?
- Did I explain the teaching contents well enough?
- Did I have control over the class?

3. Professionalism/renewed receptiveness to change

In this stage, the teacher focuses especially on the impact of his actions on students. The teacher is mature, and because he wants to get rid of routine, he is receptive to innovation. He trusts in his ability to assess the situation. He is concerned with the following questions (as cited in Eraut 1997):

- What kind of role do I play in the students' learning process?
- How do the students learn?
- Are the students acquiring the knowledge they really need?
- What and how much can I contribute to transforming the students?

In their later research, F. Fuller and Brown (as cited in Kagan 1992) stressed that the boundaries between the stages in the model are not clearly defined and that the

stages are not isolated. They perceive professional development as constant, continuous self-confrontation (ibid. 160).

In this section, we first briefly present some stages/models of teacher professional development, and afterwards focus on the Fuller model, because the empirical research that presented later in the paper – is based on this model.

3. Empirical research

Our study titled Teacher Educator's Professional Development examines university teachers' professional development. We were interested in how the professional development of teacher educators differs from that of university teachers who do not educate teachers (referred to as "non-teacher educators"). Our main hypothesis is that professional development of teacher educators will differ from that of university teachers who do not educate teachers.

4. Methods

The research was based on descriptive and causal non-experimental methods of empirical pedagogical research (Sagadin 1993).

4.1 Sample

The main participants in the study were university teachers at the University of Maribor. At the level of inferential statistics, a simple random sample was used. 115 university teachers from the faculties of Natural Sciences and engineering (37 teachers: 32.2%) and from faculties of social sciences and humanities (78 teachers: 67.8 %) were included in the sample. Fifty teachers (43.5%) were male and 65 teachers (56.5%) were female. Fifty university teachers (43.5%) were teacher educators, whereas 65 teachers (56.5%) did not meet the criteria of the teacher educator definition, and were thus treated as non-teacher educators.

4.2 Instrument and procedure

Data was gathered via an anonymous questionnaire in February 2012. Requests for participation were sent to 350 randomly selected university teachers at the University of Maribor.

In an introductory section, the university teachers were acquainted with the aims of the survey and were asked to participate by filling in the questionnaire. 350 questionnaires were distributed, of which we received back 115 (32.9 %) questionnaires.

The questionnaire for the university teachers dealt with the concerns and issues that they are most frequently face the course of their work. In the introductory section, the purpose of the survey was presented. There were instructions for completion and general questions about the participant (gender, faculty, work experience). In the second section, there followed the list of issues based on the F. Fuller model of professional development which was presented in the theoretical framework. The respondents chose what they considered to be the most present in their work.

The data were processed with the statistical programme package SPSS, version 20, using the χ^2 test for checking the differences between teacher educators and non-teacher educators.

5. Results and discussion

We used the χ^2 test in order to determine the differences between the two groups of university-level teachers: those who educate teachers and those who do not. The results did not show any statistically significant differences between the two groups. For the present sample, we can only say that the majority of university teachers (55.7%) fall into the second stage of professional development, in which they focus on students and ask themselves how they are perceived by students. However, if we examine the differences between the two groups in closer detail, we see that more teacher educators (44%) than non-teacher educators (38.5%) are in the third stage of professional development. We could thus presume that teacher educators are slightly more receptive to change. This information is encouraging, since research shows that receptiveness to change and tolerance of conflict and uncertainty are significantly linked, as was established by Bolhuis and Voeten (2004) with reference to process-oriented instruction. One characteristic of "process-oriented teaching" (Vermunt & Verschaffel, 2000) or "student-oriented teaching" is the stimulation of students' mental activity.

Tab. 1: Results of the Kruskal-Wallis test of differences in teacher educators' and non-teacher educators' stage of professional development.

			University teachers		Combined
			Teacher educators	Non-teacher educators	
Stages/levels of professional development	Survival	f	3	1	4
		f (%)	6.0%	1.5%	35%
	Mastery/experience	f	25	39	64
		f (%)	50.0%	60.0%	55.7%
	Professionalism/ renewed receptiveness to change	f	22	25	47
		f (%)	44.0%	38.5%	40.9%
	Combined	f	50	65	115
		f (%)	100.0%	100.0 %	100.0 %

χ^2 – test: $\chi^2 = 0.011$; g = 1; P = 0.918.

As the results of research conducted by Huber and Roth (1999, 2003) show, teachers with lower thresholds of tolerance for conflict and uncertainty more often use the established methods and strategies to which they are used. Moreover, these teachers do not stimulate individual learning. Also crucial is personal growth, which means that the teacher develops into a reflective practitioner, characterized by flexibility, the ability to distinguish between emotions, respect for individuality, tolerance of conflict and uncertainty, cultivation of personal relationships and a broader perspective on society (Witherell Erickson 1978; quoted in Zuzovsky 1990, 4).

6. Conclusions

In this paper, we discussed the stages and models of teacher professional development. We focused mainly on the three-stage model of teacher professional development, which is based on the dilemmas and concerns that teachers face in a particular period, and which was developed by F. Fuller (as cited in Veenman 1984, Kagan 1992, Eraut 1997). Three stages are characteristic for this model: survival;

mastery/expertise; professionalism/renewed receptiveness to change. It is characteristic of each stage to show a variety of dilemmas, concerns and crucial issues that the teacher faces. These issues were the basis for our research, using a sample of university teachers. We tried to determine and assess the differences in the stages of professional development among university-level teachers, according to whether they do or do not educate future teachers. The results of the study indicate that there are no statistically significant differences between the two groups of educators, most of whom are in the second and third stages of professional development. A closer comparative analysis of the results nevertheless indicates that more teacher educators than non-teacher educators fall into the third stage of professional development. Professionalism – along with a renewed receptiveness to change – is characteristic of the third (and highest) stage of professional development. This shows that university-level teacher educators are more process-oriented than their non-teacher educator counterparts, and also that a positive quality level of professionalism is characteristic of the former group. There are undoubtedly diverse reasons for the differences, among which we must include the fact that teacher educators have more theoretical knowledge about teaching and learning and can more readily practise this knowledge, in comparison to university teachers of other disciplines. On the other hand, both categories of university teachers must also fulfil the role of researchers, so they might see their teaching role as merely one role among many or perhaps even less challenging than their researcher role. Nevertheless, as university teachers in general deal with students and through them with society's future, they should highly value their teaching professionalism, and there should be mechanisms that help university teachers to develop their teaching professionalism.

As was noted by Snoek et al. (2011, 662), "the quality of teacher educators is not yet an area in which there is active international policy exchange. Although there are interesting policy practices in some countries, these are not shared between countries or between professional associations of teacher educators." So far, this field has not received much attention from researchers. Thus, on the one hand, our study can form the basis for future research. On the other hand, it can help to bridge the gap between teacher educators and policy-makers, so both – as Snoek (2011, 662) also points out – "/.../ can gain better understanding of effective measures and conditions to strength the professionalism of teacher educators." We must realise that only quality education of teachers (in which teacher educators play a very important role) leads to quality professional development throughout all stages of a teacher's professional socialisation within continuously evolving schools. Only this can lead to (higher) quality education in schools.

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TEACHER EDUCATOR'S PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Summary

This paper examines the stages of teacher educators' professional development. In a framework based on the literature on teacher professional development, we focus especially on the three-stage model of teacher professional development, which is based on the dilemmas and concerns that teachers face in a particular period, and which was developed by F. Fuller (as cited in Veenman 1984, Kagan 1992, Eraut 1997). Three stages are characteristic for this model: survival; mastery/expertise; professionalism/renewed receptiveness to change. It is characteristic of each stage to show a variety of dilemmas, concerns and crucial issues that the teacher faces. These issues were the basis for our research, using a sample of university teachers. We tried to determine and assess the differences in the stages of professional development among university-level teachers, according to whether they do or do not educate future teachers.

The results of the study indicate that there are no statistically significant differences between the two groups of educators, most of whom are in the second and third stages of professional development. A closer comparative analysis of the results nevertheless indicates that more teacher educators than non-teacher educators fall into the third stage of professional development. This shows that university-level teacher educators are more process-oriented than their non-teacher educator counterparts, and also that a positive quality level of professionalism is characteristic of the former group. There are undoubtedly diverse reasons for the differences, among which we must include the fact that teacher educators have more theoretical knowledge about teaching and learning and can more readily practise this knowledge, in comparison to university teachers of other disciplines. On the other hand, both categories of university teachers must also fulfil the role of researchers, so they might see their teaching role as merely one role among many or perhaps even less challenging than their researcher role. Nevertheless, as university teachers in general deal with students and through them with society's future, they should highly value their teaching professionalism, and there should be mechanisms that help university teachers to develop their teaching professionalism.

So far, this field of research has not received much attention from researchers. Thus, on the one hand, our study can form the basis for future research. It can help to bridge the gap between teacher educators and policy-makers, so both – as Snoek (2011, 662) also points out – “/.../ can gain better understanding of effective measures and conditions to strength the professionalism of teacher educators.” We must realise that only quality education of teachers (in which teacher educators play a very important role) leads to quality professional development throughout all stages of a teacher's professional socialisation within continuously evolving schools.

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