"Education beyond the crisis: new skills, children's rights and teaching contexts"
PROCEEDINGS

THE 19TH BIENNIAL CONFERENCE OF INTERNATIONAL STUDY
ASSOCIATION ON TEACHERS AND TEACHING (ISATT)

"EDUCATION BEYOND THE CRISIS: NEW SKILLS, CHILDREN'S
RIGHTS AND TEACHING CONTEXTS"

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"EDUCATION BEYOND THE CRISIS: NEW SKILLS, CHILDREN'S RIGHTS AND TEACHING CONTEXTS"

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FOREWORD

This volume emerged from the need of debating and sharing ideas for the professional and personal development of teachers. Being a teacher means facing challenges that might be considerably different in various countries but the focus of teachers all over the world is becoming aware of current perspectives on children and childhood, while developing a critical relationship with the content of education and continuously curving their attitudes. Recent studies reveal that the impetus for change in Education is energetic and powerful. These new findings call for a new perspective on teacher training thus raising new questions on how the next generation of teachers should be trained. Children need new skills, considered vital to adapt to a world in constant change. Teachers are forced by the pressure of the rising volume of information and by the rapid changes to adapt and to question paradigm shifts. Facing this challenging professional context, teachers need a continuous and deeper collaboration and the present volume aims to prove that important directions for such collaboration might be strengthening the community of the teachers who care, changing perspectives, discussing about universal education in the context of current changes in the evolution of children, providing moments of reflection on the teacher's mission in the future, endorsing both teacher and student action through authentic feedback for a better joined path and sharing knowledge.

According to Thomas L. Friedman, winner of the Pulitzer Prize in 1983, 1988 and 2002, in his Brief History of the 21st Century, published in 2006, The Earh is getting smaller and flat...In the author's opinion, the world began to get smaller when Columbus sailed to find a connection between the New World and the existing one. It is not a paradox that finding the New World leaded to a smaller world – this brought change, power, global integration, and the first step of the globalization. The next and more spectacular step of the globalization was made during 1800-2000, when international companies expanded worldwide. Walls were falling, the economy was expanding and connecting countries, and power was not any more related to countries, but to economical entities. The most important step of the globalization was just about to come – internet brought the power to the individuals that got the chance to collaborate globally. This is the most important stage of globalization, when individuals can create and develop either individually or being part of groups sharing same values and thus increasing their creative power. This being the most favorable epoch for collaborative effort and for sharing ideas and values, individuals and professional groups should take the most of this advantage in order to bring value to their career development, as well as their personal development, empowering self-determination, creativity, success – on a different scale.

This is where we stand – teachers of a New World, facing different challenges, but having the enormous benefit of interconnection. How is this world today, what problems are brought to us to be solved, and how can we exploit the major advantage of a smaller world?

These challenges are brought up by the same evolution that made our world smaller. The increasing impact of information, the dramatic and dynamic change that shapes our evolution is also bringing a major shift in education – its needs, its new direction, the changing profile of the children interests and challenges, their need to fit into a world that is changing faster than ever. Preparing young students for jobs that have not been yet invented, preparing new teachers for new times, identifying the best skills that future demands and finding the most appropriate ways of developing such skills – this might prove being a rather difficult task.

The present volume considers challenging main topics such as Teaching and learning in contemporary society, Technology and open education, Learning opportunities inside and outside the classroom, Teacher education-experiences and challenges and Education in a multicultural world. The volume gathers valuable research within these thematic areas from all the continents, proving that teachers of Nigeria, Russia, Romania, Greece, The United States of America, Australia, India, Brazil, Hong Kong, France, Spain, Japan, Slovenia and Croatia, Iceland or Germany share the same purpose – finding the most relevant answers to the same problems, no matter the continent these are coming. The world is rapidly shifting towards a greater unity in approaching a wider range of competencies intended to cover
new development of the future ahead. Teachers should be the first to react to these dramatic changes of our world, aiming to bring this future closer and properly prepare the children to emerge into this future. Preparing for the future was never such a complex process, thus working together is not only necessary, but vital.

Daniela Roxana Andron
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SECTION 1

TEACHING AND LEARNING IN CONTEMPORARY SOCIETY
"COLLABORATE AND CREATE": IN-SERVICE TEACHER TRAINING PROGRAM BASED ON FREINET PEDAGOGY

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ABSTRACT
This paper analyses the results of a training program which was based on Freinet Pedagogy. The purpose of the program was to provide Greek primary school teachers and Information and Communication Technology (ICT) teachers with knowledge on Freinet Pedagogy and “petit livres/small books” as well as to train them to collaborative teaching action. The theoretical underpinnings of this study lie in the theory of social networks in education (Moolenaar, 2012), the communicative approach (Richards & Rogers, 2001) and the social interaction activity (Littlewood, 1981, 2007), since teachers or pupils use language to co-create texts to be read by an audience except the teacher (Puren, 2010). A qualitative methodological paradigm was followed where an in-service training program took place during one school year. Participants were 20 primary school teachers, eight ICT teachers and 20 classes of second and third grade. Three phases of the program were included. Teacher reports and pupils' works were used as research tools.

The results showed that teachers actively participated in developing collaborations at school and between schools setting the ground for a pupil collaborative learning environment concerning interdisciplinary and creative learning tasks in literacy lessons.

KEYWORDS: Freinet Pedagogy, teacher cooperation, communicative approach

INTRODUCTION
It is often argued that school teachers generally hesitate to share their ideas and practices and they choose several times their isolation (Flinders, 1988). At the back of these findings, there are research data which show that collaboration among teachers has positive outcomes for both teachers and pupils. In particular, teachers can improve their teaching capacity (Shachar & Shmuelevitz, 1997) and they show higher levels of trust among themselves (Tschannen-Moran, 2001). For this reason, the development of teacher collaboration has received attention in international research (Brownell, Yeager, Rennells & Riley, 1997; Goddard, Goddard & Tschannen-Moran, 2007). Teacher collaboration is a means of: a) reducing the professional isolation of teachers; b) improving their own practice; and c) improving pupils’ learning (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995). Little (1982) described the following four types of cooperative activities that seem useful for teachers’ professional development. Thus, teachers: 1) participate in frequent, continuous and more concrete and accurate discussions about teaching practice; 2) make interdisciplinary teaching by exchanging ideas about their teaching; 3) design, research, evaluate and prepare the teaching material jointly and 4) co-teach in a class.

Under the above framework Freinet’s pedagogy for children (Freinet, 1949, 1969) can provide the ground for collaborative action amongst teachers who could then act as multipliers of pupils’ free expression and communication through the application of the technique the “Petit livres / Small Books” as suggested by Freinet’s pedagogy. Thus, the aim of this research lies in fostering teacher collaborative action for developing pupils’ co-operative and socio-emotional skills under Freinet’s pedagogical techniques.

1. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND
Freinet’s pedagogy (Freinet, 1949, 1969) includes a number of fundamental principles such as cooperation and citizenship, community-cooperative organization of school life, free expression and communication, research and experimentation as well as connecting the school with the community-society. In Freinet’s pedagogy, pupils develop skills, values and attitudes through collegiality, group and school community actions. Within the group work, friendship, cooperation, mutual assistance, sharing, mutual respect are developed. Pupils develop social skills while showing responsibility and consistency and thus cultivating autonomy and freedom. The concept of freedom is fundamental in Freinet pedagogy as a respect for the
rights of the child (Freinet, 1949; Audet, 1985; Clandfield & Sivell, 1990). Freinet's collaboration is flanked by dialogue, communication and equality. Freedom of movement (collective and individual, according to pupil interests, inclinations and talents) in the classroom and in the workshops, freedom in the design of the individual work plan according to the individual learning pace of each child is encouraged (Freinet, 1949; Audet, 1985; Clandfield & Sivell, 1990). With free expression and communication, pupils - in a co-operative classroom climate rather than a competitive one - develop in a "natural" way, i.e. in a true, authentic social circumstances, the skills of writing and speaking, reading and reading. At the same time, however, they develop socio-emotional skills which are needed in the learning process (Freinet, 1949; Audet, 1985; Clandfield & Sivell, 1990).

According to Freinet's pedagogy (Freinet, 1969), the tools and techniques for free expression and communication include the Printing Office, the publication of the school newspaper, the “Petit livres / Small Books”, the communication between schools and production of micro-films as well as pupil councils. With these techniques - described as Freinet Techniques - students do not simply perform a learning task addressed for assessment purposes to the teacher but they create learning products which make sense and could be read by a real audience (Freinet, 1949; Audet, 1985).

The idea of “small books” began in 2001 at the Garcia Lorca de Vaulx-en-Velin (Rhône) school, where the Petits livres (Small Books) event was awarded an Educational Innovation Award by the Ligue de l'enseignement in France in 2007. In Greece, an educational team in collaboration with the Institute for Educational Policy, implemented for the first time a pilot program of Freinet Pedagogy in primary and secondary public schools in the region of Attica. Teachers volunteered in the school years 2016-18.

2. METHODOLOGY

The initial purpose of this program, entitled “Collaborate and Create”, focused on providing Greek primary school teachers and Information and Communication Technology (ICT) teachers with new knowledge on Freinet Pedagogy and “Petit livres/Small books" as well as to train them to collaborative teaching action. Secondly, the purpose of the program was to apply the use of “Small books” by pupils in the classroom, in different communication situations and in various school subjects.

A qualitative methodological paradigm was followed where an in-service training program took place during one school year (2016-2017). Participants were twenty primary school teachers, eight ICT teachers and twenty classes of second and third grade of primary schools in the city of Volos. Three phases of the program were included. The assessment of the program included teacher fieldnotes and discussions as well as pupils’ products.

In phase A, primary school teachers and ICT teachers were trained at the Freinet Pedagogy and the co-creation of "small books" and it took place in three meetings. In the first two hours, teachers were trained at the Freinet Pedagogy, the “small books” and the way they were constructed. In the second two hours, teachers collaborated to produce their own text and painted corresponding images. In the third two hours, in a computer lab, teachers created the books in a special online form, enriched them with the pictures they had either painted or found on the internet. The books were printed in multiple copies and presented in a plenary session.

In phase B, which took place at school, pupils created "small books" in partnerships or in groups of three or four during the literacy lesson, subsequently, in the ICT lesson, they constructed the "small books" using ICT tools. In order to create the “small books” the following steps were used: a) they were divided into groups of two or three people, b) chose the topic, discussed about it, wrote the text and illustrated it, c) in the ICT lesson, they constructed the "small books" using ICT tools by typing the text in a special form using the Microsoft Office Publisher software and d) printed the A4 page and folded it as shown in picture (How is the little book made? Source: http://mikra-vivlia.weebly.com/). More specifically, the “small book” consists of eight pages. On the first page, pupils created the cover of the “small book” by writing their title, their names and they put an image, on the last page they created the back cover by writing the name of their school and their class. In the remaining six pages, pupils wrote and illustrated their texts. Then, pupils printed the “small books”, presented them in their classes and in other classes of the school.

In phase C, pupils exchanged “small books” with pupils from other schools either by copying the books in multiple copies and sending them through the post or sending them electronically via e-mail.
3. RESULTS
Phases B and C lasted one year (2016-2017) and were applied during the literacy lesson, the environmental study lesson and the flexible zone teaching time (a teaching time spent for cross-curricular actions). At the end of the school year, there was a meeting where teachers presented representative samples of their pupils' small books (figure 1). Also, teachers presented their views about the implementation of the program in schools.

![Figure 1. Samples of “small books”](image)

In the literacy lesson, the pupils created fairy tales, myth stories and fiction and nonfiction stories and the “small books” were produced with the Genre-based writing (Hyland, 2002). Thus, for example, the description of an animal followed the macrostructure of the description. On the first page, they mentioned the name of the animal; on the second page, they wrote when and how they got it; on the third page, they described the external features; on the fourth page, they reported an incident with him and on the sixth page, they formulated their thoughts and emotions. Below (figure 2) is an example of a “small book” written by 3rd grade pupils to welcome 1st grade pupils at the beginning of the school year. The text in this “small book” is as follows: 1st page: Once upon a time and a November, wind blew strong on a forest of plane trees, 2nd page: Then began the trip of a gold plane tree leaf, 3rd page: The wind threw it in a ravine, 4th page: and it re-started the trip with the rocks of the ravine, 5th page: It traveled days tired, until one morning was found..., 6th page: in the sea to swim freely, to go away with the gulls. The story was symbolic. The leaves of the plane tree represented the 1st grade pupils and the gulls represented the 3rd grade pupils.

![Figure 2. “A plane tree leaf travels”, 21st Primary School of Volos, 3rd grade class.](image)

During the program teachers kept fieldnotes which included observations about the degree of pupil participation, their cooperation level, the pupil and parent views about the activity. So, at the last meeting, teachers argued that the writing of “small books” activated pupils’ interest, helped them to communicate, collaborate and become creative, express themselves freely and enjoy the process. For example, some of the teacher reports were: "with small books pupils develop cognitive, social and communicative skills", "all students are active since everyone can contribute freely, e.g. everyone is thinking about the story, someone or some are painting, another co-ordinate the group and the procedure, another is typing the text on the computer, another folds the paper etc.", "pupils develop language skills in reading and writing", "small books are a piece of creative writing".
Regarding the pupil satisfaction from this process, one teacher said: "A mother told me that her daughter, every night before going to bed, wanted to read her own books instead of fairy tales they read at that age". Another teacher, also, said: "A mother told me that her son gave the “small book” with Christmas Story to his grandparents and his godmother as Christmas gift".

Importantly, in some schools where some teachers did not attend the training program they asked their colleagues to show them how to make “small books” with their pupils. For example, two foreign language teachers (English and French) worked together and the pupils created bilingual “small books” for an e-twinning program. Therefore, the training program expanded to teachers who had not attended it and became the starting point for further teacher professional development.

4. DISCUSSION

During this program, Greek primary school teachers and Information and Communication Technology (ICT) teachers collaborated with a common purpose, exchanging ideas and experiences. They were interested in working with each other and disseminated these practices in the school community. Also, they were interested about the cooperation among pupils and emphasized the formation of the collaborative class in the public school. So, this action of cooperation between teachers and pupils seemed to allow each child to express themselves freely and creatively with the written discourse and to produce a unique work addressed to a real audience. Also, pupils developed cognitive, social and communicative skills which are necessary in the learning process. The qualitative results of the implementation of this annual program are in line with the findings of the literature that argue that collaboration among teachers has positive outcomes for both teachers and pupil’s capacity (Shachar & Shmuelevitz, 1997; Tschannen-Moran, 2001). Moreover, the adoption of Freinet’s pedagogy under the “small books” scheme contributes to linking different curriculum subjects and areas and provides the ground for cross-curricular skills development effectively (Bordallo & Ginestet, 1993; Huber, 2005) giving a distinct meaning to the learning process.

Furthermore, the implications of this program could be (a) the expansion of similar programs to other schools and (b) the use of Freinet’s pedagogy in other school actions such as the school newspaper, pupil councils, micro-film production and communication between schools.

5. CONCLUSIONS

The following conclusions are drawn from the implementation of the program: (a) the action of writing “small books” has been an incentive for co-operation between teachers of different specialization (class teachers and ICT teachers of the same school) who can provide the ground to pupil free expression and communication and (b) the school class under the scheme of Freinet’s pedagogy is a pedagogical environment that allows pupils to activate their cognitive potential, to develop self-regulated, creative and language skills and strengthening collaboration and solidarity through group work.
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SHOULD HOMEWORK BE BANNED FROM SCHOOLS ON WEEKENDS?
TEACHERS’ PERCEPTIONS

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ABSTRACT
International comparative studies have shown that Greece is at the top of countries with the most homework. The Greek Ministry of Education, in order to somehow alleviate the problem, decided to implement during the school year 2017-18 the educational scheme "leave the bag at school". In essence, this measure which was imposed on all primary schools in the country required the students to leave the bag at school for one weekend per month. Practically, this meant that teachers should not assign homework to students one weekend per month. In the following school year, the measure was extended to include 2 weekends per month without homework. Teachers' and parents' reviews have been appearing in the media ever since, but there has been no research data for this scheme, until today. For this reason in this study we seek to examine teachers' perceptions regarding the "leave the bag at school" scheme. For this purpose we used a structured written questionnaire with closed and open-ended questions which was constructed for the purpose of this research and a semi-structured interview questionnaire. In the quantitative part of the study a questionnaire was administered to 215 teachers and in the qualitative part 20 teachers from Greek public elementary schools were interviewed. This is an ongoing research. The first results showed that teachers initially take a positive view of the new scheme and recognize some advantages that arise for students and parents (e.g. rest, more leisure time, less stress and pressure on parents and children, fewer conflicts in the family, more quality time between parents and children etc.). However, on the other hand, several teachers reported that without homework on the weekend the students would lose their pace, being engaged in non-creative and potentially being led to learning gaps. Moreover teachers claimed that they have been receiving backlashs from the parents for the new scheme and the majority of them (80%), believe that they are the only ones who are responsible and able to decide for the homework that will be assigned.

KEYWORDS: Homework, school policy, teacher, weekend

INTRODUCTION
The problem of the large homework amount that is assigned to students is found in many countries and it concerns not only the scientific community, but also parents, students, and very often the media. In Spain in 2016, the largest association of parents of public schools went on strike against homework with the motto "boycott homework", asking for not assigning homework at the weekends, and generally reducing the volume of the homework (Fox News, 2016). In 2012, a similar protest movement was preceded in France by the Federation of parents in France (FCPE), which decided to boycott for one month the homework which was given, asking for its reduction (Rosenbaum, 2012). In Greece, even though the problem is intense, parents and students face it rather as a necessary evil and no reactions appear in the public debate.

International comparative studies have shown that Greece belongs to the countries with the most homework (along with Croatia, Russia, Hungary, Malta, etc.). Someone might assume that the performance of Greek students must be quite high due to the excessive amount of time that they spend on studying. However, the relevant studies converge in the finding that the number of hours the students devote on homework assignments, on average, are not related to the overall performance of educational systems. This is also the case in Greece, which consistently occupies below-average positions in PISA’s assessment of students’ performance.

Therefore, the Ministry of Education, in order to mitigate somewhat the problem of the large amount of homework that is being assigned, implemented the educational scheme "leave the bag at school "during the school year 2017-18. This measure has imposed on all primary schools in the country and has required the students to leave the bag at school for one weekend per month. Practically, this meant that teachers should not assign homework to students one weekend per month. In the following school year (2018-2019) the measure was extended and included two weekends per month without homework. Teachers' and parents' reviews have been appearing in the media ever since, but there has been no research data...
for this scheme, until today. For this reason in this study we seek to examine teachers' perceptions regarding the “leave the bag at school” scheme. A mixed research approach is chosen in which a questionnaire was administered to a sample of 215 teachers and 20 teachers were interviewed. The whole sample consisted of teachers serving in public primary schools of central Greece.

1. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Many teachers assign a large amount of homework at weekends, thinking that students have much more free time to deal with and complete it (Βαφειάδου, 2010). However, they overlook the fact that the weekend is a necessary break within the week for students to relax and rest, in order to "stabilize" the new knowledge. Moreover, the children wait to meet with their friends, play, watch TV and have a great time in their free time. On the other hand, many parents -especially those with demanding working hours- wait for the weekend in order to play with their children and generally experience pleasant and creative activities. Although, very often, parents are forced to "study" with their children, instead of going for a walk or an excursion, while both parents and children have more free time, and as a result their quality leisure time is really few. Thus, teachers should not overload the student with tasks on the weekend and in this finding many researches converge (Himmelrath, 2015. Vatterott, 2018).

In a survey by the World Health Organization, which was conducted in 35 countries with students aged 11, 13 and 15 years old, it was found that in these three age groups the Greek students not only spent the most time on their homework in the weekdays, compared to students from other countries (Currie, Roberts, Morgan, Smith, Settertobulte, Samdal & Rasmussen, 2004), but are also overwhelmed with even more work during the weekend (Currie, et al., 2004). The problem of the excessive amount of homework in Greece is confirmed by two well-known international surveys (TIMMS and PISA) with secondary school students. In the TIMMS it was found that Greek teachers who teach mathematics and sciences in junior high school compared with their colleagues from 15 European countries, gave the highest amount of work for homework (Κοντογιαννοπούλου-Πολυδωρίδη, Σολομάν & Σταμάλος, 2000:37). Similar conclusions were reached by the well-known PISA assessment, in which Greece is among the countries with the most homework (OECD, 2014).

However, the assignment of too much homework is linked to countries with lower student performance and higher levels of educational inequalities (LeTendre, 2015∙ Rees, 2017). In other words, the more work teachers assign in a country, the lower the performance of students at national level is (Baker & LeTendre, 2005). That is the reason why 1/3 of parents have problems at home due to homework and low-performing students at the Greek Primary School devote more than two hours per day trying to complete their homework, according to researches (Chaniotakis & Thoidis, 2010).

2. METHODOLOGY.

To ensure the validity and reliability of the study, a mixed research approach was chosen with data collection from two sources. The methodological triangulation applied to this research is sequential, i.e. the quantitative phase precedes, produces research questions and lead to the selection of suitable individuals for participation in the qualitative phase. In addition, the combination of the two research methods followed the model of dominant - less dominant design, with the dominant model being the quantitative. Qualitative research was complementary in order to contribute to a better understanding of the findings (Creswell, 2005: 510).

In the quantitative part of the research the sample consisted of 215 teachers and in the qualitative of 20 teachers, serving in public primary schools of central Greece. Two third of the sample were women, the majority of participants were teachers who had been working for 10-20 years and they only had basic teaching certification. A Likert-type scale ranging from 1 to 4 was used. Its reliability based on the Alpha factor of Cronbach was α=0.827. Quantitative data was collected at the end of the first year of implementation of the scheme, while qualitative data was collected in the middle of the second year.

3. RESULTS.

Teachers seemed to have a positive attitude towards the new scheme (Mean= 2.72, Std deviation= 0.339, P>0.05). Most teachers claimed that the main benefits for the students are: the rest/relaxation (83.3%),
the reduction of pressure and anxiety (82.8%), the increase of free time in order to play games (81%) and generally, the chance to have more creative leisure time (65.6%). As for parents, most teachers stated that the scheme contributes not only to reducing stress / pressure (78%) and family conflicts (74%), but also to increase parent-child contact (62%) and improve family’s relations (60%).

However, 4 out of 10 teachers reported that they did not consider it to be a pedagogically correct measure and that constrains teachers' pedagogical autonomy, while 8 out of 10 stated that they are the only responsible and able to decide for the homework. Furthermore, half of the teachers reported that students were engaged in non-creative activities during the weekend and 3 out of 10 stated that students come into learning gaps. Although, in the qualitative research that was carried out after the expansion of the scheme into 2 weekends per month, the majority of teachers reported that the students tuned out while on the quantitative research –when the children was leaving the bag at school one weekend- only 4 out of 10 have mentioned it as a problem.

Finally, to the question whether they would like to continue the implementation of the scheme in the next school year, only 4 out of 10 teachers answered positively. Approximately half of teachers would like to apply the implementation of the scheme only one weekend per month, while 28% of teachers reported that it should not be applied at all.

4. IMPLICATIONS/DISCUSsION.

Teachers participating in this survey recognized some positive points in the new scheme, but these referred mainly to parents and students and not to teachers or the teaching and learning process. The scheme was a sudden top-down decision, which socked the school-system. The directors of the project have neither taken into account teachers’ opinions, nor training them in order for the scheme to increase the chances of being successful. Thus, the majority of teachers claimed that issues related to the assignment of homework are of their own concern, so in practice many of them may act in a way that undermine the implementation of the scheme. This assumption, even though it was not explicitly indicated, it was stressed out during the interview process: "We are forced to find other ways in order for the children to have some books at home (Maths, Language) which enable them to be prepared for a test that they would have the following week". As a result, in practice, the scheme is canceled due to the transfer of homework to other days and no necessarily reducing them: "We have to reduce the amount of syllabus to be taught otherwise we would not be able to cover it or we will be forced to find other ways to cover it".

These teachers are motivated by traditional perceptions for homework and may belong to those who believe that "the more the better". Generally, they seem to ignore the research data that calls into question the effectiveness of the homework in the elementary school in terms of academic learning (Cooper, 2007).

5. CONCLUSIONS

The scheme "leave the bag at school" definitely, is in line with current research data and scientists’ opinions and converging on the finding that the students should not get homework on the weekend. However, the implementation of this scheme was done in an incomplete, unexpected way, in the wrong time and without the necessary training and preparation. It was not accompanied by parallel measures such as, for instance, the reduction of syllabus and the reform of the curriculum. The result is that a large proportion of teachers are against the scheme, which calls into question its successful implementation in the future. No sooner than the first year implementation, had the teachers sought to find other ways to carry out their work and fix properly the weekly schedule so that students have some books at home for the weekend, to be able to study and prepare for a test that will be assigned on Monday or Tuesday. Thus, a scheme-theoretically pedagogical correct-, is in danger of being canceled once again in practice by a large portion of teachers, if even in retrospect there will not be made an effort to update and train the teachers.

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COOPERATIVE TECHNIQUES IN MULTICULTURAL CLASSES WITH ROMA CHILDREN.

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ABSTRACT This paper aims to present the cooperative teaching methods that have positive effects on children's behavior in a multicultural classroom, which consists of Roma and non-Roma pupils. The research method uses a qualitative paradigm and the data were collected using semi-structured interviews, fieldnotes and pupils’ daily informal assessment. An educational programme of thirty two (32) teaching hours within two months under the principles of cooperative learning was implemented in a fifth Grade multicultural class in a Greek town. The cooperative instructional methods used in the programme are: Think-Pair-Share, Team Games Tournament, Group Investigation, Simulation and Complex Instruction. In order to analyze and evaluate the data collected, the five collaborative criteria according to Johnson and Johnson (1999) were used. Based on the outcomes of this study, it is argued that a multi-ethnic origin classroom is positively affected by the Group Investigation, the Simulation and the Complex Instruction methods, as these seemed (a) to increase the communication levels, (b) develop the cooperative skills of all pupils and (c) manage to nurture an altruistic climate in the classroom.

KEYWORDS: Roma children, multicultural education, cooperative learning

INTRODUCTION

The most important feature of collaboration is the interaction of people in the same space. In the case of the school class, the communication can be either between teacher and pupils or pupils amongst them. In a multicultural classroom, the communication and interaction frameworks have a strong intercultural character, which means that people of different origins with dissimilar perceptions come into contact. Often, these different attitudes can lead to negative responses and prejudice towards other cultural groups (Govaris, 2002).

To be more specific, such stereotypes are encountered frequently in classes composed of Roma and non-Roma students. Behaviors such as these can be reproduced due to a multitude of factors. Initially, it is the social position of the Roma in Greece, who are a vulnerable population group that is often marginalized by society and educational processes because of their different way of life and culture (Lagios, Lekka & Panoutsopoulos 2018). Moreover, they speak their own language, an exclusively verbal form of expression, which makes it difficult for their children to participate on equal terms in school activities with other pupils, for whom the oral and written code is familiar (Skourtou & Kourti, 2015).

Another thing that should be taken into consideration is the attitude of the Roma themselves toward formal education, as that could influence the relationships in a school environment. The Roma overwhelmingly prefer manual labor jobs; it is up to the family to prepare the children for this kind of work and their skills are cultivated primarily through apprenticeships with the older members of the family (Skourtou & Kourti, 2015). These are also a few contributing factors to Roma students' high dropout rate (Nikolaou, 2009).

1. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Collaborative learning is one of the richest and most lucrative educational strategies (Johnson & Johnson, 2000). It is used to describe the instructional approach that takes place in a school environment where pupils are divided into small groups where they share ideas and work together to achieve common goals (Johnson & Johnson, 1990). The teacher takes a mediating and guiding role, as pupils themselves have to build their knowledge on the common experiences they obtain through their classroom work.
Collaborative teaching methods are based on social constructivism, according to the principles of social and cognitive development (Baudrit, 2007).

When working together in groups, Johnson and Johnson (1999) identified three ways that pupils can perceive their partners or collaborators: individual, cooperative, and competitive. For collaborative learning to succeed, five basic criteria need to be met (Johnson & Johnson, 1999):

1. Positive interdependence: Describes the links that the group members should have in order to achieve the common goal.

2. Face To Face promotive interaction: Explains the relationships of support and mutual assistance to be provided within groups.

3. Individual accountability: Each member should be responsible for their personal contribution to the group's common goal.

4. Social skills: Contributing to the success of a cooperative effort requires interpersonal and small group skills.

5. Group processing: At this point, the group members are evaluating their choices and maintaining effective cooperative relationships.

The effects of cooperative learning in culturally and racially heterogeneous groups have been researched thoroughly. Research has shown that the use of collaborative models in mainstream classes with a rather heterogeneous sample of pupils (such as immigrants, minorities or people with learning disabilities) has a positive influence on the acceptance of these groups (Kaldi, Filippatou, Govaris & Pyrgiotakis, 2009).

2. METHODOLOGY

The present study took place in a multicultural 5th Grade class, composed of Roma and non-Roma students, and used qualitative research methods. Fourteen pupils from this class participated, nine girls (six Roma and three non-Roma) and five boys (two Roma and three non-Roma). The aim was to investigate to what extent the implementation of specific cooperative methods could positively affect relations of Roma pupils amongst them, as well as between them and non-Roma pupils. The following five cooperative methods were chosen: Group Investigation (GI), Teams Games Tournament (TGT), Complex Instruction (CI), Think Pair Share (TPS) and Simulation. For data collection, the teacher-researcher’s field notes diary, a semi structured group interview and daily assessments by the pupils were used. These included information about students’ response to the instructional approach and were grouped by each cooperative method used. In order to analyze and evaluate the data collected, the five collaborative criteria were selected as the most appropriate analytic framework (Johnson & Johnson, 1999). Qualitative content analysis for the data collected from all research tools was followed. For this study, a co-operative instructional approach was considered effective when all five criteria were sufficiently satisfied.

The co-operative educational programme used the five instructional approaches mentioned above and was designed around the topic of “Television”. The duration of the programme was six weeks which were divided in three parts of two weeks each. The first part was addressed only to Roma pupils (six girls and two boys), and all the cooperative methods, except CI, were applied. The second part was applied to all pupils, except one Roma girl who left the school shortly before this part commenced, and all the collaborative methods, except TPS, were implemented. The last part of the research was the observation of the pupils’ behaviour after the completion of the programme. CI was not carried out in the first part due to the smaller number of participants, and TPS was not used in the second part due to its looser structure.

Important to note is that the researcher had observed pupils’ learning and social behaviour before the implementation of the educational programme for about five months when visiting the class for providing teaching support as an unofficial helper (twice a week). Pupils had exhibited a competitive learning behaviour and had expressed a negative social stance amongst them using derogative comments even during the lesson. Later, when the researcher with the collaboration of the teacher, attempted to form pupil groups of the same learning readiness level following the principles of differentiated instruction, it was observed that they could not share information and materials for the assigned learning tasks within the group and could not seek or provide support to peers. Thus, the main objective of this
educational programme was to provide pupils with the necessary skills in order to collaborate and accept each other socially and academically.

3. RESULTS

The data showed that GI and Simulation met the five cooperative criteria in the first two parts of the study. In addition, a side effect of applying the aforementioned methods was that the pupils exclusively used the Greek language as their main spoken language during their assignments, inside and outside of their groups.

In both parts of the study, TGT appeared to fulfill two of the five collaborative criteria, i.e. Positive Interdependence and Social Skills. Individual Accountability and Group Processing appeared to be higher in the first part of the study. Face to Face Promotive Interaction was not achieved in either of the two phases of the study, since group members had good relationships inside the group, but the groups were very competitive with each other.

CI, which, as mentioned above, was applied only in the second part of the survey, showed that all five criteria were adequately met. However, it must be noted that Face to Face Promotive Interaction was at a high level, but students showed increased stress in highly demanding activities. Regarding Social Skills, pupils' discussions had substantial content but limited duration.

Throughout the study, TPS never managed to adequately fulfil any of the five criteria. Positive Interdependence and Social Skills went better as the project progressed, Face to Face Promotive Interaction and Individual Accountability were high only when the activities the students were participating in involved writing and Group Processing was low at all times.

After observing the pupils during the final two weeks of the study, it became clear that communication between students had improved and they were forming mixed working groups on their own initiative. Outside the classroom, Roma and non-Roma boys established friendships, meanwhile Roma girls preferred to keep their distance and only met with each other.

4. IMPLICATIONS/DISCUSSION

From the findings of this study it seems that amongst some well-known co-operative methods the most suitable to use in a multicultural classroom with mixed ethnic groups are Simulation, GI and CI. Pupils while working under the Simulation and GI cooperative methods appeared to have understood their role in the group, to have created a positive climate of mutual assistance, to have displayed both collective and individual responsibility and to have increased communication skills within and outside the groups.

In addition, they preferred using the region’s primary language (Greek) and were able to self-assess after the group activities were finished. Research conducted in Israel's multicultural schools affirms that GI, due to its great freedom, creates altruistic behavior and enhances the use of the dominant spoken language (Sharan et al., 1985). Similarly, Morris’s (2001) research confirms that the use of the Simulation method increases both the social and organizational skills of the team members. CI can enhance students’ organizational skills, their relationships within the group and their responsibility (Cohen et al., 1999). It can be used effectively when the study topic does not exceed the pupils’ readiness levels of learning.

TGT and TPS in this study were not considered suitable methods for use in multicultural learning environments. This is based on the fact that while TGT increased the communication and cooperation within the groups it also increased the negative behavior among the opposing groups and promoted competitive behavior (Sherif et al., 1961). TPS on the other hand improved communication skills and student-to-student relationships as the implementation proceeded, but a great lack of organization was observed, especially when the exercises lacked the element of writing. It can be effective in improving communication skills in multilingual schools, but requires intensive coordination and supervision (Allison & Rehm, 2007).

In conclusion, the findings of the present study support the advantages of the cooperative character of the educational programme, as pupils after completing the first two sections of the research, continued to work in groups and developed friendly relationships. However, more time would be needed for a more changes to be observed, as the programme did not seem sufficient to change the detachment of Roma girls. This may be due to the fact that girls are more limited than boys in Roma society (Kaltsouni, 2004).
5. CONCLUSIONS
This research focused on the effects of five different co-operative instructional methods on pupils’ social behavior within a multicultural classroom. It could also be used as a basis for further exploration about pupils’ learning behavior and the findings can be applicable to multicultural classrooms and mainstream classes. Finally, this research could serve as a starting point for studying a variety of other collaborative methods in a multicultural classroom such as Jigsaw Procedure, Student Teams Achievement Divisions (STAD), Team Accelerated Instruction (TAI) and Constructive Controversy.

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MAIN ASPECTS OF TEACHERS’ EDUCATION IN A FREIREAN PERSPECTIVE

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ABSTRACT The text presents a review of the work of the educator Paulo Freire, considered by the authors of the field of teacher education and curricular studies as an author of significant influence in the field of Critical Pedagogy, owing to the constitution of an emancipatory critical paradigm in Brazil, the United States and Europe. This article focuses on the publication of Freire’s dialogues with the American educator Ira Shor, still active in the American education. Starting from American teachers’ questions, presented in the book by Ira Shor, Paulo Freire details his proposal of dialogic education, with the main objective to resolve doubts regarding its theoretical foundation and practical application of its proposal in different countries. In the text we will give special attention to the concepts considered important for teacher education such as dialogic education. We highlight the concerns of Freire and Shor to show practical ways of developing a dialogical course, presenting its main assumptions. The first one is the establishment of new relations between knowledge and society. The second is the need for teachers and students to establish "horizontal" relationships, emphasizing respect for students’ knowledge, real concern about their life situation. The third one is the perspective of educating people to conquer their freedom, leading to a transformation of society.

KEYWORDS: teacher education. Freirean perspective. dialogue

INTRODUCTION

This paper intends to show how Paulo Freire through his dialogue with Ira Shor analyzed his life history and work in education and issues related to how can we apply the emancipatory critical paradigm in classrooms in USA and Brazil. The first dialogue book, with Shor and Freire, A Pedagogy for Liberation (Shor and Freire, 1987) was published in English language and also in Portuguese language entitled as Medo e Ousadia: o cotidiano do professor (Freire and Shor, 1987). Some of these reflections were presented in a previous work (Marcondes, 2018).

Ira Shor was a young American professor working at City University of New York and he read Pedagogy of the Oppressed (1970) and published a book based on Freire, trying to apply his approach to the American context.

Among the issues raised by the teachers and discussed by Shor and Freire were: What is ‘dialogical’ teaching? Does a liberating course have rigor, authority and structure? Are teachers and students equal in a liberating program? How can you teach subject matter in a dialogical method?

1. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The theoretical framework of the paper was based on life history approach and the discussion through dialogue in a critical perspective with the objective to analyze how in the 1980's many questions proposed in the previous decades 1970's and 1960's and discussed possibilities of putting into practice the dialogic education in different contexts.

Freire and Shor discussed in the book their life histories as objects of reflection. It was the first talking-book for Freire. This rich dialogue/interview between the two scholars, allowed, according to the life history approach (Goodson, 2015), a self and mutual reflection, contextualization of the experience, and a reflective approach with a critical friend.

Quoting Freire: While we are each other’s reader as we talk, the readers of our own words and not yet of our written words, what happens here is that we each stimulate the other to think, and to re-think the former’s thought. In this, I think rests another fundamental dimension of the richness in an exchange like this one. This mutual possibility to read ourselves before writing can make our writings better. (SHOR; FREIRE, 1987, p.3)
2. METHODOLOGY.
As a methodology the life history approach permitted the analysis of Freire’s life critical incidents: his marriage, his career as a professor of adult learners and his international experience during his exile.
The first critical incident was the importance of his marriage to an educator, Elza. The second critical incident was his changing of career—from a lawyer to a teacher and the importance of his work with adult learners in Recife.
The third critical incident was after the Coup d’État in Brazil, his exile in Chile, United States, Europe (working at the World Council of Churches—WCC) and also his work in Africa.
In this paper we will concentrate in the period of publication of his most important book, Pedagogy of the Oppressed (1970) and in the issues of a dialogical practice in classrooms of Brazil and United States.

3. RESULTS.
Freire became an international author after the publication of Pedagogy of the Oppressed in English in 1970 in USA. This publication opened many doors for Freire, and in the following four years, there were editions of the book in Italian, French, German, Dutch, and Swedish. The English edition circulated widely in Africa and Asia.
Throughout the 1970s Freire continued to visit the United States, holding conferences with people like peace activists and meeting community workers, church groups, and academics.
Freire described the importance of his international experience:
The exile made possible my rethinking of the reality of Brazil. On the other hand, my confrontation with the politics and history of other places, in Chile, Latin America, The States, Africa, the Caribbean, Geneva exposed me to many things that led me to relearn what I knew. (...) It was impossible for a person to be exposed to so many different cultures and countries, in a life of exile, without learning new things and relearning old ones. The distance from my past in Brazil and my present in different countries kept provoking my thought. (SHOR; FREIRE, 1987, p.31)

In relation to the Dialogical Education Freire pointed that:
Dialogue does not exist in a political vacuum. It is not a ‘free space’ where you may do what you want. Dialogue takes place inside some kind of program and context. These conditioning factors create tension in achieving goals that we set for dialogic education. To achieve the goals of transformation, dialogue implies responsibility, directiveness, determination, discipline, objectives. (SHOR; FREIRE, 1987, p.102)

4. IMPLICATIONS/DISCUSSION.
Freire presents and reaffirms the Dialogical Education as a rigorous proposal.
Freire points out that from the beginning he was convinced that he should talk to the students but he did not have a systematic notion of what the dialogue would mean yet.
At the beginning of the book, Shor, relating to his practice as an English teacher at the University, cared a lot about his students’ problems, working conditions, mobility in the city, and because of this concern he created class conditions for students to talk about their lives. Quoting Shor:
If they perceive the teacher’s enthusiasm in their own moments of living, they can find subjective interest in critical learning. These understandings came to me long after experiencing them in the classroom. I experimented first and reflected after. Later on, Paulo, I read your books and got a philosophical framework for what I was doing. (SHOR; FREIRE, 1987, p.24)

Thus, Shor always thought that the experience of the students should be valued and that Freire’s writings came to provide him with a theoretical basis for the importance of this valuation.
Ultimately, liberating education must be understood as a moment, a process, or a practice where we encourage people to mobilize or organize to gain power. (Freire in Shor and Freire, 1987, p.47) This way the authors discusses the limits of education and a more realistic, less idealized conception of transformation.
There is a clear concern in the book to reaffirm positions, clarify concepts, as well as undo misunderstandings and propose alternatives for applying conceptual proposals presented in previous
works. The proposal of a dialogical education in some educational environments was identified with a non-directional pedagogy and without academic rigor. Freire vehemently resums the conception of dialogue reaffirming that it is not a technique detached from a conception of emancipatory, liberating or liberating education. Dialogue was applied by different authors as a teaching method, detached from the theoretical principles of the Freirean proposal.

The question of authority was in many cases, treated without the due rigor that Freire gave in his proposal, thus Freire reaffirms the authority of the teacher but differentiates between the concepts of authority and authoritarianism. He marks that dialogic education has definite and clear goals defending that dialogic education is not a non-directive and less rigorous practice. He defends a planned action with clear and outlined goals seeking to empower students, valuing their experience and recognizing their knowledge as valid.

In conclusion, the authors will reaffirm the importance of clarifying that dialogic education can be applied in different contexts in the discussion of the problems of that specific reality in order to make societies more just and equal.

According to Freire and Shor a liberating class can have a variety of formats. The two authors show practical ways of how a dialogic course can be developed. At the same time, both emphasize that dialogue is not a 'method' but it has clear presuppositions in establishing new relations between knowledge and society, as well as teachers and students in more horizontal relations, emphasizing respect for students' knowledge, real concern with their life situation and perspective of educating people to be free leading to a transformation of society.

Transformation is not only a matter of methods and techniques but goes much further. Against a simple identification of banking education with an exposition made by Freire affirming that "not all kinds of lectures can be considered 'banking education'." Thus, he tries to clarify one of the misunderstandings generated showing that there was a hasty identification of all expository teaching with "banking education" and that a class organized in groups was not enough to have a liberating teaching. At the time, many non-directive practices were widespread and dialogic education was assumed to be one of them neglecting its critical potential of reality. Undoing this misconception was one of the reasons for the book so Freire defends his position emphatically:

The question is not banking lectures or no lectures, because traditional teachers will make reality opaque whether they lecture or lead discussions. A liberating teacher will illuminate reality even if he or she lectures. The question is the content and dynamism of the lecture, the approach to the object to be known. Does it critically reorient students to society? Does it animate their critical thinking or not? (SHOR; FREIRE, 1987, p.40)

The way of working the content, the dynamism of the lesson, the approach of the object are more important than the choice of technique. Take speech as challenge to be the most important. Thus, the straightforward identification of all expository classes such as banking education is refuted by Freire himself. Teachers who give lectures are not always offering a "banking education" as those who are always working in groups may not be enabling a critical education. This was another misunderstanding that the book proposes to clarify through dialogue.

Having clarified the issue of expository classes Freire goes on to show the variety of formats that a liberating class can have, giving practical examples in different school disciplines on how we can plan dialogic classes:

Once you make a choice for transformation, you can bring into the seminar pieces of reality. You can bring in speeches of the President. You can bring in newspaper articles. You can bring in comments from the World Bank reports. You bring it in and you examine it! You can do that even if you are a teacher of biology, without sacrificing the contents of the program which is a ghost that frightens many teachers sacrificing the contents of the discipline. If you are a professor of mathematics or physics, and you cannot discover some item in the World Bank reports that has to do with your discipline, then I don’t believe in your capability because there are always ways to do that. (SHOR; FREIRE, 1987, p.47)

Freire explains that there are several ways of provoking reflection through questions at a seminar, using different types of materials such as newspaper reports, reports and media material. Thus, the authors show several didactic forms that can be used in classes that are proposed dialogical. On the other hand,
Freire also shows that his proposal, which initially affects adult education, has a much broader scope, and is already widely used by teachers at different levels of education as well as in different content areas. Another aspect highlighted by Freire is the critical reading of texts as an essential condition for dialogic methodology. At this point in the dialogue he goes on to explain how he himself does in the classroom looking through his own example to make that question clearer:

I read with them, without telling them I am teaching them how to read, what it means to read critically, what demands you make on yourself to read, that it’s impossible to go to the next page without understanding the page you are on, that is you don’t understand some words you have to go to the dictionary. If a normal dictionary does not help you, you have to go to a philosophical dictionary, a sociological dictionary, an etymological dictionary! Reading a book is a kind of permanent research. I do that with the students. (SHOR; FREIRE, 1987, p.84)

More than giving a structured explanation as an answer to the student’s question, Freire shows different ways for the student to seek his knowledge, to use different materials, to learn to search for his answers, and to ask new questions.

5. CONCLUSIONS
The importance of Freire’s reflection on his participation in the international context is indisputable. Pedagogy of the Oppressed was highly influential on several authors in the field of curriculum studies, teaching and teacher education. Ira Shor was one of them. The proposal of a dialogical education remains to this day as a challenge to teachers and educators of any level.
In this book, analyzing his life history with Ira Shor, as a critical friend, Freire tried to clarify doubts and misunderstandings related to his dialogical approach and also revised his own work.

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ASPECTS ON THE INTEGRATION OF CHILDREN WITH SPECIAL EDUCATIONAL NEEDS IN MASS SCHOOL

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Integration of children with special educational needs in mass schools is a complex process that should be seen from two perspectives: the integrative system - the school, and the integrated system - the child with special educational needs. The success of school integration is reflected, on the one hand, in the results of children with special educational needs, both in terms of the level of knowledge accumulated and the formation of their skills, as well as the personal development plan. On the other hand, it is necessary to analyze the concrete conditions existing in the mass schools, from the perspective of the educational activities, human resources, mentalities and even from the perspective of the specific Romanian education based on competition. The research approach had as a starting point the question: Can the mass school currently offer educational services for educational needs of all children? The study, based on interviews with specialists involved in working with children with special educational needs in mass schools and on the analysis of statistical data, reveals some difficulties encountered in the process of school integration of children with special educational needs and the rate of promotion / school failure in this category of children.

KEYWORDS: special educational needs, mass school, issues of school integration, support teacher

INTRODUCTION

Non-discriminatory education for children and young people, with or without deficiencies, should facilitate the achievement of the maximum development potential for each child, considering the age, development and deficiency characteristics (when deficiency exists). Schools should ensure integration of all pupils in the education process by promoting inclusive education, eliminating physical, attitudinal barriers and improving professional training and allocating the necessary material resources, regardless of the type of education the child with deficiencies is attending.

For a differentiated, individualized and personalized intervention it is necessary to have a good knowledge of the particularities of the development of children with special educational needs, the characteristics of each type of deficiency, the limitations and restrictions caused by the deficiencies which generate special educational requirements. The child's outstanding potential, to conceive interventions and apply the methods and means of education, necessary for corrective - compensatory interventions and recovery is very important. However, coherent educational policies also need to be reflected in the specific legislation and the proper organization of the school network.

1. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Special educational requirements are requirements in the area of training and education resulting from a particular child development - intellectual galloping or underdevelopment caused by various types of deficiencies: mental, sensory, psychomotor, emotional, behavioral.

The type of deficiency and its level give the particularities of the cognitive, emotional and social development (Ghergut, 2006; Radu, 2000) influencing not just the child's ability to respond adequately to the training needs - general and specific competencies in different disciplines, but also the personal development, emotional and relational, often exhibiting behavioral disturbances or even behavior deviance or auto and hetero - aggressiveness. (Bologa, 2014).

Children with special educational needs due to different deficiencies can be integrated into mass schools or special schools, depending on the type and level of the deficiency.

According to the legislation in force, the pupil's orientation towards the special school / mass school is carried out at the request of the parents by the School and Professional Guidance Commission, following a complex, multidisciplinary assessment, investigating four levels: medical, psychological, educational and social. This approach has as a starting point a curriculum model for mentally deficient people developed by Carol Ouvry (apud Musu, Taflan, 1997).
Expression of the parents' agreement is necessary both for the complex assessment and the orientation to the mass school or the special school that the child will follow, so it is necessary to inform the parents and to have an efficient partnership and collaboration with them. This will have a positive effect on the development of the child, as well as in avoiding situations in which the parent refuses the services necessary for the child. Specialist studies (according to Birch, 2000) have revealed a positive correlation between children's cognitive performance and certain factors: the parental support level and the socio-economic status of the family. Children whose parents are not concerned about their own children and do not support them, such as children from families with poor socio-economic status generally have a lower cognitive performance.

The recommendation of specialists is to prioritize the orientation of children with disabilities towards mass schools where children with special educational needs will benefit from personalized and individualized intervention, depending on age, development, type and level of deficiency.

The intervention and psycho-pedagogical assistance of the child with special educational needs following a mass school will be provided by a multidisciplinary and inter-institutional team: school teachers, support teacher, school counselor, family / specialist doctor, speech therapist, social assistant, depending on the needs of the child, resulting from the specifics of its cognitive, emotional and social development.

2. METHODOLOGY.

The study conducted in Sibiu County is an exploratory study, which aims to investigate the concrete conditions that influence the process of school integration of children with special educational needs in mass schools.

The results of the study have as a starting point the responses obtained by survey method based on a questionnaire. The questionnaire was applied to support teachers from Sibiu County to identify the problems they faced in their day-to-day work. Later we used the interview method to deepen the exploration of the initial outlines and used the answers to formulate the study results.

We have chosen support-teachers as a target group, due to the place and role they have in terms of their attributions: mediator, facilitator, partner and collaborator.

Out of a total of 61 support teachers working in Sibiu County, 43 responded, representing a response rate of 70%.

The quantitative data are in accordance with the records of the Sibiu County Inspectorate and the County Center for Resource and Educational Assistance.

3. RESULTS.

At the beginning of the school year 2018-2019, according to the Sibiu County Inspectorate, 1093 pupils with difficulties of learning due to deficiencies (found by the County Center for Resource and Educational Assistance or by the internal commissions in the schools) attended the courses of mass schools and there are 61 support teachers representing 67.1% of the total 109.3 required (at an average of 10 children / support teacher). A particular problem is that of children in isolated communities where, due to the small number of children, there can be no allocation of support teachers.

The study highlighted the following issues that may lead to difficulties in integrating children with special educational needs into mass schools from the perspective of support teachers:

1. Legislative issues:
   1.1. Heavy but inadequate legislation: lack of regulation in regards to the person representing the interests of the child and who may request the schooling of children when they are in the care of relatives who do not have the capacity to legally exercise parental authority. As such, the child cannot be included in the category of children with special educational needs, it cannot benefit from a differentiated, personalized intervention or financial allowance. Another gap in current legislation is the lack of benchmarks on the minimum level to which curricular adaptation is allowed.
   1.2. Legislative provisions without positive impact: financial allowances are granted to pupils with special educational requirements but without monitoring how these sums are used.
   1.3. Negative legislative provisions: The decision on the type of school attended by the child belongs to the parent, even if there is another recommendation from the specialists - the refusal of the parents to
enroll the child at a special school was mentioned by 28 of the respondents, who recommended with arguments the orientation of some children towards special schools, but the parents refused. This is most commonly followed by low class promotion or even school dropout.

1.4. Incorrect implementation of legislation: deviations from the legal provisions on the organization of the learning process.

1.5. Excessive bureaucracy for obtaining the School Guidance Certificate and high volume of required documents that must be elaborated by supporting teachers.

2. Organizational aspects:

2.1. Too many pupils in one class generate difficulties for the classroom teacher to work differentially with the ones that have special educational needs. In this situation, the time allocated by the teacher during one hour is insufficient for both categories of children: pupils with disabilities and pupils without disabilities.

2.2. High number of students assigned to a support professor (multiple situations exceeding the maximum number of 12 pupils with light deficiencies, with a maximum of 20 students/support teacher) causes a considerable decrease in the time allocated to a child.

2.3. Inadequate work conditions for support teachers - lack of access or limited access to resources. The absence of resource rooms for children with special needs in mass schools where intervention and specific therapies should occur. In the absence of allocated space, support teachers do their work with children in the hall, attic, school library, sports hall, etc..

3. Human factor:

3.1. Insufficient knowledge of some of the teachers from mass schools (mostly the ones teaching in 5th–8th grade) in regards to the particularities of mental, emotional and social development of children with special educational needs.

3.2. Refusal of some teachers to develop remedial programs, curriculum adaptation and availability to integrate these children.

3.3. Difficulties of teachers to intervene effectively in the situation of children with behavioral disorders. Teachers react rigidly to the behavioral deviations of pupils with special educational needs, trying only to impose rules and sanctions.

3.4. Multidisciplinary team dysfunctions, the large number of pupils assigned to a school counselor do not allow for a consistent and consequent counseling program, the lack of logopedics in mass schools, the lack of specialists in rural areas depriving children of the benefits of an intervention according to their needs.

3.5. Difficult access to specialists for evaluation, especially psychological and psychiatric services.

3.6. Lack of parental involvement due to low educational and socio-cultural level.

3.7. Parental dissatisfaction caused by the differentiated assessment of school performance for students with special educational needs that facilitate getting a mark with which they can promote, while children without deficiencies take the same mark to solve more complex items or do not receive the required mark to promote to next grade.

In terms of school success or failure in this category of pupils, the following aspects have been highlighted: failure and dropout occur in the sixth and seventh grade gymnasiums, because the fifth grade is a class of accommodation between students and teachers and the eighth grade is a final class of the cycle. No statistical data concerning failure and dropout phenomenon can be provided on pupil with special educational needs, as in the end of the year reports it is not specified how many pupils that failed or dropped out of school are children with special educational needs. Causes of failure and dropout include behavioral disturbances, high absenteeism and situations of children who should attend special schools but parents disagree. In the situation of children with deficiencies that don’t allow them to achieve minimum performance for mass schools and risk to eventually fail, a question arises: which are the benefits of staying in this type of schools, in current conditions?

4. IMPLICATIONS & DISCUSSION

The results of the study highlight a number of issues that can pose serious obstacles in ensuring the conditions for the real integration of different categories of children with special educational needs in mass schools. Although important progress has been made, a thorough evaluation of the existing needs
at mass school level is necessary in order to ensure optimum performance for all children. The opposition of mass school teachers may be due to the lack of adequate teaching conditions, the lack of support to meet this challenge, the lack of specialists to ensure intervention to correct behavioral disorders, to counsel the family, and not only the child. In turn, some support teachers face difficulties in integrating into teachers group in mass schools due to inadequate perception of their role of providing psycho-educational assistance to pupils with special educational needs and to lack of minimum conditions for their activity, sometimes being considered less important.

5. CONCLUSIONS
Ensuring a legislative framework that regulate the evaluation, intervention and multidisciplinary and interinstitutional collaboration for the integration of children with special educational needs in mass schools is an important indicator of the concern to ensure without discrimination the right to education of any child. In order to know the concrete, real results, it is necessary to evaluate the results at this moment in order to have a correct perspective on the situation and to make improvements where necessary: at the level of the legislative provisions, in the application of the legislation, in the field of human resources training, staffing policies, school-family-community partnership. This study, without being exhaustive, may be considered a starting point for further research in the field. We believe that a study covering all actors providing educational services and psycho-pedagogical assistance for pupils with special educational needs in mass schools would bring valuable information to be used in the ongoing improvement process of the quality of educational services.

REFERENCES
LIVING THE CURRICULUM: TEACHERS’ JOURNEY OF PERSONAL AND PROFESSIONAL SELF-DISCOVERY

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ABSTRACT: There is considerable degree of agreement among the educators that specific skills of critical thinking and problem solving, creativity and innovation, communication and information fluency, collaboration and cross-cultural understanding are needed for students to succeed in life in the 21st century. The development of these skills requires a curriculum, which is current, vibrant and in constant state of review. The paper reports on a school teachers’ journey of living the curriculum for developing the twenty-first century skills among the students. The teachers undertook this journey under a continuous professional education programme. The programme comprised thirty lead teachers from pre-nursery to high school - grade eleventh level. Teachers’ reflections and classroom discussions are the main sources of data for the paper. The paper reveals a new model of curriculum planning and a paradigm shift in teaching and learning, which was required to allow the creativity, critical thinking, collaboration and communication - the 4Cs of the 21st century skills – to flourish in all class levels of the school. More specifically, the paper uncovers those important aspects of teachers’ personal and professional self-discovery, which were at the heart of achieving new curriculum targets. In the end, I argue that mere advances in the curriculum suited to the development of 21st century competencies are not sufficient. How teachers undergo professional self-discovery and form personal theories have an important effect on how curriculum is lived for transforming classroom teaching and learning.

KEYWORDS: 21st century skills, curriculum planning, professional self-discovery, living curriculum

INTRODUCTION

Development of specific skills of critical thinking and problem solving, creativity, communication and collaboration among students require teachers who are equally critical and creative, communicative and collaborative. This becomes possible when teachers make a conscious shift from the general trends of transmitting and implementing the curriculum to living the curriculum for transforming classroom teaching and learning (Henderson & Colleagues, 2015; Reilly, 2007)

The paper reports on a school teachers’ journey of living the curriculum for developing the twenty-first century skills among the students. Thirty lead teachers of the Foundation Public and Head Start (FPHS) School Systems from the pre-nursery to high school (grade eleventh) level undertook this journey as part of the course titled “Curriculum Planning and Decision-making for the Twenty-first Century Competencies (CPDTCC)”, under Aga Khan University, Institute for Educational Development (AKU-IED) Continuous Professional Education (CPE) program.

My first interaction with the school came in April 2018 through teachers’ planners, which I reviewed in order to prepare for a guest lecture under the school’s Lead Teachers’ Mentoring Program. While the review of the curriculum documents presented a typical disconnected approach to teaching and learning, the presentations by the lead teachers during the program depicted active learning classrooms. An array of questions went through my mind at the time: Why are teachers’ planners different from classroom practices as shown in the presentations? Are teachers aware of what they intend to achieve and what they actually seem to be achieving? Are the teachers making conscious efforts to develop particular skills and competencies among the students? While there were many questions, one thing was evident - there was practically no systematic alignment between what teachers were intending to achieve and the actual teaching and learning experiences.

There was a clear need for a course, which could help teachers unpack their conceptions of curriculum planning and decision-making, help them understand and appreciate the differences they were making in the lives of the children and help channelize their energies in a systematic manner towards critical, creative, collaborative and communicative models of curriculum planning and development.
1. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The key question guiding my theoretical framework is, “What changes can be observed in teachers’ conceptions about how the selected 21st century competencies can be taught, learnt, and assessed as they begin to live the curriculum in their classes?

There is considerable degree of agreement among educators, policymakers and practitioners globally around what comprise twenty-first century skills and what pedagogies can foster them (OECD, 2016; Zhu & Zeichner, 2013). An overview of the international 21st century education frameworks (Tan, Choo, Kang & Liem, 2017) presented critical thinking and problem solving, creativity and innovation, communication and information fluency, collaboration and cross-cultural understanding as key cognitive and interpersonal competencies.

Located in Pakistan’s most cosmopolitan cities, and regarded as one of the best school systems in Karachi, the FPHS School System was ideally placed to make a positive and significant headway in redefining and envisioning curriculum for the development of twenty-first century competencies among the students. The framework of my course as shown in Figure 1, presents a new model of curriculum planning and a paradigm shift, which was required to allow the creativity, critical thinking, collaboration and communication - the 4Cs of the 21st century skills – to flourish at all class levels of the school in the key curriculum dimensions of teaching, learning and assessment.

![Figure 1: Conceptual Framework](image)

Whether the students are able to learn and exhibit the 4Cs of the 21st century skills; whether the teachers are able to teach and assess the 4Cs of the 21st century skills will require conscientious and systematic curriculum planning and decision-making. Setting student learning outcomes within cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains (Anderson, et. al., 2001) becomes the starting point of ensuring that the 4Cs are explicitly catered to, and focused learning experiences are provided.

All of this was made possible in FPHS School System with the help of carefully designed CPDTCC course, which was tailor-made to the school’s needs. The course was based on Guskey’s (2002) model of professional development and teacher change. According to this model major change in teachers’ attitudes, conceptions and beliefs occur when teachers have successfully implemented the changes in their classrooms. Successful implementation implies that teachers are facilitated and guided to be engaged in their professional development.

The process of living the curriculum and helping students achieve desired learning outcomes was fundamental in changing teachers’ conceptions and beliefs about how curriculum should be planned and what decision making needs to occur.
In this paper, I report important aspects of teachers’ personal and professional self-discovery as they lived the curriculum guided by the conceptual framework.

2. METHODOLOGY

2.1 The CPDTCC Course Structure

The course comprised 09 face to face sessions and follow-up visits. It began in August 2018 and was completed in April 2019. Each of the nine face to face sessions was of three and a half (3.5) hours and was tailor made to the school’s requirements.

2.2 Teachers’ Profile

Altogether 28 female and 02 male teachers participated in the programme. The teaching subjects ranged from languages to all sciences, mathematics, technology and art.

2.3 Data Generation

Teachers’ online reflections and discussions were the main sources of data generation. Teachers wrote reflections during the beginning and towards the end of the course. They completed various online tasks periodically, almost every month, and generated discussions around these tasks. This periodic reflection and discussion was important to see the changes in teachers’ conceptions.

2.4 Data Analysis Techniques

Each reflection and discussion piece was read and data were coded. The codes were grouped to form common themes pertaining teachers’ personal and professional self-discovery as they lived the various dimensions of curriculum planning and decision-making.

3. RESULTS

The analysis revealed that changes in teachers’ conceptions occurred when teachers worked in groups to understand the real meaning of learning outcomes, tailored and aligned their teaching approaches with learning outcomes for deep learning, employing authentic assessment procedures to help students learn what they ought to learn and helped improve the teaching and learning processes of other teachers in the school. These are discussed in detail below.

3.1 Discovering the Real Meaning of Learning Outcomes

The first key task was to help teachers understand and appreciate the value of writing student learning outcomes. In order to achieve this task, I conducted a baseline review of teachers’ current classroom teaching experiences. The information for this baseline was obtained from the various school heads and the academic coordinators. Teachers’ planners were also reviewed. Groups were formed based on teachers’ experiences, class levels and the teaching subjects. The teachers worked in groups to produce at least two learning outcomes for each month of the academic calendar under the three domains of learning while at the same time mindfully focusing on the development of 4Cs of learning. As teachers accomplished this task, they began to realize that their earlier attempts (prior to the programme) of developing learning outcomes were mainly focusing to the lower order thinking of cognitive domain and were literally devoid of affective and psychomotor domains of learning. Teachers saw themselves making conscious efforts of writing learning outcomes which targeted at developing 21st century competencies among the children. This is evident from the following reflection of a high school teacher.

Previously, I didn’t have clear objectives planned for my lessons. The planning was there but it did not cater to the 21st century skills. I was catering to the class as a whole and wasn’t really taking every individual ‘along’. As a result, there was always that one child who couldn’t come up to where I expected every child to be by the end of the lesson. Now I plan my lessons keeping the 4Cs in mind and according to the Bloom’s taxonomy. I changed because I wanted to make learning a meaningful experience, as well as fun and engaging for every child in my class. The course has compelled me to reflect on what kind of a teacher I was and what kind of a teacher I want to become. My students have changed too. The amount of confidence my children possess has surprised even them. They are more vocal and opinionated as well as have understood how to look at different perspectives.

This is a good example to showcase how carefully defined learning outcomes also result in positive improvement in teaching and learning. In this way helping teachers discover their hidden potential and also contributing in solidifying the teachers’ conceptions regarding importance of well-defined learning.
outcomes (Guskey, 2002). Teachers also innovated with involving students in writing learning outcomes as per their class level requirement. This is evident from a reflection excerpt of a pre-primary teacher.

In the past, some parents informed me that their kids did not tell them what they did at school. First, I thought that it might be due to tiredness of the day. When I started attending the CPD TCC sessions, I started reflecting, researching and gathering information. I realized that it was because we did not discuss what our learning objective of the day would be. So, I rethought how to integrate the learning objectives in our classrooms with children who were around 4 years old. I decided to use the terminology of Targets. For example, if we were going to learn about color names in our Group Lessons, we started saying, *I can read color names.* Each target started with *I can* which made it a personalized statement for the student to connect. Now my students can read the targets from the board on their own. I have surveyed a few parents and have found that the students have started talking at home about the targets they achieve in the class. This has made me proud of myself that I have made a difference in our teaching.

3.2 Tailoring and Aligning Teaching Approaches to Learning Outcomes for Deep Learning

Aligning the teaching and learning approaches with learning outcomes was by far the most challenging, tedious and time consuming task. I knew that mere preaching about innovative pedagogies or sharing of sample lessons will not suffice. Teachers will need to live the curriculum in the classroom for transforming teaching and learning for the students. Thus, an online class was created. Eight groups were set up and the teachers were encouraged to post their work in progress in their respective groups for formative feedback and comments. This was the beginning of a very productive and deep relationship between me and the teachers. I built the same relationship with the teachers that I wanted them to build with their students. Online discussions and constructive feedback helped the teachers collaborate, communicate and think critically and creatively in order to plan for developing the 4Cs of the 21st century among the students. As teachers began to successfully execute their plans, they began to uncover their own and their students’ potentials and creative selves. Here is an example of an elementary teacher, who made a transformation from lower level close ended question to higher order questions leading to active and deep learning.

Before, I would ask questions which were mostly closed-ended and helped me to check how well my students had retained part of the text that had been read. Now I ask my students questions that revolve around 2C’s (critical thinking and creativity). For example, we are reading a novel in Grade IV called "Charlie and the Chocolate Factory." Instead of asking my students, “Can you tell me the names of rooms that Mr. Wonka had in his factory?” I ask them “If Mr. Wonka asks you to suggest him a new room that he can include in his factory which room will that be and what will be made inside it?” I noticed that close ended questions were good time savers but by asking such questions we were promoting a culture of rote learning and killing an important element of curiosity which leads to creativity and critical thinking. The students now come up with refreshing and innovative ideas. It provides them freedom of speech and expressions, harnesses their creative instinct and ability to think beyond the text. Indirectly, it develops their confidence and gives them a great feeling of satisfaction when their ideas are appreciated by their classmates. It is time consuming, but it is more rewarding to see that your students are equipped with skills that are essential for future.

In another example, we see a group of teachers emerging from their shells to innovate with different teaching ideas in order to facilitate deep learning.

Before, I would ask questions which were mostly closed-ended and helped me to check how well my students had retained part of the text that had been read. Now I ask my students questions that revolve around 2C’s (critical thinking and creativity). For example, we are reading a novel in Grade IV called "Charlie and the Chocolate Factory.” Instead of asking my students, “Can you tell me the names of rooms that Mr. Wonka had in his factory?” I ask them “If Mr. Wonka asks you to suggest him a new room that he can include in his factory which room will that be and what will be made inside it?” I noticed that close ended questions were good time savers but by asking such questions we were promoting a culture of rote learning and killing an important element of curiosity which leads to creativity and critical thinking. The students now come up with refreshing and innovative ideas. It provides them freedom of speech and expressions, harnesses their creative instinct and ability to think beyond the text. Indirectly, it develops their confidence and gives them a great feeling of satisfaction when their ideas are appreciated by their classmates. It is time consuming, but it is more rewarding to see that your students are equipped with skills that are essential for future.

In my evaluation of the learning outcomes, I always found students relying more upon the instructions and following them instead of being explorers or initiating questions. After being empowered with the skills and guidelines of how a living curriculum should be, I have tried to visualize through the parameters of the three most essential learning domains and keeping in view the 4 Cs of 21st century skills. I have discovered a variety of teaching pedagogies like in Math - Word Problems involving two step applications are taught through a role play of the given sum in the form of a story. This has made Math as interesting as performing arts for the only reason that children like to think and act out the given problem instead of struggling with a fear that which application to start off with. As a result, we as teachers have emerged out of the shells of following traditional teaching methodologies to strategies where higher order thinking skills are being exhibited by our students.

3.3 Helping Students Learn What They Ought to Learn Through Assessment

In order to help teachers employ classroom assessment that encourages deep learning, they were asked to undertake an exercise of matching the various students’ learning target types, including the 4Cs, with the specific assessment method. Teachers also learnt to develop and use rubrics for assessing the 4Cs of the 21st century skills and other competencies and for fulfilling the formative purposes of assessment. However, for an assessment to be formative, student must be receptive to the feedback and use it to adjust their learning so that the gap between what the students know and what they have the capacity to
know can be reduced (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). Here is an example of how a teacher discovered the formative use of assessment not only for the students but also for herself.

I used to plan my class in the pattern of how to complete my topic as per the syllabus and what different resources could be used. Now, while planning my lesson I think of the learning outcome first and then focus on the activities to be planned to cater different types of learners. I am also focusing on how I can assess their learning. I now provide immediate feedback to their progress so students are able to learn. I changed my practices because through monitoring, observing and quick feedback we can channelize students in the right direction. I have seen positive change in my students. My classes have become more creative. I am experiencing a happy learning with a lot of ups and down in planning and re-planning after evaluating my lesson.

Some teachers’ reflections reflected the release of responsibility and ownership of assessment from the teacher to the students (Greenstein, 2016) when they used processes such as asking students to formulate their own questions for assessment as well as asking students to reflect upon their learning on regular basis. However, releasing of responsibility is a gradual and systematic process. As more and more teachers engage students in metacognitive processes where students determine their own goals, plan instructions and self-monitor their own performance, the ownership of learning and assessment will rest not only with the teachers, but also with the students.

3.4 Sharing Knowledge and Expertise with Colleagues

Teacher leaders lead both inside and outside their classrooms (Thornton, 2010). As teacher leaders work to help others develop skills and practices, they frequently hone their own teaching skills and improve their classroom performance. As the teachers planned for helping their colleagues live the curriculum, some changes in their conceptions can be observed.

Before we can facilitate our colleagues’ learning and assist them in improving their teaching practices, we must bring substantial improvement in our own teaching practices. We must transform our classrooms in order to motivate our colleagues to transform their classrooms.

The best thing about this course is that our facilitator is always planned in terms of delivering and then seeking the follow ups of our learning outcomes. In this way, she is showing us through her own teachings how we can help our colleagues live the curriculum; how we can meet challenges and take creative risks; how we can leave a legacy behind that can have a much lasting impact on a larger group of teachers than just a handful.

These words are deep and they carry within them the whole change philosophy. Teachers have begun to realize that effective curriculum implementation requires that all curriculum decisions are planned, lived and assimilated at the micro, individual classroom level as well as the macro, school level though collaborative processes.

4. IMPLICATIONS/DISCUSSION

Returning back to the conceptual framework (see figure 1) four key implications can be drawn.

a) Development of the 4Cs of the 21st century requires that every facet of the curriculum – teaching, learning and assessment - is lived for deep and meaningful learning. The findings have illustrated that the curriculum comes alive when the teachers purposefully and collaboratively with the students set the learning outcomes within the three domains of learning (cognitive, affective and psychomotor) and provide meaningful teaching and learning experiences and spaces to the students to develop the 4Cs of the 21st century skills. The assessment also becomes vigorous and dynamic when teachers employ it formatively and provide continuous feedback to help students close the gap between what they know and what they must know.

b) Living the curriculum involves continuous engagement with self, with colleagues and with students, and are defined by four key ideas - discovering the real meaning of learning outcomes, tailoring teaching and learning approaches for deep learning, helping students learn what they ought to learn through assessment and sharing knowledge and expertise with colleagues.

c) Teachers need professional development programs which cater to the emotional dimensions of teaching and the affective aspects of educational change that are embedded in trust, collaboration, shared meaning and moral support (Hargreaves, 2005).

d) Course facilitators and teacher mentors must model living the curriculum during the professional development program for teachers to emulate the same in their classes. Teachers must be provided
with spaces to undergo professional and personal discovery and understand that they are the living curriculum and the unspoken lessons that come from them stay with the students for a long time.

5. CONCLUSIONS

I would like to end my paper with these lines from Robert Frost;

“Two roads diverged in a wood, and I—
I took the one less traveled by,
And that has made all the difference.”

Hargreaves and Shirley (2009) take help from these classic lines to explain how taking the familiar well travelled path, such as the traditional curriculum, is easy even when it does not benefit children. In the same way, mere advances in the curriculum theory suited to the development of 21st century competencies are not sufficient. It is when the teachers in the CPDTC course took unfamiliar routes of curriculum planning and decision making with courage and vivacity that they were able to undergo professional self-discovery and form personal theories that had an important effect on how curriculum was lived for transforming classroom teaching and learning.

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ENABLING HIGH FUNCTIONING STUDENTS ON THE AUTISM SPECTRUM TO WRITE COHERENT TEXT

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ABSTRACT Being able to demonstrate knowledge through writing is fundamental to school-based performance. The corollary of this is that educators should supply learners with the means to write so that their ability is reflected in school performance. It is not a simple matter, however, not the writing by the learners nor the enabling by the teachers. This is particularly the case in addressing the complexity of high functioning students on the autism spectrum. That complexity is examined in this paper through a case study of three male students from both primary and secondary levels. In the Queensland school context, each underperforming in writing tasks despite acknowledged or verified intellectual ability. The study addressed the problem of whether the concept map strategy and associated software would enable these students to address identified issues of self-regulation, misreading or confusion about task requirements and inability to sustain coherent, organized written text. The relationship between the issues and relevant explanatory theory for both the autism disorder and the strategy is explored in the paper. It also provides authentic evidence of the impact of the strategy on students’ writing progress over a nine month period, so that the complexity of high functioning autism disorder for each individual can be appreciated. What emerged most clearly from the study was that early implementation of the strategy was most likely to support focussed, coherent and organized conceptual thinking.

KEYWORDS: autism; concept map; conceptual planning; writing; assessment tasks; high functioning students.

INTRODUCTION

Writing appropriate responses to routine classroom tasks or assessment tasks can be challenging for high functioning students on the autism spectrum, even if they have the intellectual capacity to achieve academically. It is known that autism is a neurobiological disorder impacting on communication and socialisation, as well as causing repetitive behaviour and a fixed mind set (Jurecic, 2007), but the causal relationship between the disorder and the classroom writing problem is unclear, not least because of its complexity. What is evident is that the writing process can impact so severely on those learners with superior intellectual ability that they cannot construct written tasks that match their ability (Smith Myles et al., 2003). Not all students diagnosed as high functioning autism spectrum disorder students (from this point referred to as HFASDs) demonstrate a natural preference to communicate in writing, as some demonstrate outstanding talent in specific areas, such as drawing or music (Happe & Vital, 2009; Jurecic, 2007). Hence communication can be effected by varied means, but unfortunately these are not necessarily a substitute for written texts as a means of demonstrating knowledge in contemporary schools in Queensland, Australia.

The author’s Queensland school situation reflected global research (Church, Alisanski, & Amanullah, 2000; Keen, Webster, & Ridley, 2016; Pennington & Delano, 2012) about the writing problem, a significant one for HFASDs. This was the case even if syllabus-legalised task conditions were adjusted for a student with verified disability. Three significant major issues (herein termed macro-issues) of the writing problem for HFASDs were identified collaboratively by the insider-author and special needs teachers in her school. These, independently or together, resulted in either non-submission of tasks, and/or incoherent, sometimes irrelevant texts. The macro-issues included:

- Self-regulation and self-discipline,
- Avoidance, misreading or confusion re the task, and
- Coherent conceptual thinking.

Inability or refusal to submit written tests or assignments can prevent access to a school exit certificate, much less to qualifications in tertiary contexts. It was a situation that presented a problem for the school-based teacher/researcher, leading to an investigation guided by the following guiding question:

How effective is the concept map, supported by mindmapping software and touch typing, in enabling high functioning ASD students to demonstrate coherent and conceptual thinking in written text?

Prior classroom experience (Norton, 2013, 2014, 2015), albeit not focussed on HFASDS, validated the use of the concept map/graphic organizer as an aid to conceptual thinking and planning resulting in
coherent written text. Touch typing had also been found to address time constraints, procrastination and improved focus on tasks. Apart from this classroom experience and research, personal motivation for the study came from concern for the researcher’s eight-year old grandchild, a HFASDs demonstrating the issues. He was included in the investigation into the efficacy of the strategy, given a belief that the insider-researcher’s positionality added value to the study (Vaidya, 2010) as well as contributing additional inside-out and outside-in knowledge (Lieberman, 1992) to the study. What follows in this report of the study is first, the relevant theoretical context for the research, second, details of the case study methodology adopted, third, results from the research, and finally, the conclusion to the research paper.

1. RELEVANT THEORY

There were two components of the broad theoretical context for this study of a classroom writing problem. The first was the theoretical modelling explaining autism spectrum disorder; the second was the theory underpinning the efficacy of the concept map as an organizing strategy for conceptual thinking and planning. Within this context, the researcher examined what was essentially a problem-solution question, with the strategy the proposed solution to a problem of classroom writing by HFASDs. Sections 2.1 and 2.2 provide brief explanation only of the context, necessary to support understanding of the theoretical feasibility of the relationship between problem and solution, detailed in section 2.3.

The Explanatory Models

Four theoretical models, rather than one particular model, explain the behaviours or the learning disposition of HFASDs (Happe & Vital, 2009; Hill & Frith, 2003; Nelson, 2014). This is the case because the various combinations of characteristics and/or degrees of characteristics (Hill & Frith, 2003) demonstrated by these learners merit a comprehensive explanation. In addition, speculative conclusions about relating a particular model to the writing problem being considered are not recommended (Zajic et al., 2016). Each model is defined verbally in the following list.

1. The theory of mind model (Baron-Cohen, 1995) claims that ASD individuals struggle to identify with the mental states of others.
2. The weak central coherence model (Happe & Frith, 2006; Happe & Vital, 2009) suggests that ASD learners tend to focus on peripheral, local elements rather than the whole concept.
3. The executive dysfunction model, often inclusive of attention deficit behaviours, suggests individuals have an inability to plan and organize (Happe, Booth, Charlton, & Hughes, 2006; B. Pennington & Ozonoff, 1996).
4. The complex information processing model focusses on the unusual, highly individual interpretations and connections made in processing data, along with the consequent behaviours associated with the data processing (Williams, Minshaw, & Goldstein, 2015).

The Strategy

Theoretical support for the concept map gives evidence of its efficacy as a learning strategy that enhances thinking: it is characterised by a learned sequence of procedures; it is performance oriented and aligned with a cognitive purpose (Fayol, 1994; Pressley & Harris, 2009); and it reduces cognitive load for both neuro-typicals and ASD students (Schaaf Whity, Travers, & Harnik, 2009). Finally, it is shown to improve achievement (Hadwin & Winne, 1996; Pressley & Harris, 2009). Classroom research (Norton, 2013, 2015) verified this level of support for the node-link diagram constructed of core propositions read as syntactically correct units of meaning. This research revealed that adopting strong transitive verbs to relate concept to sub-concept in the initial proposition is advantageous to conceptual thinking necessary in planning written text. That is, the transitivity in the syntax construction (shown below) functions as a procedure (Brooks, Tomasello, K., & Lewis, 1999) to scaffold conceptual thinking:

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Verbs “to be” or weak verbs such as “does” or “uses” are eliminated in preference for verbs such as “describes”, “engages”, “shapes”. In this form, the graphic organizer meets the criteria for a good, rather than a bad, concept map (Canas & Novak, 2014). Even at Year Three level, with less sophisticated verbs, as Figure 1 illustrates, the syntax can support both conceptual and coherent thinking.
Further theoretical explanation follows, detailing how the strategy has the potential to be a solution to the problem represented by the three macro-issues.

**The Problem-Solution Framework**

Self-discipline and self-regulation, representing the first macro-issue, are required for the multiple stages of planning, writing, revising and editing (Flower & Hayes, 1981; Scardamalia & Bereiter, 1986) by all students engaging in the writing process (Asaro-Saddler, 2014; King-Sears, Swanson, & Mainzer, 2011). However, even initial consideration of a writing task, much less the stages of the writing process, can produce anxiety that is a “hidden disability” for ASD students (Minehan & Rappaport, 2012, p.35) given executive dysfunction (Baddeley, 1992). High-functioning students may well have the required content knowledge within complex subject areas, but can experience capacity overload in attempting to retrieve knowledge at the same time as attempting to engage in the writing process.

Because HFASDs may also demonstrate attention deficit disorder (Hill & Frith, 2003; Schaefer Whitby et al., 2009), self-regulation and self-discipline are especially challenging. The most obvious advantage of utilising technology in the planning and writing process is that speed of processing achieved by means of touch typing and the mind mapping software reduces procrastination as well as possible cognitive load. In addition, technology focusses the HFASDs, engaging them in visible thinking on screen (Grandin, 2009). It also encourages the intent to act (Kaplan, 2008), particularly if the strategy is well-rehearsed. Used as a prop (Dorminy, Luscre, & Gast, 2009) in this way it can prevent automatic refusal as well as being retained in memory as a reliable means of organizing knowledge. For the learner to develop self-discipline in the operation of the strategy, he/she requires modelling, collaborative construction and independent construction (Asaro-Saddler, 2014) in the learning process. What the procedural discipline of constructing propositions in the strategy can also achieve is a focus on the cognitive concept being examined within the concept map, thereby improving self-regulation.

Anxiety contributes to this first macro-issue as well as to the second, as it nurtures learned avoidance habits or automatic refusal, even though the learner may have the knowledge required by a task. A critical contributing factor to the issue of refusal is the task design: multiple pages of verbal and visual instructions, conditions, criteria and scaffolding steps are overwhelming and confusing, even for neuro-typicals. The example of an apparently simple instruction for a Health and Physical Education task for 12-13 year-olds illustrates the traps for HFASDs.

*Evaluate the diet being followed by a physically active 12 year old athlete and propose changes, justifying these changes on recognized authority guidelines.*

Each of the cognitive processes critical to this task can cause perseveration on irrelevant aspects (Ochs, Kremmer-Sadlik, Sirota, & Solomon, 2004). Further, the multiplicity of demands impacts on working memory capacity (Barrouillet & Camos, 2012) and thereby on anxiety levels. A HFASD would probably query the reasonableness of writing a response when an online search would produce the required response. There would be little or no acknowledgement of the teacher’s purpose or the justification for
the task, thereby demonstrating what is suggested by the theory of mind model (Asaro-Saddler, 2014; Baron-Cohen, 1995; Minshaw & Goldstein, 1998; Ochs et al., 2004). The perception of lack of reasonableness results in non-compliance. What is often not utilised to counteract this, is utilising other talents and the fertile imagination of these HFASD students (Egan, 2003) as alternatives to writing. Task demands can also be alleviated if procedural knowledge gained from practice is utilised in constructing a graphic organizer electronically to reduce the declarative knowledge and working memory challenge (Fayol, 1994; Kellogg, 2004; Pennington, Stenhoff, Gibson, & Ballou, 2012).

The third macro-issue that emerges is sometimes seen as a characteristic “off task” response (Happe et al., 2006; Roux, Dion, & Barrette, 2015) by HFASDs. This lack of focus on the key aspect of a task, usually evident in a higher order cognitive process, leads to poor results. It is argued that the construction of propositions relating concepts and sub-concepts in the strategy can address this issue. However, selecting verbs that are both transitive and with sufficient capability to link concept and sub-concept in sentence constructions is a challenge (Brooks et al., 1999). Hence the construction of propositions requires explicit modelling, guidance and rehearsal. Given this disciplined approach, HFASDs can also be discouraged from a characteristic reliance on simple connective markers such as “and”, “but” and “so” in a flow of language, regardless of meaning (Ochs et al., 2004). Further, the processing itself involves memory from a language-specific working memory resource that is separate from the general memory resources (Caplan & Waters, 1999), so does not contribute to cognitive load.

Not all theorists support this view re memory separation (Gordon, Hendrick, & Levine, 2002) but classroom-based experience with high functioning students (Norton, 2013, 2014, 2015) has shown that supported rehearsal of this model of the strategy does enable coherent writing. However, both language and planning impact functioning memory, so it is argued that having reliable access to the procedure of constructing the organizer lessens the impact (Kazakoff, 2009; Sternglass, 1980). As would be expected, self-regulation and a readiness to respond positively to a classroom task are also supported by reliance on a strategy that is trusted by the user. A further minor support can be provided utilising two windows on a screen, so that propositions can be readily transferred from a visual to a verbal text.

There is a working relationship between each of the issues in this problem of writing demonstrated by HFASDs and the proposed solution, the concept map. That relationship was contextualised in both the accepted theoretical models explaining autism spectrum disorder and the theoretical support for the efficacy of the concept map strategy for the writing problem. As noted, in that context discussion, however, every HFASD student can demonstrate a different combination of behaviours and degrees of those behaviours that affect the working relationship desired. The reported study involving three students provides more clarity for the reader.

2. METHODOLOGY

Case study was chosen as the appropriate methodology for investigating the implementation of this cognitive strategy in a school context and the participant (Merriam, 1988; Stake, 1994). This was appropriate for a real-life intervention that was dynamic in nature given the participants and a nine month approximate timeline (Yin, 1994). There was a determination that a single case study of three HFASDs could and would contribute to educators’ knowledge and understanding (Flyvberg, 2006). The insider role enabled contextual understanding, accessibility to students and regular communication with parents and educators throughout the study (Tuhiwai Smith, 1999).

The design of the study included two stages. Given the complexity of HFASD and the behaviours demonstrated, the first stage focussed on investigating the explanatory theory supporting the concept map solution proposed for the problem. Informed by this investigation, the second stage tracked the impact of the intervention on the planning and conceptual thinking in the strategy and the subsequent writing performance of each student. The two stage approach signified an acceptance of the paradoxical tension identified by Simons (1996) between the universal (the explanatory theory) and the particular (each student and his issues).

The participants in the case study included male students (Year 3, 6, and 8), each selected on the basis that (a) he demonstrated one or more of the macro-issues and (b) he was agreeable to working on writing improvement, with written parental permission. Although more research into adolescents with ASD is recommended by Keen (2016), preferably within normal classrooms, the cross-year span and more
clinical setting in this study offered the opportunity to provide explicit, targeted instruction about the strategy and a focus on the discipline required in operating the strategy. Each student worked one-on-one in most weeks with the researcher in a 30 – 50 minutes session, over approximately nine months, utilising the concept map to support thinking and writing in response to classroom tasks or negotiated tasks. At the same time, students were encouraged to develop touch typing speed (in own time preferably) of 20-30 words per minute. Both younger students engaged in typing in their own time so were quite proficient within the first 6-8 weeks. Mindmapping software and word processing were utilised in all sessions, with students encouraged to work from two windows on a screen.

Given the study’s focus on the efficacy of the strategy, the data collected consisted of the following:

a) Electronic copies of concept maps and written texts constructed in response to set tasks. (Task refusal as well as slow typing speed limited the number of completed texts by the Year Eight student.)

b) Researcher notes (observations and interpretations) compiled following sessions with each student.

c) Complementary data provided informally by teachers and parents, in conversations or emails.

Given task refusal initially, there was no comparison of pre and post texts. Judgement of strategy efficacy was based on (a) evidence of engagement with tasks, including touch typing of both graphic and written texts, (b) adherence to task requirements, and (c) evaluation of the quality of organized conceptual thinking in both the concept map and full written texts completed. Research undertaken for a similar purpose (Bishop, Sawyer, Alber-Morgan, & Boggs, 2015) as for this study confirmed the priority given to organized thinking in both planning and writing as a demonstration of coherence.

This study demonstrated the level of understanding of a problem exemplifying the paradoxical tension in case study between the universal and the particular (Simons, 1996). It is argued, strongly, that the complexity of high functioning autism increased that tension. Even though there was no intent to generalise from this minor teacher-research study it may provide clarity and qualitatively-based understanding about the impact of disciplined strategy instruction (Dewey, 1933; Pressley & Harris, 2009) on the writing of individual HFASDs. It was deemed valuable in that its targeted goal was improved school performance demonstrated through writing (Englert et al., 1991), as demanded by national Australian syllabuses. However, its intrinsic value lies in the legitimacy of the experiential knowledge (Gitlin, Burbank, & Kauchak, 2005) gained from the case study about Jack (Year 3), Brad (Year 6) and Ivan (Year 8).

3. RESULTS: EXPERIENTIAL KNOWLEDGE FROM CASE STUDY

As explained in earlier discussion, different combinations and degrees of the characteristics of HFASD complicate this school-based writing problem, as well as contributing to the range of both formal and informal knowledge gained from the data analysis. Further, the insider-researcher’s positioning, along with the advice of Clandinin and Connelly (1996), suggested that the legitimate knowledge gained was appropriately expressed in a more informal narrative style. The stories of Jack (Year 3), Brad (Year 6) and Ivan (Year 8) follow.

Jack’s Story

A Year Two teacher made the comment in a parent-teacher interview at the end of the year that Jack’s inability to write his explanations, results or opinions was affecting his results. It was then that task refusal emerged very clearly, sometimes as a result of anxiety and at other times due to avoidance of what was seen as boring and unnecessary work. Unfortunately, in Jack’s view, most tasks lacked reasonableness, given classroom emphasis on short answer comprehension and never-ending spelling tests, even though he was reading above his age level. Before the age of six, he had been formally diagnosed with both attention deficit disorder and anxiety, as well as the earlier diagnosis of HFASD. Life in the classroom was difficult for this young boy – at all of seven years and six months deemed unable to produce the kind of writing required to show learning. Regular testing of just about everything that was identified as required learning contributed to the anxiety levels and thereby to writing refusal, which was exacerbated by mandated completion of scaffolding in the form of written notes in boxes. Two early Year Three examples of short written responses follow as Figure 2 and Figure 3, revealing characteristic divergence to writing about personal experiences, as well as syntax issues and spelling errors. Both reflected a worrying literacy weakness, while the “off task” responses did not meet classroom task requirements.
Good news came in early Year Three from the introduction of both touch typing tutorials and the electronic software for constructing the concept map. Jack embraced the opportunity to move the visual text in one window to the verbal text on the adjacent window on a screen. These electronic tools negated the initial avoidance behaviours as well as the emerging tendency to present illegible writing. The approach was particularly successful in overcoming all three macro issues when the focus of the planning and writing was on a personal obsession, as was the case with the earlier example in Figure 1.

Even given the positive outcomes evident by mid-year, Jack’s expository writing, in particular, lacked sufficient elaboration of main ideas. Multiple paragraphs were not evident, although not necessarily required in all tasks. The critical outcome of having confidence in a reliable tool for responding to a task, structuring thinking and thereby avoiding anxiety gradually contributed to more structured, on-task writing. Even though Jack disliked research reports, he complied with instructions more readily, as shown in the following introduction to a three-paragraph report (with spelling errors) constructed in response to a History task.

Interestingly, it was the imaginative narratives, not the expository texts, which showed the most positive results. Not only did Jack use the strategy and associated drawings in planning narratives, but also he wrote extensively, in page after page of linked ideas representing a coherent narrative. What had appeared in earlier days to be a case of both refusal and inability to write was clearly not the case. Appendix One is an example of detailed imaginative elaboration on a main idea. This ability to write imaginative narratives, along with special talents in drawing and music, became more clearly characteristic of this HFASD individual’s learning as time passed. However, class writing tasks, be these in the form of the “explanations, results or opinions” valued by his Year Two teacher, or longer expository texts, were also being demonstrated at an average level by the end of Year Three. For Jack, the concept map strategy was a reliable tool with which to address classroom tasks as well as a valuable boost to his self-belief.

**Brad’s Story**

Neither compliance with classroom instructions nor a willingness to attempt a written response to a task was a problem for Brad. Although school results indicated that his writing ability was average for his age and his reading and spelling were average to above for his age, he demonstrated two of the three issues of concern - misreading of a task and a weakness in conceptual thinking. Both were obstacles to even satisfactory performance in expository writing tasks that were most likely to challenge him in secondary
school in the following year, despite evidence of a strong imagination, dramatic ability and emerging competence on two musical instruments. Given Brad had mastered touch typing to a speed of 25 words per minute in Year Five, due to parental intervention, the early emphasis was on improving task focus and conceptual thinking. The first step was to construct the concept map electronically and the second to develop structured paragraphs in written expository text. His preference was to write extended narratives, albeit with unconvincing, distracting divergences from the main plot, but with good use of vocabulary and dialogue, as evident in this extract (Figure 5) stimulated by Poe’s poem, The Raven.

...I automatically turned my head in the direction of the noise. It was coming from the pale, white window that was scarred from all of the times that the neighbourhood (sic) kids were kicking soccer balls at it. ... “What do you want, you birdy, bird-like creature, come to steal my wife’s portrait”.

Figure 5: Example of Brad’s Writing Using Concept Map to Develop Structured Paragraphs

It was possible, given constant communication with his teacher in the neighbouring school, to work with Brad on specific class tasks requiring inquiry or research, leading to expository writing. A characteristic of his learning behaviour was that he tended to skip mentally not just from one peripheral detail to another, but also from one possible central question to another, eager to talk and add words to the screen but not with evidence of linked ideas. When challenged to make a choice in responding to a task, Brad lost focus on the key task purpose or concepts being assessed. What did help was the identification of an explicit question to guide the construction of propositions representing the elaboration of the task concept in the organizer. The question was critical to keeping Brad on task, although the discipline of the approach was problematic, as noted in the following researcher’s notes.

He was not impressed with the push re thinking harder but tried to respond, albeit with some reluctance and lack of practice.

Nonetheless, the strategy effected progress in structured thinking, with guidance, as shown in Figure 6, which lead to the Titanic disaster text in Appendix Two, close to the end of the study.

There was insufficient evidence by the end of the study that there was either independent or consistent use of the strategy. Brad had not accepted its value in disciplining his thinking and enabling him to plan and write expository text – that is, to stay on task and engage in conceptual thinking. That is, Jack’s issues were addressed only when there was one-on-one guidance in operating the strategy prior to writing. This situation was perhaps understandable given his level of compliance in at least attempting classroom tasks ensured that he received average (pass level) results on most tasks at primary school level. The results did not reflect his intellectual capability, unfortunately.
Ivan's Story

By age 13, early in the second year of secondary schooling, Ivan demonstrated all three macro-issues, leading to a high level of concern about either lack of evidence of task completion or failure in all subjects except Mathematics and Science. This situation did not improve as the year progressed, as behaviours in all subject classrooms declined, despite evidence of superior reading ability as well as exceptional general knowledge, the latter demonstrated in a multiple choice national History test. According to Ivan, he gained such knowledge from either primary school learning or YouTube. Frustratingly, his reliance on online learning and websites challenged most attempts to engage in using the concept map to plan expository writing. A further challenge to school learning was his addiction to gaming, which occupied most time at home. The one-on-one lessons focussed on first, persuading him to be compliant for at least part of a lesson, second, engaging him in touch typing practice, and third, utilising the concept map software for introductory discussions. The first step remained a constant, as described in the researcher’s notes – “His learned means of avoidance are serious obstacles”. It was suggested by case managers, but not confirmed, that his behaviours demonstrated pathological demand avoidance syndrome.

Ivan’s early minimal typing speed on the keyboard was time-wasting and supported his tendency to procrastinate about a task. Despite considerable resistance initially to using touch typing software, Ivan found the 20 minute practice sessions both calming and productive, leading eventually to a speed of 25 words per minute. Thus, the typing speed addressed a number of obstructive habits. Over the first six months, the learning process included guidance of the construction of focussed thinking in concept maps about online research data, then support for transferral of propositions and elaborations to a basic argument structure in Word, utilising a split screen. Both the visual and verbal texts were what Ivan accepted as a “reasonable” negotiated alternative to class task requirements. (His opinion of the reasonableness of school tasks was in all cases a major impediment to compliance.) One early positive result was the following introduction to a Geography text, Figure 7.

![Erosion is the weathering of a surface causing destruction. The two major causes of erosion are people and wind. In this report the causes and effects are investigated.](image)

Figure 7: Example of Ivan’s Written Introduction

Negotiations about task compliance ceased after those early months. Only Ivan’s areas of personal interest – computers or gaming – were open to discussion and experience in operating the strategy. The concept map following (Figure 8) suggests the nature of the conversations about thinking processes which in this case lead to the final completed task, a very coherent and structured piece of expository writing. Unfortunately, it was not acceptable as evidence of learning in response to any syllabus task in the classroom.

![Figure 8: Gaming as a Concept by Ivan](image)
One paragraph (as written) developed from the organizer illustrated Ivan’s ability to elaborate on the proposition, should he be motivated to do so, as follows in Figure 9:

Figure 9: Paragraph by Ivan from the Gaming Concept Map (Figure 8)

This story has a positive ending in that the concept map enabled Ivan not only to engage in conceptual thinking but also to demonstrate that thinking in writing. It had not previously been possible to determine his capability due to lack of self-regulation and task refusal. However, only the one-on-one sessions and strong guidance had made that possible. There was no transfer of the strategy from the clinical situation to the classroom context. Both macro-issues continued to be evident with the result that there was no representation of knowledge demanded by class assessment tasks in writing by the end of the year.

4. IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION

It is argued that the study can add to what classroom teachers know and understand about how to address the problem of engaging HFASDs in writing organized, conceptual written texts in response to classroom demands. These texts are necessary evidence of learning outcomes for these students in the classroom, so the problem merits attention. Although a limitation of this study was its clinical nature and related limits on time and regularity of interaction with the participants, there was evidence that the concept map could address the macro-issues identified. However, a further limitation was that the strategy was implemented with the guidance of the insider-researcher in one-on-one situations. HFASDs would not be guaranteed any individual support in the Queensland classroom context given their perceived intellectual ability and this may reflect other classroom contexts in other countries. What the study demonstrated, however, was the benefit of developing a disciplined approach to constructing the strategy. This would require extended time for the interaction, as well as the individual attention, both of which could be problematic in the classroom.

A further qualification about the outcomes of the study is that the youngest student’s very positive writing improvement was quite possibly influenced by the positionality of the insider-researcher. He developed more consistent and independent reliance on the strategy to support his thinking at a conceptual level and his initial writing refusal was effectively overcome. This was not the case with the two older students, leading to the inference that early intervention in addressing the three macro-issues of the writing problem should be considered in future research. Thus habitual refusal by HFASD students to demonstrate knowledge in writing might be avoided.

In conclusion, then, the stories of three individual students revealed the experiential knowledge gained from a case study about the efficacy of the concept map in addressing a problem of writing by three HFASDs in the school context. Case study methodology highlighted the paradoxical tension between the particular and the universal, a tension exaggerated by the complex characteristics and differences in characteristics of high functioning students on the autism spectrum. Each thereby exemplified the particular in the paradox, whereas the universal aspect lay in the explanatory theory supporting the efficacy of the concept map and supporting technology in addressing the three macro-issues. Both the theory and the stories of practice provided a consistent argument that if each learner could adopt and rehearse the proposition syntax, supported by technology, the learned procedure would improve self-regulation and self-discipline necessary for compliance with task requirements. The version of the strategy utilised provided a means of constructing organized propositions about a central concept, such that these could provide structure for a written text. Hence this study suggests a means of addressing a classroom
problem of how to engage HFASDs in writing appropriate responses to classroom tasks and thereby enabling these learners to be successful in the education system.

Appendix One: Jack’s concept map of a narrative, partly independent in construction

Appendix Two: Brad’s expository text in response to a focus question

**Question:** Why was the Titanic disaster of 1912 so significant in the history of maritime disasters?

**Response:** The sinking of the Titanic (supposedly known as the unsinkable ship) was one of the saddest disasters in the world’s history. It happened on the 14th of April 1912, when the luxury cruiser known as the Titanic, set out from Queenstown to New York.

The disaster of the Titanic affected lots of the victims’ family and friends. 68% of the passengers and even the crew died on board the Titanic. It was also sad because of the people who’s families were waiting at New York for them.

The disaster of the Titanic also taught a lesson. The lesson the disaster taught was about safety. The reason why, because 53.4% of the total percentage who could have survived didn’t have enough lifeboats to live. There were 4 collapsibles, A, B, C, and D. 3 out of 4 of the collapsibles. A, B, and C were sunk, but D didn’t sink.

Finally, the disaster of the Titanic shocked everybody. It shocked everybody, including the maritime experts and the media. It was due to the reputation of the Titanic being unsinkable so that the creator of the Titanic could become rich and famous.

So, as you can see, the sinking of the Titanic affected people, taught a lesson, and shocked everybody. So that would answer the question of, why was the Titanic disaster of 1912 so significant in the history of maritime disasters. Unfortunately though the salt water at the bottom of the North Atlantic Ocean will rust the Titanic, and soon there will be nothing of the Titanic left except for the propeller.
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INVESTIGATION OF NEW TEACHERS’ PERCEIVED ROLES IN TEACHING OF BUSINESS MANAGEMENT STUDIES IN HIGHER EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT This study examined new teachers’ perceptions of teaching business management studies in higher education (HE). The study employed a mixed method of research design investigating sixty-seven (67) new teachers in their first year in the department of Business Management studies (BMS) in all government owned universities in South East Nigeria. The instrument for data collection consisted of questionnaires and interview of new teachers. Descriptive statistics and significant mean was used to analyze the responses. New teachers were found to perceive their roles to include teaching and research while team work, leadership and community service seems to be of less perceived in the teaching of BMS in HE. The study recommends that faculties and university managements in the south east and beyond to institutionalize policies that would sensitize new academics on their roles. These roles must be rounded, concise and clearly enshrined in a policy document and given to every new academic upon assumption of duty at the department.

KEYWORDS: New teachers; Perceived roles; Business Management Studies, High Education, Nigeria

INTRODUCTION

Teachers also known as academics are pivot mechanisms that impart academic and moral instruction to students in higher education (HE). Fundamentally, being a teacher connotes adding value to the learning of each of your students. A teacher is supposed to focus on enabling students to learn more than they would on their own, and to improve the possibilities that each student can realize their potential regardless of their situation in life (Deborah, 2016). New teachers (beginning academics or just employed Teachers) are newly engaged academic staffs that have not spent up to a session of teaching in HE. HE consists of institutions above post-secondary schools in the case of Nigeria and colleges in the case of the United States. The awareness by these teachers of their roles has been presumed to be a constituent of reflective professionalism (Irena, 2017). The challenges emanating from the meditative competence of these just employed academics are the perceived roles of teaching of business management studies (BMS) in HE (Amoor, 2010 and Esther, Grobgeld, Atiela, Egoza, & Mercedes, 2016). This is due to the reason that being a new academic can be overwhelming especially in the first semester as many do not prepare (Esene, 2012). Understanding the pedagogy of teaching constitute another problem for a beginning teacher as they come from different backgrounds. The teaching/learning environment and climate may add to the challenges of most new teacher (Maria das Gracas & Rosemary, 2017). According to Beth and Mark (2018) designing of engaging lesson, new content learning processes, class room management and the inevitable grading of volumes of papers also impedes the new academics in many jurisdictions of HE. Challenging still is perception of new academic roles in teaching of BMS in HE. Perception is the awareness of something through the senses. It is the ability to see, hear, understand or become aware of something (Bharath, 2017). It is the functional procedure by which new academics interprets and understands the act of teaching. This is a problem because these beginning academics tend to perceive their roles the way they interpret and understand what this role seems to be instead of what these roles really are. This study examines the beginning academic perceive roles in the context of teaching BMS in HE in South East Nigeria in line with this identified problem.

In developed countries such as the United Kingdom (UK), United State (US), and Asia, new teacher mentoring systems are initiated to improve new teacher effectiveness (Dara, 2019). In UK the
government since 1990 has been in the vanguards of initial teacher training focusing on developing skill requirement for good classroom performance (Lynn, David & Stuart, 2010). Though university academics in UK posits that this model is not comprehensive enough to accommodate the professional and the relevance of a politico-accountability profile of new academics. In US, Boston, Chicago and New York have new teacher mentoring system to improve educators’ effectiveness (Dara, Ellen, Janet, and Jan, 2009). Sharmini, Azhim and Mohd (2017) posits that in Malaysia, mentoring is important because it provides career assistance to the new academic and that effective BEGINNER teacher mentorship encompasses professional (career, skill, and expertise) and personal (work/life balance, self-confidence, self-perception, and personal influence) development. In South East Nigeria, new academics face the problem of lack of mentoring that may shape their perception towards achieving the overall goal congruence of BMS in HE.

Arena, (2017) posited in its study that the roles of teachers are complex and this complexity differ from one educational level to another and from one society to another. These roles comprises of traditional and modern. The study found that the traditional roles is replaced by modern roles which emphasizes cooperation of professionals who support students’ personal growth as well as manage the process of learning which is tenable in the develop world. Maria das Gracas & Rosemary, (2017) in a study carried out on teacher education: Perceptions of teachers who are entering the municipal education system in Rio de Janeiro found an absence of public policies dedicated to support teachers who are beginners, and an absence of on-the-job training that could offer those teachers favorable and suitable conditions regarding their needs as they begin teaching. The study recommended strategies to improve this situation but its limitation is that it was generic and not course specific. Talal (2016) surveyed the effective methods of teaching business studies in US and observed that teaching and learning of business studies should not only relate to the knowledge to be imparted by the academic but should include attitudes and variety in particular subject in the course approach in order to arouse students interest (Avolio, 2011). Faculty members were found to perceive their role as composed of member of an organization, researcher, teacher, and person (Esther et al., 2016).

1. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The umbrella theory on teacher educator is education theory. This theory shelters the purpose, application and interpretation of education and learning sub theories. Some of these sub theories are: Behaviorist, Cognitivist, Social Constructivist, Experiential, Social and Contextual, Humanistic learning, Maslow’s Hierarchy of need, Attention, Relevance, Confidence and Satisfaction (ARCS), Analyze, Design, Develop, Implement, and Evaluate (ADDIE), Elaboration, Bloom’s Taxonomy, and Human Capital among others. These theories subsist due to the following practical realities around different jurisdictions (Raymond & Tina, 2018); first there is no single explanation of how one should learn, and how one should teach, second they are pretentious by several factors, including theoretical perspective and epistemological position, and third to understand learning, we have to understand the theories, and the rationale behind them. Though there is no one, clear, global explanation of how one learns and subsequent manual as to how academic should teach, the bottom line that each of this theories seeks to achieve is to develop the human capital. It is against this backdrop that this study adopts the human capital theory by Thodore Schultz in his 1960 paper-capital formation by education-(Scultz, 1960; Holden & Diddle, 2016). This theory purport to treat education as an investment in human and treat its consequences as a form of capital since education becomes a part of the person receiving it. This is key to human development and teaching forms the partway to achieving this human capital development and in tandem with the concept of this study.

This study differs from and extends the review by empirically exploring the extent to which new teachers perceive they can participate in the outlined responsibilities, perceived priority of specific items in teaching and teachers evaluation, and how new teachers think it is appropriate for them to participate in the pedagogy that enhances students’ learning.

The study is to benefit new academics as it will provide data that exposes holistically their perceive agenda as just employed academic to guide them in carrying out their teaching assignment. Department will also
use this study in designing appropriate mechanisms at the departmental level on responsibilities of new academics to deliver quality teaching in the class room. Faculties and University Management will apply this study to gauge their existing polices to fine-tune them or come up with new policies regarding roles of new academics that will not be ambiguous for new teachers to observe in HE in Nigeria and beyond. This paper seeks to address the following questions: To what extent do new teachers perceive they can participate in the outlined responsibilities? What is the perceived priority of specific items in teaching and teachers evaluation? How do new teachers think it is appropriate for them to participate in the pedagogy that enhances students’ learning?

2. METHODOLOGY

The study is based on the survey results obtained from 67 responses of the 72 questionnaires administered to the new teachers distributed as follows: Abia State University (ABSU) 11, Alex Ekwume Federal University Ndifu-Alike Ikwo (AEFUNAI) 13, Ebonyi State University (EBSU) 4, University of Nigeria Nnsuka (UNN) 17, Imo State University (IMSU) 7, Nnamdi Azikiwe University (NAU) 11, and Odemogwu Ojukwu University (OOU) 4. The questionnaires were distributed directly to the new academics in faculties associated with business management studies in these universities. A focused group discussion was conducted with 52 new academics from these universities. The discussions were led by the researchers who guided the new teachers appropriately. The principles of triangulation was applied (Daughtery, 2009) in determining additional problems and recommendations. The questionnaire was used as basis for obtaining the data that was analyzed. It was developed in order to determine new teachers perceive roles in teaching BMS in HE in South East Nigeria. The questionnaire consisted of three sections. Section A consists of seven questions about the background information of the respondent. Section B consists of three items.

The three items were designed to obtained responses on perceive teachers roles in HE. The characteristic were homogenous in nature. We analyzed the responses with the descriptive statistics of frequency and simple percentages while significant mean was used to explain the responses. The result of the focused group discussions were also collated to identify other problems facing new academics in teaching BMS in HE.

3. RESULTS

The respondents indicated on a modified 5-pont Likert scale the extent of their disagreement (never) or agreement (always) or as explained in the key under the table with the three items in section B of the questionnaire. Tables 1 to 3 give the descriptive statistics of the responses to analyze the three specific questions raised in this study.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Always</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Remark</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teaching</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team Membership/Collaboration</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership/Administration</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community Service</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Average</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Analysis the extents to which respondent believe they can participate in the outlined responsibilities

Source: Survey, 2019

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>LP</th>
<th>SP</th>
<th>MP</th>
<th>HP</th>
<th>EP</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Remark</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Thorough knowledge of course content.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Addressing students’ needs responsively.</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punctuality and regularity to class as well as class time management.</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approachable and supportiveness to student.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stimulation of students’ interest in subject area.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of appropriate pace in lecture delivery.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

52
Use of participatory learning and teaching method. 0 31 7 23 16 5.0 Significant
Use and application of feedback system. 0 12 34 11 11 4.4 Significant

Table 2: Analysis of perceived priority of specific items in teaching and teachers evaluation

Source: Survey, 2019


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>I</th>
<th>SI</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>AA</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Remark</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Support to students outside academic education (counseling, career advice, mentoring etc)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students evaluation</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Programme design, monitoring and implementation</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutional policy design, monitoring and implementation</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional development, knowledge sharing and collaborations</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Analysis of how appropriate new academics think it is for them to participate in the pedagogy that enhances students’ learning

Source: Survey, 2019

Key: I- Inappropriate, SI-Slightly Inappropriate, SA-Slightly Appropriate, A-Appropriate and AA-Absolutely Appropriate.

4. IMPLICATIONS/DISCUSSION
The result of the analysis of the perception of the respondents and participation on some outlined teaching responsibility are as displayed in table 1. The significant mean response shows that the respondents believed that they perceive to participate in teaching, research and learning often. In the other hand, on average, they believed that they should participate on collaboration, administration/leadership and community service occasionally. This partly conforms to the finding of Esther et al., (2016) that faculty members perceive their roles to include basically research and teaching why less perception is placed by new academic on team work, leadership and community service here in South East Nigeria.

Table 2 is the result of the evaluation of the perceive priority teachers have on some teaching skills and quality of delivery. The result shows a significant mean response on the entire item under review. This is an indication that new academics from these universities perceived priority in teaching and teachers evaluation positively. This is in contrast with the submission of Esene, (2012) that being a new academic can be devastating especially in the first session due to non-preparation. It is also factual from this outcome to assert that the difficulties emanating from the meditative competence of these new teachers are their perceived roles of teaching (BMS) in HE (Amoor, 2010 and Esther, Grobgeld, Atiela, Egoza, & Mercedes, 2016).

Table 3 analyses how appropriate the respondent thinks it is to participate on some certain roles in their institutions. The result clearly shows a mean response greater than the mean of the scale, indicating a significant mean response. This implies that the respondents think it is appropriate/absolutely appropriate to participate on the items under review. This is in variance with the findings of Talal (2016) who only emphases a rethinking in theory, practice and experience through innovative teaching method and variety in particular subject in the course approach in order to arose students interest.

5. CONCLUSIONS
This study evaluated new teacher’s perceived challenges in teaching BMS in HE. From the study’s results and analyses, it is recommended that faculties and university managements in the south east and beyond to institutionalize policies that would sensitize new academics on their roles. These roles must be rounded, concise and clear. Introducing a mentoring system to guide new academics will appropriate. However, this study is limited to HE in the South Each Nigeria. A similar study can be extended to HE in the five geo-political zones in Nigeria. The research did not consider the link between new teachers’
perception and gains on students out comes of BMS in HE. Further studies should look in that perspective. Though a general perusal on monitoring systems is discussed in this study, it fails to do an in-depth review on which monitoring aspect that could be most effectual if HE in the South East decides to look towards that direction.

REFERENCES


SCAFFOLDING, LEARNER-CENTEREDNESS FOR EFFECTIVE TEACHING OF SOME GENETIC CONCEPTS

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College Of Education Agbor
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ABSTRACT This paper deployed the use of scaffold instructional strategy into learning some abstract concepts in genetics in a student-centered classroom. Some types of scaffolds were constructed to guide students in the learning of the DNA structure, concepts of homozygous and heterozygous genotypes. A sample of 80 Bachelor Degree students of Delta State University, Abraka, was divided into groups I, II and III respectively and lectured theoretically on some basic genetic concepts and were tested a week later. The lecture was repeated for two groups using the scaffolding methods. All three groups were later tested on the concepts. There was no significant different among students in group I whereas significant differences were noted in groups II and III at the 0.05 level of significance. The paper recommended the application of scaffolding techniques to other aspects of genetics to remove phobia from learners of the subject.

KEYWORDS: Effective teaching, genetic concepts, learner-centeredness, scaffolding.

INTRODUCTION
Teaching and learning is gradually focusing more on generating facts and ideas through inquiry. This is a shift from the traditional system where the teacher offload instructional details to learners. Gentry (2000) recorded that students learn best when they are engaged in the learning process and discover the meaning of knowledge for themselves. A learner-centered classroom is one in which the students are practically engaged in the learning process. In this case, the learners become the focus of the entire process so the learning process should be structured to achieve the following:

- The classroom must be supportive to provide room for active involvement of the learners, interaction and socialization so as to adequately explore the learning resources available.
- The environment should be conditioned to give learners the opportunities to confront challenges using previous experiences to elicit a shift from dependence on the teacher to dominance of the learning process.
- New meaning should be acquired through a process of personal discovery through a completely individualized process adapted to the learners’ own style and pace for learning. Source: Crombs (2003) (as cited in Morka, Molua, Ukpene, Obiwulu and Ogwu (2018).

As recorded by Andrew (2015), students-centered learning breaks the restrictions inherent in the traditional approaches. It shifts concentration from the teacher to the learners and encourages active participation of the latter as their actions are monitored to elicit the desired behavioral outcomes. Furthermore, instructional strategies comprises of the various approaches which the teacher may decide to adapt to effectively engage the students in the process of learning (Meador, 2018). Bogler (2018) recorded that student-centered approach prepares students for collaborative learning with their colleagues thereby developing skills they will require in adulthood. A student-centered learning support system is predicated by scaffolding.

According to Alber (2014), scaffolding is breaking up the learning process into chunks and then providing a tool or structure with each chunk. Furthermore, Sarikas (2018) noted that instructional scaffolding, is a teaching method that helps students learn more by working with a teacher or a more advanced student to achieve their learning goals. He equally explained that students learn more when they collaborate with others of higher level and skills, thereby expanding their learning boundaries and learning much more than they would have done on their own. Similarly, Benette (2017) reported that scaffolding makes it easy
for teachers to adapt the differences in the learning pace of the students to his creativity in order to assist them meet their educational needs, especially when learning new tasks or strategies with multiple steps.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

**Essence of instructional scaffolds in biology lessons**

According to Bennete (2017), instructional scaffolding gives students the freedom to ask questions, generate feedback and support peers in learning difficult concepts. The learners become more active in their own learning. So instructional scaffolding increase opportunities for learners to attain instructional goals and objectives. In this case scaffolding may include peer teaching and cooperative learning which transforms the classroom into a collaborative learning space. Also, instructional scaffolds can be recycled and used for other learning tasks. In addition, it can bring about academic success which increases motivation, engagement and participation as well as give students a foundation from which to understand the new information that will be learn (Lewis, 2017).

**Drawbacks in using scaffolds**

Despite the enormous array of benefits that learning derives from scaffolding, its deployment in the teaching of genetics could be faced with obvious challenges. For instance, developing supports for multi-step problems could be time-consuming. Besides, the diversity in learners’ abilities demand that teachers have to design scaffolds that is appropriate for each, being patient at the same time with those who are slow to master the concept.

**Problems of the study**

Genetics is one of the components of biology education that is dreaded by most students and perceived as abstract in contents and comprehended by learners. The Science Teachers Association of Nigeria once classified genetics among the difficult concepts in biology. Some teachers lack pedagogy skills and ability to effectively teach students without failing to meet prescribed standards.

**Objectives**

The paper specifically seeks to:

- Examine the effectiveness of scaffolding in teaching some genetic concepts to students.
- To generate a scaffold framework for teaching genetics in schools.

2. **METHODOLOGY**

A class of 150 biology 2nd year Degree students studying genetics from Delta State University, Abraka, Agbor affiliate campus served as the study population. A sample of 85 was randomly selected from the class using the simple ballot technique. The sample was divided into 3 groups consisting of group I (25), group II (30) and group III (30). All the groups were given a theoretical lecture on the structure of DNA as consisting of two polynucleotide chains, sugar and phosphate molecules, nitrogenous bases (Guanine and Cytosine; Adenine and Thymine, bonded by triple and double hydrogen bonds respectively) and tested a week later (pre-test). The lesson was demonstrated for groups II and III after an interval of two weeks using instructional scaffolds consisting of plastic moulds, binding wires and strings. The plastic moulds were of different colours, each representing sugar and phosphate molecules, nitrogenous bases and hydrogen bonds respectively. After an interval of one week, all three groups were tested to practically construct the DNA structure using plastic moulds or chips of palm fronds. The results were presented in Tables I, II and III respectively.

**Hypotheses**

The study tested two hypotheses at the 0.05 level of significance.

- There is no significant difference in the academic performance of students taught with different methods
- Scaffolding has no significant influence on the academic performance of students

3. **RESULTS.**
Table I: Academic performance of students in group I

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>X</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
<th>tcal</th>
<th>t crit</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre test</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>4.95</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>-8.20</td>
<td>1.71</td>
<td>NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post test</td>
<td>7.68</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From Table I, the critical value exceeds the calculated value at 0.05 level of significance. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted for students in group I, where there was no significant difference in their academic performance.

Table II: Academic performance of students in group II

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>X</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
<th>tcal</th>
<th>t crit</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre test</td>
<td>10.97</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>13.64</td>
<td>1.70</td>
<td>S</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post test</td>
<td>21.67</td>
<td>3.02</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table II showed that the calculated value, 13.64 exceeds the critical value, 1.70. The null hypothesis is therefore rejected at the 0.05 level of significance. It is inferred that scaffolding significantly influenced the academic performances of students in group II.

Table III: Academic performance of students in group III

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>tcal</th>
<th>t crit</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre test</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>17.83</td>
<td>4.84</td>
<td>1.70</td>
<td>S</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post test</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>26.83</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From Table III, the calculated value 14.00 exceeds the critical value 1.70 at the 0.05 level of significance, therefore the null hypothesis is rejected. It showed that there is significant difference in the academic performance of the students in group III as a result of scaffolding.

4. IMPLICATIONS/DISCUSSION.

The study was based on the impact of scaffolding in a learner-centered biology classroom. The students in group I were not taught with scaffolds and so recorded a low mean value of 7.68 as against 15.80 in the post and pre-tests respectively. Furthermore, academic performances of students were not significant (Table I). Higher mean scores were recorded for posttests in groups II and III respectively (21.67, Table II, and 26.83, Table III respectively). Also, calculated values of the ‘t’ distribution showed proportionately higher values for groups that were taught with scaffolds (13.64, group II and 14.00 group III) as opposed to one that was taught without scaffolds (-8.20 group I). Academic performances of students taught with scaffolds were significant, indicating that scaffolds could enhance the attainment of learning goals and objectives. The results obtained in this study was in agreement with Gentry (2000), who cited that engaging the learners enables them to discover the meaning of knowledge for themselves. The study was able to adapt the differences in the learning pace of the students to their creativity in order to assist them to meet their educational needs in agreement with Benette (2017).

5. CONCLUSIONS

Based on the findings and discussion of the study, it is pertinent to note that learners learn best when they enjoy the learning process. Scaffold lessons and student-centered learning makes learning relevant,
removes boredom and boost incentives to further drive desires to learn. It literary enables students to follow the entire learning process, thereby removing classroom frustrations and saving quality time needed for teaching. When scaffolds and student-centered learning are effectively deployed into the learning process, students take control of their education and are guided towards meeting their educational goals irrespective of inherent diversities in their socio-cultural backgrounds.

6. RECOMMENDATIONS
The study recommends that:
- Adequate learning resources should be provided for learners to construct scaffolds during lessons.
- Available learning materials should be adaptable to varying learning experiences to guarantee learner dominance of the entire learning process.
- Teachers should consider the diversity in learners’ ability and design scaffolds that are appropriate for each so as to elicit the desired behavioural outcomes.

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BECOMING TEACHER: NARRATIVE OF ONE MALE TEACHER’S EXPERIENCES IN OUT OF SCHOOL CARE

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Learning Adventure After School Care
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ABSTRACT Research on teacher’s experiences teaching in Out of School Care (OSC) and Daycare is sparse. There is even less on male teachers experiences in OSC. From a view of curriculum as a course of life (Clandinin & Connelly, 1992; Connelly & Clandinin, 1988) this study inquires into the experiences of one male teacher as he learns how to teach in an OSC classroom. Using narrative inquiry (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000), I inquire into the experiences of one OSC teacher, new to the profession after working in a managerial warehouse position. Working within the three-dimensional narrative inquiry space (temporality, sociality, and place), I inquire into one male teacher’s experiences learning how to teach in an OSC classroom as well as this researcher’s experiences alongside him, reflecting (Kerby, 1991) on her own experiences learning to teach in an OSC classroom. The lives and identities that adults and teachers make in and out of schools are complex. As teachers, especially those who are so new to the profession of childcare, learn who they are and who they are becoming as teachers in relation to their environment and the children, families, and other teachers with whom they interact (Connelly & Clandinin, 1999). This study shows that the identities of teachers in childcare are influenced by the experiences that those teachers have with others and as they understand their past experiences. This is also important for those who work alongside these teachers, to reflect on their own past experiences, as tensions arise.

KEYWORDS: Narrative, After School Care, Identity

INTRODUCTION

For more than six years, before I entered the graduate program at the University of Alberta, I taught in an Out of School Care (from now on referred to as OSC) classroom. I began teaching before entering a teacher education program and continued teaching in the OSC throughout and after graduating from the program. While I was focused on after school care at this time, my identity as a teacher had been developing for a long time. In 2015, in the process of working on my graduate work, I came alongside a male teacher, Sean, who was new to teaching in an OSC classroom. In truth, he was new to the whole concept of being a teacher. Through my experiences alongside Sean, from the view of curriculum as a course of life, I began to come awake to the shifts in his experience and identity formation, which awakened my knowing of my own identity formation as a teacher. This led me to look at my own experiences and led me to think of my own teacher identity development in new ways.

1. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Theory around teacher identity has been well explored and reported. For the most part, this work has dealt with certified and licensed teachers in the education system or pre-service teachers in in a teacher education program (Hamilton & Pinnegar, 2015). Murphy, Pinnegar and Pinnegar (2011; 2008) brought my attention to the developing identity of teachers outside of school places and with little to no teacher preparation. Murphy, Pinnegar and Pinnegar (2008, 2011) highlight how experience, along with teacher education help pre-service teachers develop their teacher identity and practice. In addition, Connelly and Clandinin (1988, 1999) called my attention to the ways a professional identity is shaped. Their work also awakened me to how a view of experience as fundamental to a curriculum of life (Clandinin & Connelly, 1992) was relevant in considering experience as a part of identity development. What became clear to me was the role of an individual’s experiences in shaping a teacher’s identity. This paper looks at the shifts in professional identity that occurred for a teacher working in an out of school place without mentoring or teacher education. Teachers in such spaces like Sean as well as many of those entering pre-service teaching programs, have no teaching experience, training or education. As I explored my experiences living alongside Sean and reflecting on my experiences in shaping my own teacher identity, I realized that by laying our experiences alongside others (Kerby, 1991) we
can better understand our own experiences and those of our participants, particularly in the formation of teachers’ professional identity.

2. METHODOLOGY

Narrative inquiry as defined by Clandinin and Connelly (2000) is experiential and relational and requires the researcher, and the participants to engage in this work together. Living alongside Sean and seeking to understand the experience of becoming a teacher from his perspective allowed me to deeply inquire into his experiences of teacher identity formation (and that of my own).

From February 2015 to May 2016, I visited an OSC classroom in Edmonton, Alberta approximately 50 times. I began by observing the class before engaging in conversations with Sean.

Sean was in his mid to late 30s and had been a warehouse manager for several years before being laid off. He had no prior experience teaching in any kind of setting before being hired in the OSC classroom. During the course of this study he was completing a mandatory, provincial, minimal online training required of those working in childcare settings.

I came to the OSC nearly every day through July and August, playing games with the children on days when they were in the daycare and going with them on field trips. During the day, Sean and I had short, informal conversations. Longer conversations were held at restaurants after hours separate from the OSC.

As the school year began in September, I continued to attend the daycare every day after school until the end of November 2015, when I began to negotiate my exit from the daycare. Sean’s experiences were recorded from transcripts and field notes, as well as through conversations with children and parents in the OSC. I analyzed the data using the three-dimensional narrative space, placing Sean’s stories in this space and inquiring into them. Through the process of analysis and living, telling, retelling, and reliving (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000) these stories I developed a deeper understanding of the role of experience, rather than teacher education, in shaping the identity development of teachers in such spaces.

3. RESULTS

Sean started teaching in the OSC room in January 2015. He had not worked in childcare before. He came from a warehouse manager position. The head teacher, started at the same time as Sean but left the OSC at the end of February 2015, making Sean, by default, the head teacher. Sean was given no education or training but was left to figure out his new role alone.

From inquiring into Sean’s experiences I recognized three shifts in Sean’s identity as a teacher; teacher as warehouse manager, teacher as learning to be around children and teacher as becoming. Each shift is represented by a relevant fragment from Sean’s narrative account (presented in plain text), then a fragment of my field text (in italics) followed by inquiry into the fragments. The first shift took place after school in the space where the children in the OSC class meet. The second shift takes place several months later during a meeting at a playground. The third shows Sean’s interaction with a boy who was upset as the class moved from the playground to the OSC room and takes place toward the end of the narrative inquiry.

Shift one: Teacher as warehouse manager

I saw Sean get more and more overwhelmed as he stood in the centre of the whirlwind of children (Field Notes, June 12, 2015). “OSC! Up against the wall!” While directly looking at Dan [a younger boy in the class], Sean says, “Dan! UP AGAINST THE WALL!” (Field Notes, June 10, 2015). I flashback to experiences of watching people being arrested. I feel a moment of great tension as I realize the contexts in which I have heard these words said and the moments of unease that they bring to mind. The rebel in me wants to have all the children run away from “The Wall” as fast as they can just because they were told that was where they needed to be. Dan seemed to have barely noticed the command, leisurely finishing his conversation with a friend who passed by. The call to line up against the wall rang over the sounds of children leaving school. Sean moved to physically direct Dan towards the wall. Once again, Dan seemed to not notice the tone, indicating that he was not doing what he should be doing.
Sean was having a very hard time today. He remarked more than once that all the children were having a harder time than normal. He thought that they were having problems with lining up, over and above what is normal. I don’t know that I feel that way. It seemed that they might have listened a little less but this wasn’t as big a deal as Sean felt it was. I have to remember that I have had different experiences teaching. I, too, have had days when even the littlest problem seems devastating. Some children never make things easy for the teachers though. Sean always wants a line of two where each child is looking forward, all of their possessions in their backpacks and their heads lined up behind the child in front of them. Some Children don’t feel it necessary to be in a perfect line. If they are close, he/she is in line, and that is good enough.

(Interim Research Text, October 8, 2015)

When Sean first came to the OSC classroom, he took on the job in the same way he did his manager job, speaking from a place of authority and expecting to be listed to simply because of that authority. Sean wanted everyone to be safe, not intrude on others play, and for it all to be controlled just as everything was at the warehouse. While this perspective caused tension for me, I thought back to my early days of teaching, before I had formal education, and realized that the lack of control that children bring had, at times, made me respond similarly to Sean. Just as I had, Sean brought the experiences and lessons from his curriculum of life and these lessons underlay the teacher identity he enacted.

Shift two: Teacher as learning to be with kids

Sean immediately asked Malik to put his book away. However, the words had only just left his mouth when Sean’s attention was called elsewhere. Malik didn’t put the book away. He was still not bothering anyone and not making any noise when I suddenly heard Sean call impatiently, “Malik, I already asked you to put your book away and pay attention!” Shutting the book, with his thumb still inside so that he could return to where he left off as soon as Sean’s attention was elsewhere, he asked, “What’s for snack?” “If you were paying attention, you’d know. Book in your backpack!” was Sean’s response. Malik put the book away and immediately began to loudly whisper to me, trying to tell me things he noticed in the story he was reading and other details from his day when a threatening look, the kind teachers are known for, from Sean to Malik caused me to try to make Malik stop talking. I didn’t want him to get into any more trouble than he already seemed to be in. The meeting ended soon after. Malik, put his book into his backpack, rushed off, story unfinished, to play soccer with the other boys.

(Interim Research Text, June 3, 2015)

Sean struggled for quiet. I realized it was hard to maintain order keeping each child safe and quiet to give needed instructions ... (Field Notes, March 30, 2015). Sean told me how he wished that he didn’t have so many [negative] incidents ... Sean wanted to do his work without adopting such an authoritarian persona, and he wanted [the children] to be able to play (Field Notes, May 19, 2015). As a teacher, both in elementary school and in Daycare, I have held hundreds of these kinds of meetings. Many times I acted as Sean did, wanting to give information and creating a space for the children to voice questions and concerns, wanting all children to be part of the discussion. I chided children like Malik, trying to show them what “respectful listening” was and how to be a “contributing member” of the class. As a teacher, I had seen these meetings as good opportunities to develop a sense of community, to be productive and helpful. Now, sitting beside Malik, I wondered about the purposes of these meetings.

What I noticed here is how this next shift in Sean’s identity occurred, not so much in his actions but in the way that he thought about himself in relation to the children. As he continued to enact his warehouse manager persona he also sought to respond to the children in more positive ways. In response to the children, Sean sought to keep everyone together and safe as the class moved from school to park to OSC.

I was reminded that I was looking at Sean through my understanding of my well-developed and enacted teacher identity. I realized that like Sean, in the beginning, I had wanted to act in more positive ways but didn’t have clear ideas of how to enact that kind of teacher identity. Sean had no experience before becoming a teacher at the OSC with transporting a large number of children, on foot, with public transportation, or driving them personally, from one place to another. I remembered the first few times, when I was a daycare teacher, walking with forty children from our OSC to a park half a mile away. I was hyper aware of our surroundings, trying to minimize the potential risk of having someone hit by a passing car, being injured because they were not paying attention to where they were going, or having one of the children run away from the group. From our conversation, I learned that Sean felt similarly. What I realized as I inquired into these fragments was that Sean’s identity shifted as his concern for the children...
in some ways bumped with his past knowledge of managing people. As a result of bumpings like this between past and current experience, Sean’s identity shifted just as mine had. The curriculum of life he experienced with children in the OSC shifted him away from his managerial identity toward a teacher identity oriented towards engaging positively with children.

Shift three: Teacher as becoming

I watched as Sean began walking with Malik, who was reluctant to move quickly to join the class. When the class was ready and Malik had retrieved his backpack and joined the class in line, Sean stayed behind, walking slowly with him. Malik was clearly upset by the arguments, perceived slights, and wrong doings by other children [earlier in the day]. As Sean and Malik slowly walked at the end of the line, the rest of the class moved ahead with the other teacher. The children didn’t seem to care about the extra time that it took for the line to “be ready” or that they had to wait outside the classroom doors for Malik to catch up. Perhaps they did mind, but they continued talking, making plans, and telling stories.

I don’t know the substance of Sean and Malik’s conversations as they walked fifteen feet behind the rest of us. I imagined this was a time for Sean and Malik to negotiate their relationship and share their stories. As Sean and Malik finally met us, Malik’s eyes were still down. I noticed that Sean did not seem as frustrated when he and Malik joined the class. It seemed as though Sean had accepted Malik’s rhythm for moving from the playground to the OSC. Something had changed between Malik and Sean since January 2015 when he began teaching in the OSC room. Perhaps I was the only one who saw it, only because I watched so carefully, but an understanding seemed to have formed between them over the five months that Sean and Malik had been in the class together. As long as Malik was moving toward the OSC room, Malik was allowed to move at a pace that was comfortable to him.

Sean told me how much he liked it when I played Phase 10 with the children. There are several boys that most often cause disruption in the class. These same boys love playing the card game. They are less disruptive when we play Phase 10. We sometimes get loud, but it is never for very long because the game takes concentration. Today was the first time I saw Sean play with some of the children. He told me that he liked playing with the children. He didn’t have to deal with the behavior issues and so could play with the children.

(Interim Research Text, July 27, 2015)

In the last shift in Sean’s teacher identity that he experienced as I worked alongside Sean, I noticed that Sean was becoming a teacher and that he had taken up that identity. In our interaction where Sean commented on my playing Phase 10 with the children, Sean, once again, stated his desire to be playful rather than so stern in his interactions. His observation of me led him to seek to position himself differently. Similarly, Sean’s ability to allow Malik to walk at his own pace, satisfying Malik’s need to process events from earlier in the day, and Sean’s need to watch over the rest of the class and orderly walk to the OSC shows Sean’s shift in identity. In my interaction with Sean around playing Phase 10 with the children, I was reminded of who I had become as a teacher. Playing with children was a fundamental part of my teacher identity. Like Sean, I too through my experience in teaching in an after-school-program moved into the status of becoming.

What the three text fragments shared indicate is that we bring to teaching our prior experience interacting with other humans in the various responsibilities we hold for them. As we interact with children and begin to care about their safety and well-being we begin to sift toward an orientation to being a teacher that includes both our prior experience and our learning from our current interactions with children. Finally, we shift so that our earlier identity, while present, is incorporated into our new identity as a teacher. Our identity as a teacher is formed through a curriculum of life – the experiences we have and are learning from them.

4. IMPLICATIONS/DISCUSSION

As we look back at the shifts in Sean’s identity, we see his movement in action and mindset from a stance as teaching as a warehouse manager to teaching as thinking about himself in relation to children and their needs as well as the needs of keeping the whole class safe. Finally, he shifts to imagining himself as being a teacher. Dewey (1938) reminds us that educative experience consists of continuity and interaction. As Sean interacted with the children in the class, the context of the OSC, and other teachers over time, these
experiences led Sean to shift his identity. During the time Sean had these experiences another part of his curriculum of life involved his online training. While the online training provided by the province was, minimal and by no means was extensive, it did provide Sean with a different kind of opportunity to look at his practice as a teacher. I cannot help but wonder what shifts in Sean’s identity and practice would have occurred had Sean been able to receive more training and education rather than being expected to “figure it out” without recourse to guide him. During my own teacher identity development, I was able to watch other experienced teachers, read books and articles about teaching, and practice the things I was learning. This first happened while I was teaching in an OSC room and then later in a teacher education program. Both experiences from my curriculum of life were vital as I sought to form my own teacher identity and develop my practice. I imagine that Sean, had he been able to receive any training or education, might have made his shifts over a shorter period of time, allowing him to make other significant shifts and engage with the children in more positive ways. Ultimately this could have led to his enacting the identity that he revealed to me that he wanted.

When I first came alongside Sean, I viewed his actions as one who had many years of experience, who had already made similar shifts in my teacher identity and had a great deal of knowledge about teaching. I was therefore appalled at the way Sean was enacting his role as teacher. I cringed at moments of tension that I knew could have been avoided or abated. I felt sad for the negative experiences that Sean and the children in the class had as Sean was learning what it meant to be a teacher in an OSC room. As I continued to come alongside Sean, confronting my own tensions by inquiring into my own experiences of developing a teacher identity, I was able to shift from an arrogant perception of Sean to a loving perception (Lugones, 1987). I was able to see how he changed his mindset to consider more than safety and efficiency but the needs and desires of the children Sean was teaching alongside. Once again, it was as I came alongside Sean and began to view him differently that I wondered what other shifts might have occurred in the two years I was alongside Sean had he been able to receive or participate in any kind of teacher preparation program or in house training by more experienced teachers. Would the shifts he experienced taken place in a shorter period of time? Would Sean have experienced other shifts? Would I have looked at my own identity and identity making experiences differently?

5. CONCLUSIONS

Inquiring into and understanding more fully the shifts that those who teach have are important for understanding how daycares, other OSC programs, and teacher education programs lead to the shifts in teacher professional identity. Such shifts emerge from our experience within a curriculum of life. Sean had no education or training. I had participated in extensive education and training. While I was able to see similar shifts in my teacher identity and at times I acted in similar ways to Sean, I was able to avoid the majority of tensions that Sean experienced. I was able to watch as more experienced teachers modeled how to satisfy safety and efficiency needs while letting children play, laugh and explore. I was able to see myself as teacher early as I read about how others engaged with children and how teaching was thought of and then was able to practice what I learned. Sean was thrown in and expected to figure it all out and felt a great deal of tension as he painfully developed his teacher identity. My curriculum of lives was richer and supported more complex shifts in my professional identity formation. While this work has implications for in-service and pre-service teacher training and preparation it is clear that there is a need to continue to inquire into the experiences of teachers in Out of School places and the identities of those who work in such places from the perspective of a curriculum of life.
REFERENCES


WHAT RESEARCH SAYS ON TEACHER EDUCATION IN BRAZIL

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ABSTRACT The study presents the state of knowledge of theses and dissertations of graduate programs in Brazil from 1987 to 2017 being teacher education the main theme of research. The objective of the study is to indicate the thematic and methodological trends that guide these investigations. The research methodology refers to systematic review studies (Vosgerau and Romanowski, 2014), and integrative review (Rother, 2007). The reviews made by André (2010); Brzezinski e Garrido (2006); Brzezinski (2014); Romanowski (2013) cover the period from 1987 to 2010 and the current study from 2011 to 2017. For this study the Brazilian databases (Catalog of Thesis and Dissertations / Capes and Thesis and Dissertation Digital Library) and used the descriptor 'teacher education', the filter 'theses and dissertations, area - education'. In the analyzed period from 1987 to 2017, 6,851 research items were located in a universe of 68,683 theses and dissertations in the education area. The catalog document of each paper indicating title, author, institution and program, subject, methodology and main result was the analyzed document of each research. The analysis of the subjects indicated the following categories: initial education, continuing education, identity, development and teacher professionalization. The examination of the set of studies, in general, indicates the following aspects: a) teacher education is consolidated as a research field, due to the constancy of the researchers' interest in carrying out investigations; b) there are many weaknesses in undergraduate courses and continuing education programs, and c) teacher professionalization is still an unconsolidated aspect.


INTRODUCTION

The review studies in teacher education allow us to identify the significant contributions of the construction of theory and pedagogical practice, to point out the restrictions on the field in which research is moving, its dissemination gaps, to recognize the contributions of research in the constitution of the proposals for teacher education. In Brazil, research in the field of education arose in 1930, at the initiative of the Ministry of Education - MEC, and university professors. From the 1950s onwards, research began to be promoted by government agencies such as the National Council for Scientific and Technological Development (CNPq) and Coordination for the Improvement of Higher Education Personnel (CAPES), followed by the creation of graduate programs, master's degrees and PhDs in 1965. Subsequently, with the emergence of the National Association of Graduate and Research (ANPEd), in 1979, the creation of foundations and research groups was slowly expanded (André, 2006; Gatti, 2005). In this perspective, this text examines the research on teacher education addressed in theses and dissertations defended in the graduate programs in education from 1987 to 2017. The purpose of the study is to indicate the thematic and methodological trends that guide these investigations pointing to the continuous issues, changes, gaps and problems to suggest the directions of research in the field of teacher education. In the study, the period was organized in decades: 1987 to 1996; 1997 to 2006 and 2007 to 2017, considering important facts that delimit each period.

1. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

In this study the references consider Marcelo Garcia (1999), Vaillant and Marcelo (2015), André (2010) in which teacher education is taken as a discipline. Regarding the type of study performed, systematic review, indications of the study stages include: clear criteria of inclusion and exclusion, definition of explicit research strategy, systematic coding and analysis of included studies (Campbell, 2018), (Vosgerau and Romanowski, 2014). In the studies already carried out in Brazil we examine those of André and Romanowski (2002), Brzezinski (2006, 2014), Romanowski (2013). These investigations establish categories that guide the organization and systematization of data: initial education, continuing education...
and teacher identity and professionalization. Data analysis is guided by Bardin (2010) from readings to coding and categorization.

2. METHODOLOGY
The research methodology refers to the systematic review studies (Vosgerau and Romanowski, 2014). The study steps include: clear inclusion and exclusion criteria, definition of explicit research strategy, systematic coding and analysis of included studies (Campbell, 2018), Rother (2014). The scope review focuses to indicate the evidence of the themes. The study methodology will be indicated at the end of the text due to the communication limit. It synthesizes the research of theses and dissertations defended between 1987 and 2017. It takes as reference the inquiry by André and Romanowski (2002), Brzezinski and Garrido (2006), Brzezinski (2014), Romanowski (2013). In the research planning, it defines as descriptor for location of theses and dissertations the descriptor 'teacher education' and the filter 'theses and dissertations, area - education'. As an exclusion criterion, the abstracts were read and the studies that did not deal with teacher education were excluded.

The research was carried out from the catalog of Theses and Dissertations of the Coordination of Improvement of Higher Level Personnel (Capes) which is a bibliographic search system and it collects records since 1987.

The analysis related to the covered subjects was carried out from the reading of the papers' abstracts: 1) pre-analysis, 2) exploration of the material and 3) treatment of the results, inference and interpretation, as recommended by Bardin (2010). The data were grouped and systematized in maps with the use of Excel to favor the survey of recurrences and singularities that, in turn, allowed identifying recurrent themes and research modalities employing the use of tables of evidence.

Regarding the methodology of the studies, as not all abstracts point to this question, the notes of already existing studies were considered. These studies do not cover the entire period from 1987 to 2017, so the considerations surrounding the study methodology need to be considered with caution.

3. RESULTS
3.1 THE PERIOD FROM 1987 TO 1996
The research on teacher education during this period totaled 342, distributed in 46 theses and 296 dissertations. Table 1 presents these results distributed per year.

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Table no. 1 – Number of theses and dissertations on teacher education -1987 to 1996

Having teacher education as a discipline the categories of studies were grouped into the study of this period by André and Romanowski (2002) in initial education, continuing education and teacher identity and professionalization. For Marcelo Garcia (1999) and Vaillant and Marcelo (2015), the categories of studies were grouped in theories on teacher education, professional development - with the sub-categories: teacher education modalities (initial education, beginner teacher, continuing education).

Another research carried out by Brzezinski e Garrido (2006), analyzes a sample of theses and dissertations, and in the results the author highlights as categories: conceptions of teacher education and training, teaching work, education professional policies and literature review. We reaffirm that in the present study the categories are based on André and Romanowski (2002).
In the period from 1987 to 1996 the papers were found in the following categories: Initial education is the most discussed subject with 251 research, continuing education adds to 52, and teacher identity and professionalization with 39 is the subject least addressed in the period. Table 2 shows the distribution in these categories.

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Table no. 2 – Number of research on teacher education per categories – 1987 to 1996.

Among the courses covered in initial education are the teacher-training high-school courses with 130 investigations, the degree courses with 75 and the pedagogy course with 31. There are 6 technical education courses, 6 for higher education, 3 comparative studies, 52 continuing education and 39 teacher identity and professionalization.

The subjects investigated in the initial education courses are multiple and cover pedagogical contents (teaching practice, didactics, teaching practice, teaching structure and functioning, education psychology, teaching mathematics methodology, Portuguese language methodology, science methodology); specific contents (physics, swimming, body expression, folklore, linguistics, space notion, number concept, toxicology, history of mathematics); methodology (science and knowledge relation, interdisciplinarity, rigorous test, textbook); teacher (method, conceptions, good teachers, teaching practice, good teachers); students (profile, learning, knowledge production, representations, life history); course evaluation and fundamentals conceptions.

As for the investigated courses, the studies cover all offered courses: mathematics, history, physical education, foreign language, Portuguese language, biology, physics, chemistry, psychology, sciences and the arts.

Research on continuing education focuses on in-service training, courses and proposals, and pedagogical practice. In teacher identity and professionalization the working conditions, conceptions of the profession, trade unions, gender, professional identity and cultural practices and knowledge are investigated.

3.2 THE PERIOD FROM 1997 TO 2006

Then all the directives for the degree courses are approved and the period ends with the approval of the National Directives for the Pedagogy Course in 2006.

The number of theses and dissertations increased significantly due to the expansion of postgraduate programs reaching a total of 2,177 research items in teacher education, distributed in 518 theses and 1,659 dissertations. Table 3 shows the distribution per year.

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<td>1997</td>
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<td>38</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>188</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>189</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>225</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>189</td>
<td>250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>319</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>269</td>
<td>344</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In relation to the research groupings in categories: initial education totals 768 theses and dissertations; continuing education 1,141; and teacher identity and professionalism 268. In this perspective, continuing education became more prominent among research after 2001. Table 4 shows the distribution:

Among the most researched subjects during the period from 1997 to 2006 are those that deal with the initial teacher education related to knowledge about curriculum development, course reformulations and course subjects too. The subjects of the courses are recurrent: they deal with the disciplines of Pedagogical fundamentals, disciplines directed to Didactics - such as teaching methodologies, teaching practices and internship, and disciplines related to teaching modalities such as early childhood education.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Initial education</th>
<th>Continuing education</th>
<th>Teacher identity and professionalizatio</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>188</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>189</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>225</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>319</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>344</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>254</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>417</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>768</td>
<td>1,141</td>
<td>268</td>
<td>2,177</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As for the investigated courses, there is research on all degrees, with emphasis on the degree in pedagogy, mathematics and physical education. Regarding the same category, it can be listed the studies that deal with the methodology implemented in the course as the issues of learning assessment and the difficulties of students. Recurrent studies since the late 1990s cover ICT information and communication technologies, where studies about the use of the computer by the teacher, specific learning using technology, both in special education and in distance education, are frequent.

In the category of continuing education, projects between university and education secretaries, evaluation of continuing education courses, individual initiatives of researchers developing research-action projects with restricted groups of teachers can be highlighted, as pointed out by Brzezinski (2004).

It is also worth pointing out in the category identity and teacher professionalization the studies on teacher knowledge, in which the emphasis is on the content, that is, what knowledge is elaborated by the students and teachers throughout the course and the studies about the knowledge necessary to the teaching practice.

3.3 THE PERIOD FROM 2007 TO 2017

The research on theses and dissertations on teacher education totals 8,185 distributed in 1,752 theses, 5,906 dissertations of academic masters and 527 dissertations of professional masters. Table 5 shows the distribution of the research by level and modality in each year in the period from 2007 to 2017.
The distribution by category indicates a volume of extended research in continuous education totaling 4,254, a constant number in initial education amounting to 2,933 and with a lower number in the identity category with 998. The increase in continuing education may be related to the implemented programs in this period, especially in the last years. Table 6 shows the number of investigations per category in each year.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Initial Education</th>
<th>Continuous Education</th>
<th>Teacher identity and professionalization</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>331</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>499</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>326</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>573</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>298</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>516</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>199</td>
<td>287</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>557</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>255</td>
<td>273</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>592</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>234</td>
<td>309</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>626</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>364</td>
<td>298</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>748</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>360</td>
<td>402</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>855</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>332</td>
<td>489</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>920</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2016</td>
<td>378</td>
<td>549</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>1,076</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2017</td>
<td>312</td>
<td>692</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>1,152</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2,933</td>
<td>4,254</td>
<td>998</td>
<td>8,185</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table no. 6 Number of research on teacher education per categories – 1997 to 2006

During this period, the initial education category includes, besides the areas of knowledge, research considering the modalities of teaching, teacher education for: childhood education, elementary education, high school, inclusive education, literary, rural education, indigenous education, quilombola education, hospital education, inmate education. Research continues on specific subjects such as didactics and teaching methodologies, as well as much research on internship. Specific research such as the use of compendia, softs, reading teacher education, researcher, reflective, education in practice communities were also noted. It is worth highlighting the research on PIBID - Institutional Program of Teaching Initiation - strengthening the valorization of the university-school relationship and practice education.

Distance learning education is researched in both initial and continuing education. Other issues are also addressed in the two stages of education such as environmental education, political and critical education, human rights education, interdisciplinarity.

In continuing education, training programs are the subject of research and, at the end of the period, those related to the programs implemented by government agencies.

Regarding teacher identity and professionalization, studies have been located on career, working conditions, professional development, teacher identity, teacher health, cultural education, and teachers' beliefs. One of the topics that has taken center stage concerns the beginner teacher.

Among the subjects that pertain to these categories, research was identified on education policies, teacher education, teacher education in higher education, the relationship between the teacher and the school and teacher communities.
3.4 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In theses and dissertations from 1987 to 2017, the research methodology is mostly in qualitative approach. The percentages presented in table 7 allow us to indicate that epistemology highlights diagnostic research based on data surveys from the research field through interviews, questionnaires and focus groups, as expressed in the table’s percentages. Some research seeks to carry out a dialectical Marxist analysis from the collected data. There is much research from the ethnographic, biographical and narrative perspectives from the phenomenological perspective.

Regarding the type of study, the case studies, experience reports and practice research are the ones that stand out the most. The research-action is carried out with frequent percentages, around seven to eight per cent over the examined period.

Theoretical research based on bibliographic review and historical research is carried out throughout the period, and systematic reviews appear as from 1997, but infrequently, as indicated by the percentages.

The proposal analyses and material validation are less frequent, as are survey type research that involves a large number of investigated subjects. Less often documentary research appears and speech analysis with less than one per cent.

Study types that had variation these years are experimental research that was more frequent from 1987 to 1996 and then it decreases. Research that was not carried out in this first decade and that emerge in the following decades: narrative analysis, representation analysis, biographical, collaborative, with images, with discussion group, focus group and systematic reviews research. The quantified data can be seen in table 7 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Content analysis</td>
<td>0.9%</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
<td>2.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Testimonial analysis</td>
<td>14.2%</td>
<td>6.1%</td>
<td>9.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discourse analysis</td>
<td>0.4%</td>
<td>0.3%</td>
<td>0.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Narrative analysis</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
<td>3.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practice analysis</td>
<td>6.1%</td>
<td>3.9%</td>
<td>4.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proposal analysis</td>
<td>4.7%</td>
<td>2.8%</td>
<td>3.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Representation analysis</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.8%</td>
<td>3.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case analysis</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>11.6%</td>
<td>11.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Documental analysis</td>
<td>1.7%</td>
<td>1.4%</td>
<td>1.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biographical research</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3.6%</td>
<td>5.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaborative research</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
<td>3.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Image research</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.1%</td>
<td>1.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compared research</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
<td>0.1%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discussion groups research</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1.6%</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnographical research</td>
<td>1.6%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>4.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental research</td>
<td>13.3%</td>
<td>0.8%</td>
<td>1.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Historical research</td>
<td>6.2%</td>
<td>3.6%</td>
<td>5.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Longitudinal research</td>
<td>0.1%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theoretical research</td>
<td>5.2%</td>
<td>8.6%</td>
<td>8.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research-action</td>
<td>7.1%</td>
<td>7.3%</td>
<td>7.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focus group research</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.6%</td>
<td>5.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience report</td>
<td>10.3%</td>
<td>7.1%</td>
<td>6.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Systematic review - State of the art</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Survey</td>
<td>3.1%</td>
<td>1.8%</td>
<td>2.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Material validation</td>
<td>0.6%</td>
<td>0.4%</td>
<td>0.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table no. 7: Study types percentages grouped from 1987 to 2017
4. DISCUSSION

Teacher education is a field of research concern in the last decades as expressed in the volume of defended theses and dissertations. Marcelo (1999), when discussing the composition of subjects in the field of teacher education, emphasizes the theory of education as an important category to be examined in the studies, however analyzed research in this study indicate that this is one of the less prominent points. Thus, the recommendation that this category be considered in future studies.

A second reading of the research indicates that in the period from 1987 to 1996, there is an intensification of research on course curricula and disciplinary content, but with little examination of the relationship between courses and teaching education in schools. As Brzezinski (2004) points out, the perspective of technical rationality is present in this period and in the subsequent period there is a practical rationality and it can be seen that this perspective is accentuated in the last examined period - 2007 to 2017.

Research addresses the initial education distinct from continuing education, each stage of education is seen separately from the other, especially in the early period research; more at the end of the period the research begin to configure the education of the continuous way, as education is understood like articulated and continuous development. Education is a constant construction that involves challenges, conflicts and learning, constituting a process of practice, experiences and knowledge elaboration that favor the teacher a professional practice that results in a better learning of the students while at the same time raising the professional status of the teacher.

In the research examined in the period from 1997 to 2006, many issues arise related to the issues of educational contexts such as technologies, diversity, Special Education. Much research has focused on these issues by broadening understanding on the coverage of teaching performance. A second perspective directs the discussion about policies for teacher education and processes.

Research on teacher education from 2007 to 2017 seems to choose a range of broad issues: teaching from teacher education to young children to teacher education to higher levels such as postgraduate educators, as well as all modalities, areas, disciplines, contents and themes.

Research that deals with teachers' working conditions, examining the professional devaluation, health conditions, struggles for the improvement of the career and the professional status of teachers, although few.

The research that analyzed and evaluated the programs promoted by government agencies, sponsors and specialized institutions in teacher education stand out, and in them the modality of Distance Education in both initial and continuing education.

5. FINAL CONSIDERATIONS

Once having verified the elevated number of the period research, it is important to note that this study presents an introductory mapping of the subjects addressed without exhausting a discussion about the research methodologies and, given the limit of the text, without mapping in detail the quantitative of the subjects. This may be the goal of further studies. In addition, some subjects dealt with several descriptors, which require constant review and categorization, making new reviews necessary. The total number of theses, academic dissertations and dissertations of professional masters (inserted as of 2012) that approached teacher training totals 10,704 from 1987 to 2017.

Regarding the methodology developed in the research, the study indicates that the approach is predominantly qualitative. As pointed out above there is predominance in research based on case studies, testimonials and questionnaires, research-action, experience reports and practice analysis. There are studies that were expressed intense in the period as experimental research that decreases and other type of research that appears decades later such as narrative analysis, representations, biographical and collaborative research. Among the research instruments, interviews, observations and documentary studies are frequently employed and most recently focus groups and the use of technological resources, as well life history.

In terms of scope, most studies are local, and there are many studies that consider an institution, a course, a discipline, and few studies are statewide and national.

In conclusion, even though provisionally, this study allows us to highlight the relevance of research in teacher education considering the range of covered subjects, the richness of the methodological processes involved in the studies. The set of studies favors deepening the understanding of the theory of educational and professional development contributing to an epistemology in teacher education.
REFERENCES.


PROMOTING INCLUSIVE EDUCATION IN PALESTINIAN FORMAL EDUCATION CONTEXT.

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ABSTRACT: In cooperation with Educaid, an Italian NGO, and the Palestinian Minister of Education and Higher Education (MoEHE) is working on a series of international cooperation projects in Palestine (2017-2018) to support the development of inclusive practices in the Palestinian national school system. The paper intends to describe a project that was implemented in 6 schools in the districts of Hebron and Tubas. An “Index for Inclusion and Empowerment” was developed, adopted by the MoEHE and implemented in those very schools. The concept of empowerment was included as a reaction to welfarism, and to support an approach that supports children and youngsters to actively participate in their own development as students and as citizens of the communities they live in. In line with this, the project was developed using a bottom-up approach through an action research process that involved all stakeholders.

This paper presents an overview of the projects with a focus on stakeholders’ perceptions and impact on practices.

KEYWORDS: Inclusive Education, Index, Inclusion, Empowerment, Palestine

1. THE PALESTINIAN CONTEXT.

Palestine is a land of exclusion where everyone lives a situation of vulnerability determined by the economic, political, social climate and affecting access to basic rights. “The occupation denies Palestinians control over basic aspects of daily life, whether they live in the Gaza Strip or in the West Bank, including East Jerusalem. (…) with no end in sight, (it) cultivates a sense of hopelessness and frustration that drives continued conflict and impacts both Palestinians and Israelis” (OCHA, 2017, p.1). Around 5 million of people are suffering from occupation, 2 of them in need of humanitarian protection. Exclusion for them means restrictions to their freedom of movement and no access to water, land, health and education.

After the Oslo accord of 1995, the Palestinian territories are divided into three zones: Area A (under Palestinian control), Area B (mixed control) and Area C (under Israeli control). In Area C there are several Israeli settlements (colonies) and military bases, as well areas used for military exercises (even near schools): living conditions for Palestinians, who in this area have no right to build, expand and develop new homes or use land resources, are very difficult, precarious and conditioned (Beinin, 1999).

In Palestine there are public schools managed by MoEHE (Ministry of Education and Higher Education), UNRWA (the United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East) and private schools (registered and monitored by MoEHE), with nearly 3,000 schools and a population of about 1 million 2 hundred students (PCBS, 2017): these 3 kind of schools have different organizational, financial and structural systems. There are an equal number of boys schools (and male teachers), girls school (and female teachers) and co-educational schools (mixed). Every year UNCT (The United Nations Country Team) reports a high number of violations and incidents between Palestinian students and teachers and Israeli soldiers and settlers.

“These incidents are impacting children’s safe access to education. Incidents of interference in schools by Israeli Forces, demolitions, threats of demolition, clashes on the way to school between students and security forces, teachers stopped at checkpoints, and the violent actions of Israeli forces and settlers on some occasions, are impacting access to a safe learning environment and the right to quality education for thousands of Palestinian children” (UNCT, 2019).

Due to these stress conditions, students have difficulties in learning achievements. There is a lack of a sufficiently qualified process of training and selection of educational personnel; many teachers are not motivated to carry out their profession also in consideration of low economic and social
recognition; the prevalent educational model is transmissive and extremely vertical, allowing teachers to control and manage the classroom limiting cooperation, collaboration and freedom of expressions of each students. In addition to this, some schools are not accessible to disabled children, either for architectural and cultural barriers.

The conjuncture of all these elements does not allow the Palestinian school system to offer adequate answers to the different types of needs and difficulties of the students. For these reasons, there are also many students (around 2% during primary school) not attending schools or early leaving the school system: at the age of 15 years, 25% of boys and 7% of girls are already out of school (UNICEF, 2018).

Since 2015, the MoEHE has adopted a “Palestinian Inclusive Education Policy” following principles recognized at the international level: in 1994 it joined the UNESCO Education for All initiative and in 1997 adopted the inclusive education as “a philosophy that cares for all students, particularly those who are marginalized without discriminating on the basis of gender, difficulty or disability” (MoEHE, 2015, Foreword by the Minister). In this context, inclusive education is “education that does not exclude any student irrespective of difficulty, disability, gender or colour, while taking into consideration individual differences and responding to individual needs” (MoEHE, 2015, Foreword by the Minister). The concept of inclusion adopted does not refer solely to students with disabilities but intends to include all types of differences and disadvantages that can be subject to discrimination and exclusion. This perspective is in line with the one of Unesco (2009), but despite this theoretical framework, Palestinian education system is quite faraway from reaching its goals of “child-friendly learner-centred, flexible approaches to teaching and learning that are able to respond to the needs of diverse learners” (MoEHE, 2015, p.11).

2. THE INDEX FOR INCLUSION AND EMPOWERMENT.

The idea to initiate a process of building an “index for inclusion and empowerment”, of practical use in the specific Palestinian context, is preceded by previous international experiences held by the Education Department of the University of Bologna, particularly in El Salvador. It is also rooted in the Booth and Ainscow (2002) “index for inclusion”, used as a strategic reference operational manual, whose principles are widely shared, particularly in the development of change-oriented processes of social policies and school practices that guarantee successful education for all. These principles were already present in the Palestinian inclusive education policies (2015) but, due to the harsh environmental conditions, hardly implementable in the daily school practices and in the local community’s management.

For all these reasons it’s been preferred a bottom-up methodological choice, in order to promote self-analysis processes aimed to establish the level of inclusivity in the school and in the social context within which it operates. Such analysis was oriented to the design of education pathways, practices and flexible tools useful to encourage inclusive education.

Considering the high level of vulnerability of the communities involved in the project and the critical situation in which teachers and principals operate, the concept of inclusion has been paired with that of empowerment. This choice has been considered essential to provide the Index of indicators that estimate the individual and collective resilience of students, teachers, social workers and the whole communities, in a quality of life enhancing perspective.

During the school year 2016/2017, together with the MoEHE, in the areas of Hebron and Tubas, have been identified the schools and the local education authorities suitable to carry out the action research and cooperation project. The first meetings have been dedicated to the gathering of general information and needs. To do this, it’s been proposed a checklist, prepared by the staff of the University of Bologna, aimed to develop the analytical capacity of the school according to the inclusion paradigm. The checklist, whose first part collects general data about the school’s human and material resources, has been oriented on both sides: of educational activities; and of organization of time, spaces, equipment and other facilities.

In this particular phase of the project, due to limits of time and budget, a top down approach has been preferred in order to stimulate a structured reflection on the main obstacles to inclusion and to assess the strategies already used to overcome them.

The level of awareness reached at the end of this first activity, together with the revision of the collected data, led to the shared construction of the first draft of the Index for Inclusion and Empowerment that’s been used as a diagnostic tool for the planning at the beginning of the following school year.
During the work on designing the Index have been identified four areas of development in which were placed the most significant indicators of inclusion, according to the local context and to the most important emerging needs detected. For every area there are two main sub-areas of intervention and a number of substantial indicators:

1. Guaranteeing personal and group empowerment;
   - Supporting student’s personal empowerment;
   - Supporting social empowerment;
2. Creating inclusive cultures;
   - Building community;
   - Enhancing inclusive values;
3. Producing empowerment and inclusive policies;
   - Developing the school for all and each;
   - Organizing support for diversity;
4. Evolving empowerment and inclusive practices;
   - Orchestrating learning;
   - Mobilizing resources.

During the training and the drafting of the Checklist and the Index, great attention has been given to the interpretation and the adoption of a precise shared definition of key concepts such as: integration; inclusion and empowerment. In fact, since the very beginning of the project activities emerged the problem that, at all levels (MoEHE, Local Education Authorities, single schools), integration and inclusion were used as synonyms and confined to the special educational needs area. Cutting this inappropriate link between these two concepts has been imperative to highlight the most innovative aspects of inclusive education and move the attention form the personal perspective of the learning difficulties to the huge dimension of the obstacles to participation and learning, existing in every social context.

Another great challenge tackled during this project has been the wise choice of the proper terminology in Arabic in order to define a common cultural background and a specific and precise professional vocabulary to sustain the innovation brought by the inclusive perspective. This last aspect of the first designing of the draft of the Index can be considered essential to enable all the subjects operating in the Palestinian school system to autonomously contribute to the future diffusion and development of this tool that has been officially donated to the MoEHE at the end of the action – research activities.

3. A PROPOSAL OF TEACHERS’ TRAINING ABOUT INCLUSIVE EDUCATION.

In the following part of the contribution it will be described the training initiative that the expert team from the Bologna’s Department of Education Studies proposed to two different groups of teachers: the first group was from the district of Tubas and it was composed by 13 teachers coming by three different schools; the second group were 12 teachers coming by three schools from the district of Hebron. Two male schools and one female school per each district were involved and at the training were present both male and female teachers. It is interesting to underline the fact that it is not common that teachers participate to trainings with men and women together: to give an example, in Hebron, a group belonging to an extreme right party tried, without success, to stop the session.

The main goal of the training was to get the participants to understand the meaning of “inclusive education”, of the term “empowerment” and the meaning of the use of the Index for inclusion and empowerment as a pedagogical planning tool. To achieve this objective the team of experts from the Department of Education Studies of Bologna designed a series of trainings structured in two sessions of 3 hours.

3.1 The first session.

The goal of the first session was to make the participants share a common understanding of the terms “inclusion”, “participation” and “empowerment” and it was structured in two parts. The motivation to start with such disambiguation came up from a series of focus group with school principals and MoEHE’s responsibles, held during the first mission of the already described “emergency project”.

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In the first part, teachers have been asked to reflect, through a brainstorming plenary session, and share their representation about some “negative” terms: the reason of such approach was because it was easier and more comfortable to discuss what “exclusion” meant for them and what obstacles to inclusion they face in their practices. The group was asked to brainstorm about three main things: what they meant in general for “exclusion”, what factors could bring to exclusion, and what dangers and consequences exclusion can bring.

In the second part, participants, starting from the results of the previous brainstorming, have been asked to turn in “positive” the concepts, to propose a common definition for the terms “inclusion” and “empowerment” and to identify the resources in their contexts to promote inclusion.

The introduction phase was welcomed by participants with enthusiasm and ended to be extremely useful because it represented one of the few moments where the teachers could express more freely their concerns, the problems, and the difficulties about the contexts they daily work with. Regarding the second part, coming back on concepts already explored in the course of the project, like “inclusion” and “empowerment”, was remarkably important: among the participants it was possible to observe an evident confusion around the definitions of the terms or, for example, on the differences between inclusion and integration. To give an example of this confusion, one of the most shared definitions of inclusion was “integrating students in the learning process” or “focusing on the disabilities”.

3.2 The second session.

The second session main objective was to introduce and reinforce into the audience, the use of the Index for inclusion and empowerment as a pedagogical planning tool. The session was organized in three structured moments where the participants were divided in small groups based on the school’s belonging.

In the first step of the activity, the groups were invited to take the index and choose one of the indicators that represented a priority in their own context: making this choice, fostered the member of the small groups to discuss about the problems of their school and starting identifying the pedagogical needs of their students. In the second step, teachers were asked to start planning an activity to do in their own schools, designed to meet the needs identified in the first step; to facilitate this part, the participants have been provided with a template specifically designed to guide the process.

To better define the activity, the groups where supposed to identify and write:
- the indicators (from the Index) addressed by the activity;
- the objectives of the activity;
- the target group addressed;
- the resources and materials needed;
- the practical arrangements of the room or the preparation;
- the step-by-step procedure;
- the evaluation strategy.

In the third part of the session, the six groups shared their works and feedbacked about the possible replicability of the activity in other’s schools.

Despite the very low quality of the activities, especially in terms of clarity and coherence, one of the most important outcomes from this session reported by the teachers, was the fact that for the first time they could use the index as a practical tool for everyday planning.

As follow up, the principals and the teachers have been asked two main activities: the first was to promote the use of the Index in their contexts and to plan, together, inclusive initiatives that make use of active didactic and students-centered approaches; the second was to provide feedback and revision proposal to the structure of the Index for Inclusion and Empowerment.

4. FIRST RESULTS AND IMPACT ON THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM.

The teachers involved in the activities reported that the experience was useful to them because they got more knowledge about the term inclusion and they started reflecting about the importance of working in inclusive terms rather than only integration terms.

They also acknowledged the importance and the usefulness of the Index as a tool for better reading and understanding the school’s needs.
During the activities, the teachers made some remarks on some critical aspects emerged during the use of the index, that can be ideally divided in two groups: those determined by contextual/external conditions and those determined by human/inner conditions.

Among the first group one can find:

• the fact that the classrooms are too numerous by law (with up to 50 students in some cases);
• the fact that the payment of the teacher doesn’t include extra hours to meet with colleagues and plan activities;
• the context of conflict and violence that interferes with everyday logistic and the mood of the students;
• the lack of economical resources to improve the spaces.

Among the second group one can find these elements:

• the lack of methodologies to work in more informal ways with students;
• the lack of willingness to attend non payed trainings;
• the confusion, still present in the teachers, regarding the concept of inclusion, which is seen only to something related to students with disabilities or with special needs.

The project ended with the delivery of the final version of Index for Inclusion and Empowerment, revised with the feedbacks from the subjects which participated to the training, to the Ministry of Education and Higher Education of the Palestinian Authority. It’s now up to the Palestinian decision makers, teacher trainers, school principals, teachers to develop further inclusive policies, training initiatives, and support of practitioners.

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FACING SOCIAL REALITY TOGETHER: INVESTIGATING A PRE-SERVICE TEACHER PREPARATION PROGRAM ON INCLUSIVE EDUCATION.

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ABSTRACT In order to optimally prepare secondary pre-service teachers for inclusive education, five different teacher training institutes developed a collective inclusion pathway. Through an explorative qualitative research study based on content data and semi-structured interviews, we studied the program’s perceived impact on participating pre-service teachers’ competences with respect to inclusion. The results indicate a positive impact of the program on the participants’ attitudes. Participants also mention that the theoretical frameworks provided, the classroom observations and the teacher conversations helped them to enlarge their knowledge base and feel more confident to change their teaching practice.

KEYWORDS: inclusive education; teacher competences; teacher education

INTRODUCTION

Despite the globally accepted importance of inclusive education (IE), the interpretation of the concept remains ambiguous, varying from ‘inclusion as concerned with disability and special educational needs (SEN)’ to ‘inclusion as a principled approach to education and society’ (Ainscow, Booth, & Dyson 2006). Recent legislation in Flanders (2014) focuses on the first typology that defines IE as the commitment to include students with SEN in mainstream education and is aimed to reduce the current segregated school system. By improving and adapting specific classroom practices to the individual needs of the learner, students with SEN should not only be integrated physically but also included socially (Van Mieghem et al., 2018). Flemish teachers however express a low capacity to address the educational needs of the diverse student population, to collaborate with professionals who provide educational support or in partnership with parents (Bodvin, Verschueren, & Struyf, 2018). Teachers with experience in inclusive and diverse educational settings experience lack of support and a need for coaching. Research on competences of pre-service and novice teachers in Flanders, states that teacher education offers limited preparation for functioning in diverse contexts and that novice teachers lack a sufficient level of competences to function in the complex educational reality.

1. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Teacher Professional development for inclusion

In their review study, Van Mieghem et al. (2018) analysed previous systematic reviews into IE in mainstream primary and secondary education. Professional development was mentioned in four reviews (Kurniawati et al., 2014; Loreman, 2014; Qi & Ha, 2012; Roberts & Simpson, 2016). In order for IE to be implemented, teachers should reconsider their teaching practice. Because many teachers do not feel competent doing this, professional development seems essential to support teachers by providing good practice (Loreman, 2014). Kurniawati et al. (2014) found that effective teacher training programs (i.e. the ones that have positive effects on mainstream teachers) have some common characteristics: (1) the integration of field experiences, (2) the opportunity to have direct and systematic contact with SEN students, and (3) a focus on attitude, knowledge and skills. Training programs focussing on particular student needs were found to be more effective than general training programs. It is therefore suggested that tools and strategies, related to specific teachers’ concerns and their teaching context, are the most helpful and effective in encouraging change in teachers’ practice.
The pre-service teachers inclusion pathway

Taken the above mentioned characteristics into account and in order to optimally prepare pre-service teachers for IE, a highly innovative cooperation of five different teacher training institutes in and around Antwerp (Belgium) developed a collective inclusion pathway embedded in the various secondary teacher education curricula. Its objectives were twofold: allowing students to (1) explore theoretical frameworks in the context of inclusion (i.e. continuum of support, needs-based assessment model, universal design for learning), and (2) gain practical experience. Hereby, collaboration at all levels (students, teachers, teacher educators and school counsellors) is the connecting thread: IE is a matter that concerns all teaching staff. The one-year pre-service teachers’ program consisted of collective sessions, field experiences, and a practical project. During the first semester the teacher educators organised two collective sessions. During the first session, students did some exercises to become aware of their thoughts and visions about diversity and inclusion. They received information on the current Flemish legislation (M-Decree), and relevant theoretical frameworks. They did exercises in classroom observations looking for special educational needs of students and how the teacher responds to these. They were also introduced in the actual professionalisation trajectories in the participating schools and assigned to a school. After the first joint meeting, students went to the participating schools in small groups. They observed in classes and joined the training initiatives within the participating schools. They participated in teacher parent conferences or meetings with the student counsellors where individual student needs were discussed and adaptations for the student were agreed on. In the second collective session students exchanged their experiences, reflected on the good practice they observed, and discussed challenges they had encountered. Suggestions, solutions or ‘next steps’ were formulated collectively. Students were asked to (individually or in group) draft a plan of action to be performed during their own internship and to write an individual reflection on their learning experiences within the inclusion pathway. In the beginning of the second semester students went to the schools for a second time and discussed their reflections and suggestions with the school team. Afterwards they worked on their own project, based on their plan of action. The inclusion pathway ended with a presentation of the student’s projects and what they have learned. They also wrote an individual reflection about how the inclusion pathway contributed to their development as a teacher (at the level of knowledge, skills and attitude).

2. METHODOLOGY

The general goal of the inclusion pathway was to develop pre-service teachers’ competences with respect to inclusion by exploring theoretical frameworks in the context of inclusion and gaining practical experience. This study’s research question therefor is: what is the program’s perceived impact on participating pre-service teachers’ competences (attitudes, knowledge and skills) with respect to inclusion? To answer this question, we set up an explorative qualitative research study based on content data and semi-structured interviews. Written reflections of students halfway (December 2017) and at the end of the trajectory (June 2018) were analysed and semi-structured interviews were conducted near the end of the program (March 2018). The interview guide consisted of questions with regard to the different activities during the inclusion program (collective sessions, participations in school, the practical project) and the student’s competence development (knowledge, skills and attitudes with regard to IE). The interviews and reflections were analysed using thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The interviews were audiotaped and transcribed verbatim. The software program QSR Nvivo 11 was used to analyse the qualitative data. Initial codes were generated across the whole data set and thereafter, gathered under broader codes. Next, the themes were reviewed in relation to the coded fragments and the whole data set, with a thematic map of analysis as a result. The specifics of each theme were refined and certain themes were divided into smaller sub-themes. Finally, vivid quotes from the pre-service teachers were selected. Fourteen pre-service teachers of four teacher training institutes participated in the trajectory and the study (2017-2018), of which nine were females and five were males; three students already had teaching experience. Ten students voluntarily participated in the interviews.
3. RESULTS

The results indicate a positive impact of the program on the participants’ attitudes with respect to inclusion. Especially participants with a rather negative initial attitude experienced a major (positive) change.

‘In the beginning I felt rather sceptical towards IE. I didn’t know what to do and didn’t believe that IE was such a good idea. Now, I start to believe in the possibilities. (…) I see the importance of mingling pupils with and without SEN; it’s not right to separate them from the others, so that they become totally isolated.’ [I_S4, 33-35 and 201-207]

However, the participants also mentioned some concerns. First of all, they realized at the end of the program that turning IE into practice is not straightforward, e.g., if fellow teachers are opposed to inclusion.

‘It is not straightforward to involve all students in an inclusive educational context. It has got a lot to do with the school culture. You have to be willing to change that culture and to let IE happen.’ [I_S10, 194-197] ‘For many teachers there is still a great mind shift needed (…); the realisation of the M-decree urges for a societal mind shift. If society itself thinks in an inclusive way, then IE can become true and everyone can find a place in society based on personal talents and strengths.’ [R_S2, 18-24]

Therefore, some of them express the need for teachers to collaborate with professionals who provide assistance and educational support in the schools.

‘Extra assistance and educational teacher support is necessary, but during the inclusion pathway I saw that this support is not always or not sufficiently available. Many teachers don’t seem to be informed about the external help possibilities.’ [R_S6, 204-217]

Second, participants report a need for more leverage and tools in the current Flemish educational system in order to better anticipate individual student differences.

‘If I see what teachers already do today, I see a lot of potential. But we have to see what is possible, keeping the teachers’ capacity and workload in mind. I believe that IE is only possible if the educational system hands over sufficient tools.’ [I_S3, 245-253]

Participants also mention that the theoretical frameworks provided, the classroom observations and the teacher conversations helped them to enlarge their knowledge base and feel more confident to optimize their teaching practice.

‘I learned a lot from the UDL principles and I try to apply UDL as much as possible in my teaching practice. (…) I have pupils with lower cognitive abilities and I use powerpoint presentations and pictures to offer them structure. I project the instructions in order to help them. Using specific fonts with respect to pupils with dyslexia is one of the UDL principles I also keep in mind.’ [I_S8, 208-210 and 188-192]

Participation in the inclusion program was very useful to them, especially the practical part that allowed them to experience IE in the classroom.

‘I was so impressed by the way teachers support their pupils. I learned a lot from the observations in the classroom.’ [I_S1, 188-191] ‘I observed SEN pupils who participated together with their peers. I saw teachers making the effort to support their pupils. Seeing that was very motivating for me; it gave me confidence that in the end I’ll manage.’ [I_S4, 18-21]

Most students now feel more confident that they will manage establishing IE due to their positive attitude towards IE and the fact they enlarged their knowledge base.

4. DISCUSSION

In order to optimally prepare secondary pre-service teachers for IE, five teacher training institutes developed an inclusion pathway. Through an explorative qualitative research study based on content data and semi-structured interviews, we studied the program’s perceived impact on participating pre-service teachers’ competences with respect to inclusion. The results indicate a positive impact of the program on the participants’ attitudes with respect to inclusion. Especially participants with a rather negative initial...
attitude experienced a major (positive) change. Participants also mention that the theoretical frameworks provided, the classroom observations and the teacher conversations helped them to enlarge their knowledge base and feel more confident to change their teaching practice. Participation in the inclusion program was very useful to them, especially the practical part that allowed them to experience IE in the classroom. Few students made an immediate transfer to their own teaching practice. However, most students mention they are confident that they will manage establishing IE due to their positive attitude towards IE and the fact they enlarged their knowledge base. These results are in line with de Boer, Pijl, and Minnaert (2011) who state that positive attitudes of teachers are related to their experience with IE. Besides, earlier research of Sharma, Forlin and Loreman (2008) shows that investing in training that responds on inclusive educational challenges results in a positive influence on the attitudes of pre-service teachers towards IE.

5. CONCLUSIONS
The results of this study agree on the common characteristics for effective teacher training programs indicated by Kurniawati et al. (2014): (1) focus on attitude, knowledge and skills, (2) direct contact with SEN students with a focus on their specific student needs, and (3) integration of field experiences.

REFERENCES
ABSTRACT The present study focuses on general education and specialization teachers' views about their professional cooperation in the new Greek primary school structure with a reformed comprehensive curriculum. In this structure, the academic subjects are taught by general education teachers whereas the Arts, Physical Education, ICT and Foreign Languages are taught by teachers specialized to teach them. It is based on the social network theory where teacher cooperation refers to teachers' cooperative work concerning teaching and student guidance/support and cooperation at educational school councils or meetings for a variety of issues. The different expertise of general and other specialization education teachers has a great potential for supporting student learning processes as well as for facilitating changes in classroom practices. This study employs a qualitative research approach in order to highlight further the ongoing literature on teacher professional cooperation so as to deliver a holistic, interdisciplinary and comprehensive curriculum in the class. The participants were 160 primary school teachers who answered to a semi-structured interview guide. From the outcomes, it is evident that teachers view cooperation amongst them mainly as the support, conciliation, security, companionship, sharing, respect, acceptance of different views, common targets they may express, the systematic problem solving approaches they can apply, the effective communication and exchanging ideas about school issues. Teachers also reported that they can cooperate amongst them as long as people are open minded in cooperation and they are pedagogically competent. Teachers' major concerns about the effectiveness of cooperation are: teacher personality, educational philosophy and workload.

KEYWORDS: teacher cooperation, primary school, general education teacher, other specialization teacher

INTRODUCTION

Cooperation is regarded as human interaction which concludes in common results, decisions or actions for specific goals. Under such framework, schools are considered as collective organizations where all participants work for common goals. Teachers' cooperation is affected by the school policy or its geographical position and by teachers' predisposition or interest to cooperate in school councils in order to cover students' needs (Grangeat & Gray, 2007).

Teacher cooperation is a multilevel and a multifaceted process. It is essential for the school's wellbeing and it may include teachers’ support or guidance for issues about students' progress, learning or behavioral problems and school bureaucratic topics (Jurkowski & Muller, 2018). In Greek schools, since 2010, there are teachers of different professions such as Foreign Languages, Physical Education, Music, ICT, Fine Arts, etc. This situation provides opportunities to promote implementation of new ideas or pedagogical/teaching practices and to learn from each other (Briscoe, & Peters, 1997), but this model of cooperation has not been investigated to its full potential yet [Ministry of Education Affairs, Lifelong Learning and Religious Studies (MEALLRS), 2010]. Previous research has investigated cooperation models, such as co-teaching dyads in the same class (Solis et al., 2012; Strogilos & Tragoula, 2013) or teacher groups in a school community (Hindin et al., 2007). In 2010, Greek Ministry of Education Affairs proposed and put into practice, pilot structures in 800 primary schools across the country, where the school day started at 8:10 and finished at 14:00 for all children and then from 14:00 until 16:00 the afternoon school zone for children whose parents were full time workers. In the morning school zone, from Year 1 to Year 6, students were taught all academic subjects by their general teachers and non academic ones by specialization teachers. In the afternoon school zone, students experience extra curriculum activities and study. Now, based in this pilot structure, since 2016, the school day’s duration is from 8:15 until 13:15 and afternoon school zone starts 13:15 until 16:00 as previously. Based on this structure, schools were meant to implement an integrated curriculum alongside their subjects (MEALLRS, 2010) with cross curricular aspects so as their students to construct...
a whole picture of provided knowledge experiencing its continuity and coherence instead of separate parts of it.

The present study explored teachers’ views about their professional cooperation regarding teaching in primary school classes with a reformed comprehensive curriculum. Teachers in this study were divided into (a) general education who teach all the academic subjects such as Language (mother tongue), Mathematics, Science, History, Geography, Religious Studies and (b) teachers who teach Foreign Languages or the so-called non academic subjects such as Physical Education, Music, Fine Arts, Drama Education and ICT. The different expertise of general and other specialization education teachers has a great potential for supporting student learning processes. However, they can differ in their attitudes towards education, their understanding about teaching and learning, or their views about their responsibilities in primary school classes in Greece (Kaldi et al., 2018).

1. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Teachers’ cooperation, as a pattern of social relationship is based on social network theory investigating social interactions within school context (Daly & Finnigan, 2010; Daly et al., 2010). According to the social network theory, there are key assumptions which indicate that school provides the ground for an interdependent social interaction at multiple levels and that social networks develop between a school’s staff and/or amongst staff of different schools (Moolenaar, 2012).

Teacher cooperation is considered not only as a process but also as an outcome. It occurs when two or more teachers try to solve complex problems together which could not solve on their own. As an educational process, it needs consensus in common task discussion and in roles assignment. It is also regarded as an educational outcome because the endeavor has tangible impact in the whole class or school.

Pre-service student teachers usually cooperate more often than in-service teachers in practice. However, when they cooperate, they can design, plan, implement, assess and reflect teaching practices together as a teacher community (Kruse & Bryk, 1994; Lieberman & Grolnick, 1997; Grossman et al., 2001). Previous research in Greek pilot structures of primary schools with a reformed curriculum has revealed that there are still further steps to be taken in order to reach their initial objectives and be a successful school organization structure (Grollios & Liampas, 2012; Papadimas, 2014) which incorporate cross curricular and cooperative actions, as proposed.

Thus, the aim of the present study is to explore teachers’ views about professional cooperation levels between general education teachers and other specialization teachers. Also, this study aims to highlight further the ongoing literature on teacher professional cooperation from the perspective of common and agreed teaching practices in order (a) to deliver a holistic, interdisciplinary and comprehensive curriculum and (b) to improve professional teaching practice amongst teachers who teach in one class so as to address students’ progress.

2. METHODOLOGY

The present study is a qualitative research being part of a larger research project concerning Greek primary school teachers’ views about their cooperation levels about teaching practices and more generally in the teaching profession.

The research questions of the study are shaped as follows:

1. What are Greek primary school (general and specialisation) teachers’ reports about cooperation levels concerning teaching?

2. Which challenges affect general and specialization teacher cooperation?

The research instruments used were open ended questions as a part of a larger questionnaire. The questions were based on the literature about teacher cooperation. Three hundred (300) questionnaires were sent to in-service primary school teachers working in these new school structures from different regions of Greece (central Greece, south mainland and Greater Athens area) during winter of 2015 and spring 2016. 209 were returned and only 160 participants had replied the five open-ended questions. Amongst them 102 were general education class teachers and 58 specialization education teachers.
Thematic analysis was applied and was constructed on two successive levels. The first one was the formation of thematic categories and subcategories and the second one was the cross-tabulation of the unit of discourse analysis to the thematic categories. Finally, three main thematic categories occurred: (a) meaning of teacher cooperation and communication, (b) colleagues with whom teachers cooperate most and (c) challenges in teacher cooperation.

3. RESULTS

From the data analysis it is evident that teachers reported cooperation amongst them mainly as the support, conciliation, security, companionship, sharing, respect, acceptance of different views, common targets they may express, the agreed problem solving approaches they can apply, the effective communication and ideas exchange about school issues as a team.

The participant teachers indicated that they co-operated mostly (a) in implementing joint project-based learning and/or school cultural events / school festivals and (b) in facing pupil behavioural and learning issues especially in difficult family situations. Teachers also reported that they can cooperate best with colleagues who are open minded in cooperation and they are pedagogically competent. They also stated that they preferred mostly teachers of the same specialization, or teachers with whom they co-exist in the same school for many years, or with whom they share common educational and life beliefs. Few general education teachers referred to a cooperation with other specialization teachers who teach Foreign Languages, Physical Education, Music, Fine Arts, Drama Education and ICT. An important issue raised by the general class teachers was that the specialization teachers (as presented above) often lack pedagogical knowledge thus, they need support in order to face classroom management issues.

Teachers major concerns about the effectiveness and challenges of teacher cooperation are: teacher personality, teacher educational philosophy, workload, school policy and timetable set for cooperation.

4. IMPLICATIONS/DISCUSSION

Although teachers in the present study show an understanding of teacher cooperation and its benefits for students and school life, they can acknowledge restrictions and challenges. Important restrictions appear to be the specialization teachers’ limited pedagogical knowledge which does not foster an expected co-operation level by all participants in a school community as well as the personality of a teacher and the familiarity with each personality in a school. However, when they cooperate and share knowledge and practice, they can experience professional satisfaction. Subsequently, school can act as a learning community for all participants as proposed by Grossman et al. (2001). It is important to note that teachers in the present study appeared to co-operate with colleagues whom are familiar with or share common experiences and beliefs regardless of their specialization, a fact that explains the necessary first steps to be taken for a further professional co-operation, as reported in previous research (Grollios & Liampas, 2012; Papadimas, 2014). Furthermore, participant teachers’ major concerns about co-operation amongst them indicates that there is a need for common task discussion and roles assignment for co-operation as an educational process in order to become an educational outcome as well. Therefore, educational policies should provide the ground and the motives for a sound teacher cooperation in order to deliver an interdisciplinary curriculum and promote in this way professional development.

5. CONCLUSIONS

This study showed that even though teachers can acknowledge the elements and benefits of teacher cooperation however they have not reached a level of an effective collaborative social network in their profession as suggested by Moolenaar (2012). Moreover, teacher cooperation should be further promoted in the Greek educational system so as to benefit teachers, students, schools, curricula and local community.

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SECTION 2

TECHNOLOGY AND OPEN EDUCATION
IN INVOLVING STUDENTS IN THE DESIGN OF TRANSMEDIA LEARNING ACTIVITIES

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ABSTRACT This paper draws upon a novel approach of using transmedia to improve the learning skills of the students in the “Spiru Haret” high school, Chisinau, the Republic of Moldova. The Transmedia Learning Project contributes to a better understanding of how students are consuming, producing, sharing, creating and learning in digital environment using video-contents. The aim of the project is to involve students in creating educational contents meant to complement the learning process. Every video tells a story with challenges and helpful tips along the way, thus amounting to student’s understanding of the subject. The Transmedia Learning Project has proved an efficient solution to create suitable learning contents, as it offers a powerful new way to learn more effectively and, consequently, develop students’ ICT skills contributing to their digital literacy. The results of implementing this project gained so far have stimulated teachers from our high school to change their teaching methodologies due to the possibility to create digital contents involving students’ communities.

KEYWORDS: transmedia learning, learning skills, creating content, teaching-learning.

INTRODUCTION

Advances in information and communication technology and the changes that come with that have added to the challenges in the field of education. The students living in this time of transformation often face increasingly ineffective learning models that need to be reviewed, changed, or replaced. The major issues that the system of education in the Republic of Moldova has been facing in the last decades are as follows: the need to update the curricula, the demand to modernise the contents and the didactic approaches, a change determined by the constant evolution and transformation of information technology.

The students know very well how to deal with technology, efficiently exploring the media and their transfer information tools. The Internet is their main source of information and entertainment and provides them with a varied range of video tools that can be used as learning activities. Therefore, transmedia learning is an important element in the educational environment offering many new ways for devising learning contents. In this context, The Transmedia Learning Project has been launched in the “Spiru Haret” lyceum, Chisinau, the Republic of Moldova. The project aims to improve students’ learning skills, thus offering to educators a better understanding of how students are consuming, producing, sharing, creating, and learning in digital environment. As a schoolteacher of computer science, I have acknowledged the role of transmedia learning in education and the importance of the producing and consuming effective video-contents involving students in the teaching-learning process.

1. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Transmedia is an emerging form of creating contents using different media and it is successfully used for transmedia storytelling experience (Ciastellardi, 2013), where the elements of a fiction are dispersed across multiple delivery channels for creating a unified and coordinated entertainment experience. Ideally, each medium makes its own unique contribution to the unfolding of the story (Jenkins, 2011). Transmedia learning is an important element in the educational environment, its development and integration should be a priority in order to address modern students’ demands.

Transmedia has been defined in many different ways. The term transmedia was coined by Marsha Kinder in her book Playing with Power in Movies, Television and Video Games, published in 1991 (Kinder, 1991). Later Henry Jenkins published an article entitled Transmedia Storytelling which expanded the concepts dealing
with this form of communication. Transmedia narrative develops across many media platforms, with each new text adding in a different and valuable way to the whole. It represents a new kind of relationship between the receptors and the convergence of media platforms, requiring not only their participation but also the relationship between the agents (Jenkins, 2007, 2009).

Gradually transmedia storytelling has been integrated in the field of education as a new teaching method, the concept of which generally denotes the same as in the field of communication. According to Gosciola and Versuti (2012), transmedia storytelling is basically a long story consisting of different parts. The most important of these is the main story, which does not tell the whole plot because it has to be complemented with additional stories. Each of these stories is rendered by means of different communication tools. Gambarato (2013) treats transmedia storytelling as a widespread story, involving the attention of the public, as it offers a different view of how the world is constructed, unfolding the content and generating possibilities for the story to develop with new and relevant details.

Following Lima (2014), transmedia storytelling is a means of presenting academic content in a manner that attracts students, thus combining education and entertainment and aligning to the Open Educational Resources. This view is also held by Gosciola and Versuti (2012) who consider transmedia storytelling as a unique option for telling complex stories due to the high level of interaction between the subjects involved in the communication process.

2. METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH

The Republic of Moldova experiences continuously increasing ICT skills gap and a low level of digital literacy. Since a large part of the population does not possess the necessary learning competences, knowledge and digital skills throughout their lives, that have become nowadays something ordinary for the population of many countries, it reduces our country’s opportunities to participate in the global digital economy (National Strategy for Information Society Development Digital Moldova 2020, 2012). In this way, The Transmedia Learning Project implemented in “Spiru Haret” lyceum helps to develop students’ ICT competences contributing to their digital literacy.

Moldovan teachers acknowledge the need to enhance their digital skills but some difficulties arise: not having enough time to enrich their knowledge about using new technologies in education, scarce suitable learning contents available and limited funding to afford it. In this case, The Transmedia Learning Project is a reasonable solution to fill in some of these gaps. The aim of the project is to involve students, guided by their teachers, in creating educational contents and completing the learning process with videos created by themselves. Every video tells a story with challenges and helpful tips along the way, thus amounting to student’s understanding of the subject. It is important to realize that the way to incorporate storytelling in the process of teaching and learning is very comprehensive and can be adapted to the reality of each location by adjusting the specific methodology and media to convey the story.

The teachers and students’ reasons, goals and motivations should be identified through a questionnaire before and during the implementation stages of The Transmedia Learning Project with the purpose of creating qualitative video-contents. Therefore, a questionnaire was devised and distributed online in order to find out the teachers and students’ opinions about the use of video-contents in the teaching-learning process and conclude about the subjects’ readiness for transmedia learning. Around 55 teachers and 360 students from “Spiru Haret” lyceum, Chisinau, the Republic of Moldova have participated in the questionnaire.

The analysis of the answers have shown that about 87% of the respondents are willing to use video-contents for teaching and learning process and only 48 % from them are eager to learn how to create a video-content as a teaching aid. Asking about what they could recommend to improve the teaching-learning process, one of the students wrote, “Some topics are very difficult and the teacher doesn’t have enough time to explain everything to us and I think it will be better to use video-contents for teaching, I can understand everything very easily but some of my classmates cannot and they are always confused. I think for my classmates the use of video for learning it’s a good solution for understanding better the more difficult topics.” Many students wrote that they could not be involved too much in the activities of the courses because they needed a dipper explanation on some topics. To other respondents, the video-content would offer more knowledge and freedom to control their own learning process, carrying it out at their own pace. This method would benefit students who require more time to understand certain
concepts, giving them the opportunity to review the material without lagging behind and receive immediate assistance from their teachers and classmates.

However, some of the interviewed teachers were very confused about using transmedia in the teaching-learning process. They considered that this method would rather distract students from their learning activities than help them.

Many classes in our school already consist of multiple media streams. In addition to PowerPoint, most courses include textbook readings, homework assignments, outside readings as well as videos and simulations. As educators, our aim is to get students involved in the hands-on learning process. Videos are an instructional medium that is compelling and generates a greater amount of interest and enjoyment. The mission of implementing transmedia learning in the Republic of Moldova is to advance the quality of teaching and learning by developing students’ high digital competences and sharing educational video-contents.

The SWOT analysis of The Transmedia Learning Project in “Spiru Haret” lyceum, Chisinau, the Republic of Moldova yields the following results:

**Strengths**
- Videos increase student engagement, which in turn helps boost achievement. If students are interested in the material, they will better process and remember it;
- Videos offer personalized content in line with the national curriculum;
- Flexibility in time and location:
  - Personal learning schedule;
  - Concept clarity, as everything can be visualized and explained in detail;
  - Efficient for visual learners;
  - Interest maintenance for longer periods of time;
  - Innovative and effective means for educators to address and deliver the required curriculum content;
  - A flexible teaching medium that ensures interactivity during the learning session as each video can be stopped and students can be challenged to predict the outcome of a demonstration and elaborate on, or debate a point;
  - Videos create experiences through the opportunity to recreate voices, faces, situations of a past event, person or place;
  - They are highly informative, as videos give instance notes that can be visualized.

**Weaknesses**
- Playing video can use a lot of the bandwidth and may be time consuming;
- Some teachers are reticent about using video-contents;
- Internet connections speed;
- It is hard and time consuming to create quality videos;
- Requires learners’ self-management and self-discipline.

**Opportunities**
- It involves students in the presentation of the curriculum content;
- It creates a contemporary learning environment for promoting effective learning;
- It provides a well-structured meta-data;
- It offers opportunities for individual and collaborative learning.
- Many videos now contain analytic features that enable teachers to track students’ engagement and attendance while viewing.
- The method provides opportunities for student’s feedback and assistance through video, which can be helpful for students who are unable to attend classes, or who need tutoring or review sessions.

**Threats**
- The video could be a distraction if the content is not aligned to the curriculum;
- May cause overdependence on technology;
• Students may experience personal lack of motivation;
• Information overflow;
• Reluctance to accept changes.

The following recommendations are helpful when creating an effective and beneficial educational video-content (Learn Worlds Websites):

1. Limit videos to about five minutes or less, unless you are trying to present a great deal of information.
2. Maintain a conversational and enthusiastic tone to keep learners engaged.
3. Properly balance auditory and visual elements throughout.
4. Break videos into short segments by topic or theme.
5. Include interactive and responsive features, such as a short quiz.

When using video clips in the classroom, shorter clips (around five to 10 minutes) help students learn the information without being overloaded or losing their focus. Longer videos are also effective - however, their total length should not exceed 30 minutes. Displaying video clips in short segments and keeping the total length contained to a concise running time helps to retain viewers’ attention. Using captions and subtitles with videos has also proven effective in helping students’ access and process information.

The use of teaching contents combined with communication and information technologies can be a solution to bring together teachers and students in the processes of teaching and learning, with a view to exploring and sharing the content more effectively.

3. CONCLUSIONS

This paper focuses on the implementation of the transmedia learning method in the Republic of Moldova determined by the need to improve the digital literacy both to students and to teachers. We are in the beginning of this study, but the expectations are promising to achieve important outcomes in the field of the modern interactive process of teaching and learning. Transmedia learning offers a powerful new way to learn more effectively. The results of using this project gained so far have stimulated teachers from our high school to change their teaching methodologies due to the possibility to create digital contents involving students’ communities.

Abstract topics that once seemed difficult to teach and learn are now more accessible and understandable thanks to the availability of educational videos. Presentation sections and other introductory content can be viewed before class and can be accessed at student’s convenience, a fact that allows for more practice and skill-oriented class activities. We are also interested to exchange experiences with other colleagues with similar needs to enrich this project with international collaborations.

Prospective directions in this field involve supplementing The Transmedia Learning Project with Flipped Classroom method and Crowdsourcing Model using GitHub Platform.

REFERENCES


DESIGN OF A MASTER DEGREE MODULE ON THE INTEGRATION OF ICT IN EDUCATION BASED ON EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

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ABSTRACT: The aim of this article is to present the design of a blended learning master degree module aiming to induce innovative exploitation of ICT in science classrooms. The pedagogical framework took into account: i) the European digital competences framework (DigCompEdu); ii) Spiro and colleagues Cognitive Flexibility Theory, since teachers practical Knowledge is considered an ill-structured domain and the deconstruction of academic literature (mainly empirical case based studies) can provide good insight for the transformation of teachers practices; and iii) principles of blended learning. We will review the theoretical base of the master module design and present its organization, thus providing the background of the strategies foreseen but also the concrete planned activities. Finally a preliminary analysis of the module implementation is discussed and future work presented.

INTRODUCTION

Information communication technology (ICT), in particular more recently mobile devices are present in our daily lives. Studies on the use of ICT by students have revealed that they use ICT outside school intensively (see, for instance, Martín-Perpiñá, Viñas & Malo, 2019). Although, there are differences among countries, Poushter (2016, Feb.) state that people in advanced economies are using the internet more and own more high-tech gadgets and the rest of the world is catching up”. Consequently, there is a growing demand to use ICT in the teaching and learning process in order to facilitate the development of the so called 21st century competencies, as digital competencies. This context also requires teachers to develop new competences, in order to integrate ICT in their practices. In the literature there are several professional development framework for the integration of ICT, however it seems uncommon studies carried out in master degree modules (MDM), in African countries, based on theoretical knowledge and empirical results of educational research, as the one presented in this contribution.

The study is a qualitative case study developed in the context of an international collaboration among the University of Aveiro (UA - Portugal) and the ISCED-Huila (Angola). A MDM on the integration of ICT in teaching and learning was designed and constitute a single case study, since the phenomena and the contexts are intertwined (Yin, 2002). The research questions addressed in this contribution are: what research evidences (Q1) and theoretical frameworks (Q2) should guide the design of a master degree blended learning module on the integration of ICT in teaching and learning in Angola and how could they shape a contextualized pedagogical framework (Q3)?

In the following sections, the theoretical bases of the MDM design are presented as well as the module design in itself and its organization, thus providing the background of the strategies foreseen but also the concrete planned activities. Doing that the case study is described making an internal analysis of the MDM materials. Finally a preliminary analysis of the module design, limitations, recommendations and future development are presented and discussed.

1. SETTING THE SCHEME: THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

This section first synthetize the challenges to the integration of ICT in education, identify strategies to promote teachers professional development in the area and present the theoretical frameworks that guided the design of the MDM.

1.1 Challenges to the integration of ICT in education

The exploitation of ICT in educational contexts is a complex issue, since there are many factors that should be addressed. The literature in the domain is extensive (Laurence & Tar, 2018) and shows that these factors can be related with: 1) teachers’ digital skills, attitudes and beliefs concerning the usefulness...
of ICT for teaching and learning, motivation to innovate and perceptions about self-efficacy in using ICT tools for personal and professional purposes and ease to use. According to Gamage and Tanwar (2018) systematic review, teachers’ perceptions concerning the utility of a specific ICT tool are twice as important as their perceptions of the technology ease of use; 2) school and political factors that were organized by Lucas (In Press) in four categories: technology and infrastructures and organization and leadership, at the school level, and content and curriculum and professional development - provision, time allocated, recognition… - at the macro level. The results of the study show that, as for others Portuguese initiatives, the lack of top-down initiatives and thus the lack of investment in creating flexible and innovative physical learning spaces, improving the ICT infrastructure or updating hardware, and the lack of technical support can hinder the integration of ICT in 1:1 project as the one evaluated; 3) the gap between research and teachers’ practices (Dagenais et al., 2012; and van Schaik, Volman, Admiraal, & Schenk 2018). Even though teachers’ practical expertise are essential for their everyday classroom practice, new and innovative teaching practices can benefit from research in that domain. However van Schaik et al. (2018) literature review shows that frequently teachers have problems to make sense of academic knowledge, since their lack competences related with information literacy (information search, selection, organization and dissemination), they have problems to understand the research language and to transfer the research findings to their practices. This factor is particularly relevant for the design of a MDM where students are supposed to synthetize existing literature and plan their research based on academic work.

In Angola, studies on the integration of ICT in Education are scarce, despite the existence of recent political measures reflected, among others, in the equipment of schools with computer labs and in the integration in the secondary curriculum of an informatics discipline, in 2010. Santos (2000) refers that the constraints to the exploitation of ICT in educational contexts are mainly at the level of infrastructures and teacher training. Bunga (2018), in a study carried out in the Namibian region, adds to these factors the lack of experience of using ICTs in educational contexts, since teachers involved in the study used ICTs more for personal tasks than with students in the classroom. The study of Tuti & Batistapau (2018), in a higher education institution, corroborate the same difficulties. The gaps reported above can be reduces through the involvement of teachers in professional development initiatives aiming to build bridges between research and practice, as reported by Albion, Tondeur, Forkosh-Baruch, and Peeraer, (2015). Still in relation to models and strategies to promote teachers professional development in the area, literature reviews, as the one of Tondeur et al. (2012), indicate that those that seem to facilitate innovative practices are based on collaboration, metacognition, blended learning, learning through modelling, authentic learning and the link between theory and practice. To be successful these initiatives should also start from teachers’ needs (Marques, Loureiro e Marques, 2018). Based on the results of Olofsson et al. (2017) those needs encompass, among others, technological aspects, how to use ICT for teaching and learning (as the access to best practices), and collaboration.

1.2 Theoretical frameworks that underline the design of master degree module

The design of the MDM embraced three frameworks. They are synthetically presented in the following paragraph as well as the reasons underlying their choice.

i) The DigCompEdu framework was selected considering that it is a scientifically sound, well-known and accepted framework, which describes what it means to be a digitally competent educator (Redecker, 2017). The focus of the framework is not on technical skills but on how digital technologies can be used to enhance and innovate education and training. It describes 22 competences structured in six areas: professional engagement, digital resources, teaching and learning, assessment, empowering learners, and facilitating learners’ digital competence. The framework provide a reference to the development of contextualized digital competence frameworks and teachers PD initiatives, at all levels of education. In what concerns the MDM, the competences foreseen incorporate elements of the different areas as illustrated in the annex.

ii) Spiro and colleagues Cognitive Flexibility Theory (CFT) informed teacher initial education, namely in the nineteen as reported by Carvalho and Moreira (2005). Recently it was used by Andrade, Coutinho, & Oliveira (2017) and Andrade & Coutinho (2019). Their option seem to be promising since teachers practices are considered an ill-structured domain and the deconstruction of academic literature (mainly empirical case based studies) can provide good insight for the transformation of teachers practices. Very
shortly, the CFT is a theory that aims to facilitate the acquisition of advanced level of knowledge in ill-structured domains as well as its transfer to new situations/problems (Spiro & Jheng, 1990), based on cases. The cases are split into mini-cases to allow their analysis according to different concepts or perspectives (the deconstruction in thematic comments). Crisscrossing a thematic (the objectives of the cases) or a combination of thematic (the ICT tools used to promote a specific objective) allows the analysis in different contexts.

iii) Blended learning has become a mainstream model to guide teaching and learning in different levels of education, in particular in higher education, since it offers the flexibility required by students that have job, family responsibilities (Dziuban et al., 2005), profiles and cultural backgrounds. Although the concept is still ill-defined, blended learning intends to provide an integrated experience delivered partly online, partly in a supervised brick-and-mortar, where students have some control over their learning time, place, path, and/or pace (Christiansen, Horn, & Staker, 2013). From several experience, Pombo, Loureiro, and Moreira (2011), provide guidelines for blended learning. Some of them corroborate the strategies presented in section (1.1) and were considered in the design of the MDM and involve the promotion of metacognition (self and peer assessment); supporting students during the development of the tasks (answering their questions and doubts and giving constructive suggestions); giving students the opportunity to choose the subject of their main work and to plan it, according to their motivations and needs; and, finally, taking the best specific aspects of the mix (social relationships and aspect related to the organization of groups and tasks seems to be facilitated in face to face (f2f) sessions).

2. PROPOSE FOR ACTION – THE DESIGN OF THE MASTER DEGREE MODULE

This session presents the participants in the case study and the MDM design.

2.1 Participants

The module enrolled 78 science teachers, from different Angolan provinces, organized in 13 groups, and two tutors, the authors of the paper (the first with a great experience on the subject thus facilitating the transference of knowledge between the partners institutions (UA and ISCED-Huila). The results of a diagnostic questionnaire showed that the majority had a personal computer and learned to use it by themselves or with colleagues and family. Their attitudes towards the use of ICT were positive, although the majority had not formal training in the area and had low digital skills. The majority indicate that internet searches and the use of a word processor were the most current activities done both to prepare classes and with students (to a less extend). They all were willing to develop their digital skills and competences.

2.2 The design of the master degree module

Considering the theoretical framework (section 1) and the students’ digital skills, in this subsection the design of the MDM is presented. The module was organized in three week (fixed by ISCED-Huila). The first one totally online and the second and the third in blended learning (4 hours f2f section from Monday to Friday). The majority of the activities were supposed to be done in groups hence promoting collaborative work. The next paragraphs describe the idealized organization. Figure 1, in the next section, present what actually occurred and therefore the contextualized framework.

The first week tasks were planned to prepare the ones to be developed during the following two. They should involve individual work (reading the program proposal, initial diagnostic, video washing of material about blogs creation and personalization) and groups work to facilitate the collaborative reconstruction of the theoretical foundation about reflexive portfolios, about the evolution of educational politics for the exploitation of ICT in education and the CFT and setting up a collaborative online working space – the group blog. In the blogs reflexive synthesis of the topics were to be done and each students should do a self-assessment of the different topics (what was learned, the difficulties…) as a comment of the group posts.

During the second and third weeks, the task were related with: 1) practical work that involved the deconstruction of four different cases (research articles describing an intervention using one or more ICT tools) per group in a Google Form, to allow the automatic creation of a database. This database should be used in the following sessions to make the thematic crisscrossing of the cases and thus develop a wider perspective on how to integrate ICT in science education; 2) lesson plans transferring the digital
competencies developed to a real situation (the students’ classrooms). The lesson plans could integrate
the tools explored in the analyzed cases and other resources, namely open educational resources, as
simulations or videos, from educational repositories.

3. ACTION AND REFLECTIONS – CONTEXTUALIZED FRAMEWORK

Figure 1 presents the adaptations that had to be done to the idealized framework. The main difference is
that the conceptualization that was to be developed during the first week was done in the second week
and the practical activities were concentrated in the last one. The time allocated for the task previewed for
the following weeks had also to be extended as described very succinctly below.

From the authors’ point of view, several aspects underline the needed adaptation. Throughout the first
week students self-assessment reflected lack of digital skills (as reported above but also at the level of the
creation of an email), poor personal internet connection and time constrains (all the students were
teachers and during that week they had to fulfill their professional duties). Consequently students accessed
the program and learning materials but they were not able to create the groups and the blogs and work
at a distance to read, synthetize and reflect on the conceptual materials.

Several difficulties were also perceived during the second and third week. The most important for the
realization of the proposed task are also related to the students’ poor digital skills (the preview time to
create the blogs and to do the self-assessments, in the comments of the posts had to be extended) and
the internet connection available at the ISCED-Huila. Additionally, students had difficulties to work with
written research materials to synthetize information during the conceptual phase of the module and to
analyze the cases when doing their deconstruction. For instance, they frequently confused the research
objectives with those of the pedagogical intervention as well as the data gathering instruments with the
assessment instruments. Subsequently it took several cycles of demonstration, discussion and feedback
to overcome this difficulties and the time allocated to crisscross the cases was too short. Other difficulties
concerns the development of flexible lesson plans and the transference of the lessons learned from the
analyzed cases. The majority of the first versions of the lesson plans were to directive and following very
strictly the available cases.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>students</th>
<th>teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>online learning</td>
<td>initial diagnostic materials reading video watching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>outside classroom</td>
<td>group creation materials reading video watching internet searches groups reflections self-assessment peer-assessment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inside classroom</td>
<td>discussion about difficulties, doubts… (classroom, group, individual) tasks development (group blog/google drive) video watching internet searches finishing tasks</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1: Framework of the MDM on ICT integration implemented in the ISCED-Huila
Despite the reported difficulties, from the students’ self-assessments and feedback, during the f2f sessions, it can be inferred that they valorized the module and developed their digital skills and competencies. Although the limitations of this case study, the preliminary analysis confirm the challenges to the integration of ICT in Angolan education settings reported section 1 but they are deeper than expected.

At a first glance, the recommendations emerging from this case encompass: the establishment of good technological infrastructures in educational institutions, in particular internet connection; create more opportunities to increase teachers experience on the ICT integration in their practices (teachers training combining the development of digital skill and competences). These initiatives should also facilitate the relations between theory and practices if innovation is to be attained, which can be facilitated involving teachers in educational research.

The above preliminary reflection will, in the near future, be deepened and triangulated with the students’ perceptions about the module as well as with an analysis of the process and products of the student’s learning documented in their blogs.

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REFERENCES


Annex - Activities and examples of Digital Skills and Competences developed during the module

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Week</th>
<th>Objectives</th>
<th>Activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st week</td>
<td><strong>1.3 Reflective practice</strong> (individually reflect on, one’s own digital skills and pedagogical practice)</td>
<td>• First contact with the proposed didactical approach (available in a Google Drive created for the MMD), registration of questions, doubts and comments • Initial diagnosis using a questionnaire made in GoogleForm -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd week</td>
<td><strong>1.2 Professional collaboration</strong> (use digital technologies to engage in collaborative activities with other educators)</td>
<td>Online • Familiarization with a blog tool through the visualization of videos available in YouTube • Groups were created using familiar communication tools (SMS, FB, WhatsApp, email...) • Access OER about reflexive portfolios and critical synthesis of the main aspect in the group blog • Access de presentation about “ICT in education policies” and read other text about the same topics in other countries, like Brasil, Angola, Cape Vert... and critical synthesis of the main aspect in the group blog • Familiarization with the Theory of Cognitive Flexibility - reading texts and synthesizing the main aspect in the group blog • During the all week - Individually assess the ongoing work and professional development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>1.3 Reflective practice</strong> (individually reflect on one's own digital skills and competences)</td>
<td>Face to face • Launch the group blog to register the activities and reflections as well as self-assess the PD provided by the different tasks, thus creating the group eportfolio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>1.4 Digital Continuous Professional</strong> (use digital sources and resources for continuous professional development)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Digital skills</strong> Use communication tool, access OER, create a group blog</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 3rd week | 1.2 Professional collaboration (use digital technologies to engage in collaboration activities with other educators)  
1.3 Reflective practice (individually reflect on one’s own digital skills and competences)  
1.4 Digital Continuous Professional (use digital sources and resources for continuous professional development)  
2.1 Selecting digital resources (identify, assess and select digital resources for teaching and learning)  
3.1 Teaching (plan the integration of digital devices and resources into the teaching process).  
**Digital skills** Use communication and collaborative tools (GoogleDrive), Internet searches to access OER (videos, images, simulations and other educational software, lesson plans…)… | **Online**  
- Deconstruction of four cases chosen by the group according with their interests using the GoogleForm (https://forms.gle/9g8iSmeBmkxDWPyY5) thus creating a common data base of case studies  
- Crisscrossing the case studies according to the group’s needs (to answer specific questions as, for instance, what ICT tools have been used in Mathematics Education and for what purposes?)  
- Search for OER (3-4) in institutional repositories or others sources to be integrated in two lessons plan. Also search for lessons plan exploring ICT tools  
- Lessons plan development (two each group in GoogleDrive)  
- During the all week - Individually assess the ongoing work and professional development | **Face to face**  
- Presentation about ICT political measures and projects in Portugal (available at: https://pt.slideshare.net/MariaLoureiro1/politicas-tic-em-portugal-seminrio-visita-brasileiros-furg)  
- Analysis of a groups blog and discussion of its content https://grupodebenguela2018.blogspot.com  
- Demonstrations of the deconstruction of one of the case studies (taking into account the Spiro’s TCF) using a common GoogleForm (see the link above)  
- Demonstration about how to crisscross the case studies data base taking into account a specific thematic, for instance what kind of activities can be orchestrated using simulation?  
- Complete the groups’ tasks assigned for the week and reflect about the different topics.  
- Discussions of the difficulties experienced for the development of the assigned activities and formative feedback |
SECTION 3

LEARNING OPPORTUNITIES INSIDE AND OUTSIDE THE CLASSROOM
MEANINGS OF EDUCATION IN NON-SCHOOL CONTEXT: PIANO LEARNING IN HONG KONG

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ABSTRACT The rapid expansion of non-school education in Asian countries drives the need to re-investigate the meanings of education in non-school context. We realize the importance of non-school education which compensates the limitation on qualitative education in the crowded schooling system. Realizing the needs of investigating the meanings of informal education, this research studies piano learning, a common learning activity after school in Hong Kong, to generate insight on the interrelationship between formal and informal education. This essay uses autoethnography, a self-reflective genre of writing, to reflect on private piano education in Hong Kong. Findings are derived from four-year class observation and individual interviews with ten students aged between 6 to 12 years old and their parents. The paper has three focuses: (1) how students learn piano in Hong Kong; (2) what are the parents', students and teacher's expectation of learning piano; (3) how the parent, students, and teachers reflect on piano learning process.

KEYWORDS: autoethnography, informal education, reflective dialogue, meanings of education

INTRODUCTION
Since 1997, the introduction of qualitative oriented approach in educational reforms in Hong Kong arouses great attention on how the learning process reshaped under the intense competitive culture of student achievements. The reforms emphasized on holistic development, leading to the rapid expansion of non-school education for non-academic exposure (Education Commission, 2000, Education and Manpower Bureau, 2004). This drives the need to investigate the meanings of education in non-school context: whether it compensates the limitation on qualitative education in the packed schooling system. To explore the multiple meanings of informal education, this essay uses autoethnography, an innovative methodological genre, to investigate the meanings of learning piano in Hong Kong. The paper has three focuses: (1) how students learn piano in Hong Kong; (2) what are the parents', students and teacher's expectation of learning piano; (3) how the parent, students, and teachers reflect on piano learning process.

1. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK
While education is to transmit knowledge, skills and attitudes to shape the character of less educated people (Gutmann, 1999), the methods and channels of knowledge transmit depends on the social change and demands. For primary level, education, in response to the changing and complex society, also includes other level of skills such as cultural continuity, social interactions in both local and global context (Gutmann, 1999); Cremin (1970) further proposed he transmit of knowledge should not be confined in schools. Instead, beyond schools, non-school institutions should also be counted in the education process. Hence, the meanings of education in non-school context could also be rich and multiple. Richer cultural meanings could be formed in a more holistic sense with the use of Autoethnography (Ellis, 2004). Autoethnography is first suggested to extend one's perception towards the investigation site (Ellis, 2004), in order to connect the personal, cultural, social and political meanings (Behar, 1996; Sidoti, 2015). The researcher moving inward and outward the community for personal disclosures and exploration of other's feelings and stories.

2. METHODOLOGY
The research based on impersonal teaching experience of “myself”: (1) me as the researcher, reflecting the meanings of piano teaching profession in Hong Kong; (2) me as a private piano teacher, first-hand describing the process and the cultural meanings of piano learning among parents and students. Seven pairs of my piano students aged 6 to 12 years old, who have been learning piano for four years, are selected for investigation targets. Class observation is also conducted for one year in weekly routine, lasted for 30 minutes or 45 minutes, depending on the students age and grade level. The observation
focused on the student's reactions, learning behaviours, and teacher-student interaction. Beyond the lesson time, the interaction between the parents and me, the piano teacher, would also be put as part of participant observation.

The seven targeted parent-child pairs were all asked for individual interviews. Even though the interviews were conducted individually, as most of the students aged from 5 to 9 years old, the interviews with students were conducted next to their parents due to safety concern. Some students aged younger or being shy, the response may remain short or even unanswered. The physical existence, or even verbal control of parents may partly influence the students in responding certain questions, especially their feelings towards piano learning and parental influence. Therefore, aside of the individual interview answers, I observed the parental control on children, parent-child relationship during the interviews. Interview content consisted of (1) the interviewee’s description on piano learning process; (2) their personal reflections towards the process; (3) their interpretations towards the meanings of learning piano.

3. RESULTS

Parents are mainly the dominating one determining the learning approach in piano learning process, while the children fulfill parent expectations. Piano teacher act as medium fulfilling the parent expectations and facilitating skillful learning of the piano students. Contradiction consistently exist in parental involvement, affecting the meaning of piano learning process. The parents usually start with qualitative expectations: they only expect happy childhood on their children, with piano learning as additional extra-curricular activities, acknowledging greatly the qualitative benefit of learning piano such as cultivating artistic sense and growing persistent and patient learning attitude. As they did not receive any official music and piano training, they could mostly provide pragmatic assistance towards their children’s piano learning process such as sending the children to music studio, buying all the needed piano textbooks, providing piano at home for further practices. Ironically, under the exam-oriented learning culture, the original intention later becomes pragmatic calculation on proving student ability, overriding the piano learning process. Seeing other students take piano qualification examinations, some parents would worry the competitiveness of their children without taking any examinations. They would start to ask the piano teachers to prepare the piano examinations with their children. The exam and competition preparation are filled with repetitive drilling of scale, songs and examination skills. After the series of competitions and examinations, the parental expectation on interest growing of their children in playing piano thrived again. Despite not knowing the final education outcomes, the parents continue to invest on the children’s tuition fee, expecting the children to be fond of piano and music with certain qualifications. The children try to attain those qualifications to fulfill their parental expectations. The teacher continues to facilitate the learning process and the fulfillment of parental expectation. However, after achieving these expectations, the children may have no clear understanding on where their love in music goes. The original learning interest of the children, after the extensive drilling and technical training, may no longer be the same with the passion they had in their first piano lesson.

4. IMPLICATIONS/DISCUSSION.

From the Chinese Orthodox Confucian perspectives, aimless playing and unrestrained activities are not highly valued in childhood. Instead, since the very young age, children should act with adult seriousness and suppress their childishness in order to bear the social and political responsibilities same as adults (Naftali, 2010). Meanwhile, the introduction of happy childhood challenges the education concepts in Chinese culture, development of Hong Kong school curriculum and the Chinese education outlook.

Hong Kong was once British colony till 1997. Before 1997, the educational schooling policies were basically quantitative. A pyramid structure of education system in Hong Kong was maintained under the colonial rule. Among all the students could receive nine-year free education, only few of them could enter senior secondary education under the screening entrance examination (Hong Kong government, 1978), not to mention tertiary education. Under such policies, the screening culture was encouraged and continued: only the academic fittest could survive in access of the limited seats of higher education. For
those who could not meet the academic requirement had to be screened out under such competitive environment (Mok & Chan, 2002). After the return of sovereignty to China in 1997, the Hong Kong government implemented the qualitative oriented approach. However, the aftermath of cult of efficiency and screening persisted (Mok & Chan, 2002). In 2000, the Reform Proposals for the Education System stressed the importance of holistic growth in the schooling curriculum (Education Commission, 2000). In 2004, the introduction of New Secondary Curriculum changed the assessment on the senior secondary students in their completion of high school education. There is increasing valuation on student’s other learning experiences beyond language and academic subjects (Education and Manpower Bureau, 2004). The senior secondary evaluation system determines the acceptance of the children to good university and prospect, but in order to attain good result, the children have to first attend good secondary school, which the secondary school admission depends on the primary school entrance interviews. As the entrance interviews do not have any fixed criteria except the academic reports from primary school, the qualifications of other learning experience become the extra point that advance the children to be easier admitted into the ideal secondary schools. Thus, learning piano is becoming one of the common out-of-school learning activities among Hong Kong students.

“Raising a dragon”- having talented, smart, successful children is the ideal among Chinese parents. Even it is in expense of the children's happy childhood (Naftali, 2010). Despite acknowledgement of the happy childhood ideal, the parents prioritize the learning success in terms of gaining examination qualifications. To these parents, piano learning is one of the many steps in seeking of better educational opportunities (Huang & Brenda, 2005). Good educational opportunities are generally committed by Chinese parents to ensure their children to be good academic achievers, and even great performers in extra-curricular activities. However, the parental faith on children as all-rounder is far too strong and outraged the possibilities of empowerment, addressing the children on the obligation of being always interested and devoted to the arranged extra-curricular activities as the prerequisite of success in life (Chee, 2010). The parental investment generates expectation on learning achievement, which are further internalized into personal responsibility and pressure by the students and piano teachers (Chee, 2010).

5. CONCLUSIONS
In Hong Kong, the influence of education objectives in formal schooling policies penetrates into non-school educational context. Due to the aftermath of the screening culture under colonial rule, the introduction of qualitative approach in public school assessment intensifies the competition among students, when non-academic qualifications become one of the criteria measuring the level of holistic development. The parents are actively involved in the piano learning process demanding quantitative approach in teaching such as exam preparation and frequent drilling. The children silently fulfill parental expectations, while the teacher mediates between the parents and children for teaching piano playing skills. However, after all the pragmatic involvement, the parents return to their qualitative orientation, hoping the students to have passion in music. However, under the twisted learning process, the music passion of students may not be back.

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LEARNING INSIDE AND OUTSIDE TALENT HUNT: INVESTIGATING STUDENTS’ EXPERIENCES OF DUAL LEARNING AND ITS INFLUENCE ON ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE

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ABSTRACT
With the soaring levels of unemployment and the reward for talent today, students are increasingly allowing their talent to take more of their time for classroom activities. Despite the increasing attention toward this issue, few studies have explored the influence this has on student’s participation in classroom activities and academic performance. The study aims to examine the influence of student’s engagement on learning secondary skills within the school years on academic performance and their participation in classroom activities. A qualitative approach is adopted, using a purposive sampling technique to select 15 undergraduate students from a university in Nigeria. Data was collected using semi-structured in-depth interview and focused group discussion. Employing thematic analysis, results show that the simultaneous enrolment in both learning inside and outside talent development has a significant influence on classroom participation. Contrary to our expectations, there was no negative substantial effect on students’ academic performance. The findings suggest that certain aspects of skill or talent development may be important for improved classroom learning.

KEYWORDS: Dual learning, talent, schooling experiences, academic performance.

INTRODUCTION
The drifts in the societal reward systems shapes peoples’ responses, choices and behaviour. The recent realities of re-organization, downsizing and redundancy which replaced the old world’s job security and gradual success (Kourdi 2009) evokes an evolving response from youths and students alike in order to stay ahead in the increasingly competitive world. One of these new approaches is the development of talents and acquisition of secondary economic skills, which in recent parlance has been known as entrepreneurship.

Entrepreneurship is a potential panacea to the belligerent unemployment rate especially among the educated (Brownhilder 2014; Paul, 2017; Nwabufo & Mamman 2015) which is fueled by the informal nature of the Nigerian economy and its low absorption capacity for educated individual into formal employment (Osakede, Lawanson & Sobowale, 2017) coupled with the widening deficiency of employable skill by Nigerian graduates. Olorundare and Kayode (2014) reported the efforts of the Nigerian Government through the National Universities Commission (NUC), to introduce Entrepreneurship Education as a curriculum in Nigerian Universities. This was in response to the deficiencies of the curriculum in higher education which seem not to be holistic enough to cater for students’ needs and maximum engagement of youthful energies as most courses are mono-tailored. Kuh (1998:114) reported a downward trend in student-faculty interaction and active learning, maintaining that the sliding disengagement in ‘personal development and values gains, suggests a diminishing influence of higher education on personal development’. Perhaps this gap provides one of the reasons for students’ dual engagement and talent hunt. In our study, respondents reported Passion and the desire to develop or acquire an entrepreneurial skill as the major reason for dual enrollment.

Talent are aptitudes natural to an individual. For Gardner (1999) it is “a bio psychological potential to process information that can be activated in a cultural setting to solve problems or create products that are of value in a culture”. In tertiary institutions, some scholars believe that talents are developed by the interaction of the individual with the environment and provisions (Garrett & Davies, 2014; Gagné,
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(2010). Contrarily, Bennett, Dunne & Carre, (1999), maintain that talents occur through the development of abstract and authentic experiences rather than in ordinarily taught courses. LeBoeuf (1985) in his argument that people behave the way the reward system teaches them to behave, maintains that people withhold their best efforts when they see little or no relationship between what they do and how they are rewarded. Presently, the rewards from talent in our societies are quite promising and would force an average student to give up classroom participation and academic performance for it. Extant literature has documented varying factors that affect university students’ academic performance. These factors range from home environment (Ajila & Olutola 2007) and increased time for learning (Brophy 1998), through previous academic performance (Mckenzie & Schweitzer 2001) and faculty intellectual contacts (Astin, 1984) to study habits and learning strategies. Hijazi and Naqvi (2006) found time allocation, class attendance, parental income and mother’s education and age as the major predictors of students’ performance in the intermediate examination. Shahzadi and Ahmad (2011) in their fitted model of academic performance for university students maintained that home environment and learning skills are the major denominators of high academic performance.

There is a paucity of literature on the type of dual learning that occurs in Nigeria. Here most students in the sample population take a different vocation from what they are studying in the university. Unlike the version of dual learning that is obtainable in Europe. In Germany, for instance, dual learning occurs as a combination of theory and practice. Learners are exposed to theoretical knowledge in vocational schools (Berufsschule) while practice-based knowledge is gained at the companies outside the school walls. These companies provide on-the-job training for apprentices, who gain hands-on skill experience in the chosen career. The German government coordinates this through nationwide standardized course content and examination. This is further strengthened by a conscious effort at dovetailing the curriculum of the learning done inside the classroom and the practical training from outside. (see: www.aus-und-weiterbildungsallianz.de.)

1. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Theoretical studies on the effects of dual engagement of entrepreneurial talent hunt and classroom learning on students’ academic performance are scarce. There is rather literature on dual enrollment of high school and university and on that of learning both inside and outside on the same career path. Some of these studies reported that students on dual enrollment have higher self-esteem, strong fulfilment, increased exposure to teaching methods and better prepared for the future (Chiu 1990, Johnson 1999). Adapting Becker (1965) theory of time use and the constraints of time allocation and endowment to this study, it is deducible that students’ allocation of time for academics to talent hunt and development will affect the class participation and academic performance. But studies in this area especially in Nigeria present contradictory opinion (Osakede, Lawanson & Sobowale, 2017).

Theoretical efforts have been made in earlier literature to describe individuals’ impetus for entrepreneurial activities. Among them are the theory of entrepreneurial event, the social learning theory and the theory of planned behaviour (TPB). The TPB by Ajzen (1991) opines that attitude, subjective norm and perceived behavioural control govern intent. Recent studies adopting the TPB using student participants have presented mixed results on the influencing factors of entrepreneurial engagement (Nguyen 2017; Ayegba & Omale, 2016; Kume, Kume & Shahini, 2013, Adnan Yahya & Husam, 2012).

In previous literature, entrepreneurial motivations have been categorized using the push and pull factors (Hisrich & Brush (1985), with studies providing evidence supporting the pull (Malebana, 2014, Zimmerman & Chu (2013) or push factors (Brownhilder, 2014) or a combination (Orhan &Scott, 2001) of both. Although the boundaries of the above classification are muddling (Dawson & Henley (2012), our study lends support to the combination of push and pull factors as major determinants of entrepreneurial intention.

2. METHODOLOGY

An interpretative phenomenological approach was adopted in this qualitative study, using semi-structured open-ended questions. This approach underscores the holistic understanding of participants’ experiences, thus offering a robust data perspective to the research problem (Tuli, 2010). According to Creswell, (2007:
“understanding the essence of the experience” is an important part of this method. Fifteen in-depth interviews were carried out on fifteen undergraduate students of Alex Ekweme Federal University Ndufu-Alike (AE-FUNAI) in Ebonyi state. AE-FUNAI is a very young university located in one of the poorest and educationally less advantaged state in Nigeria. Faced with the challenges of location and age, the university is geared towards entrepreneurialism to enable her students develop the right mental disposition and competencies to rise above the limitations of the times. Additional questions were asked as a follow up to make clear ambiguous answers. Two focus group discussion was also carried out to complement the information from the interview session and also to create an avenue for the students to share their experiences with one another. Participants were asked questions bordering on their motivation for dual engagement, experiences and class participation and academic performance. They were also questioned on self-fulfillment, planned career path after school and the future for dual learning in Nigeria. Responses were recorded, transcribed and coded. Thematic analysis was carried out on the data.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ID</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Department/ course of study</th>
<th>Talent industry</th>
<th>Motivation for engagement</th>
<th>Hours spent per week on the trade</th>
<th>GPA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AB1</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Linguistics</td>
<td>Modelling and make-up</td>
<td>Love for fashion and exposure</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AB2</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>Sociology</td>
<td>Photography</td>
<td>Financial benefit and love for nature</td>
<td>10-15</td>
<td>4.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AB3</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>French</td>
<td>Singing</td>
<td>Passion</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AB4</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sociology</td>
<td>Retail business</td>
<td>Need to make money</td>
<td>15-20 Mostly on weekends</td>
<td>3.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AB5</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>History &amp; Intl. Relations</td>
<td>Mason and building</td>
<td>Need to have a skill and make money</td>
<td>15-20 Holiday work</td>
<td>3.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AB6</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>Political Sc.</td>
<td>Phone repairs</td>
<td>To have a skill as option B</td>
<td>10-15 Depending on the available jobs</td>
<td>4.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AB7</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Medicine &amp; surgery</td>
<td>Modelling</td>
<td>Passion</td>
<td>Twice monthly</td>
<td>4.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AB8</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>Psychology</td>
<td>Dancing</td>
<td>Passion and need for independence after school</td>
<td>15-25 Depending on the event</td>
<td>4.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AB9</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>Criminology &amp; Security studies</td>
<td>Politics</td>
<td>Passion</td>
<td>10-15 During political rallies and election</td>
<td>3.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AB10</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sociology</td>
<td>Film making</td>
<td>Love for the industry</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AB11</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sociology</td>
<td>Modelling and bead making</td>
<td>Burning passion for modelling</td>
<td>15-25 Sometimes I leave school entirely for events</td>
<td>1.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AB12</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>Computer Science</td>
<td>ICT, computer</td>
<td>To build my career and be ahead of the class</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AB13</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>Micro biology</td>
<td>HR and public</td>
<td>Passion</td>
<td>10-15 Depending duty call</td>
<td>3.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AB14</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Mass communication</td>
<td>Singing</td>
<td>It makes me happy</td>
<td>10-12</td>
<td>3.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AB15</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>Political science</td>
<td>Computer maintenance</td>
<td>To develop my talent in fixing machines</td>
<td>10-20 More hours on Weekends</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Participants’ demographic, talent and academic information

For the purposes of this work, dual engagement in learning refers to a situation where university students are simultaneously enrolled in college and in a trade

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Motivation for engagement

The findings in table 1 above show that students in this study were motivated to engage in talent hunt by a combination of pull and push factor. Though they were more pulled than pushed into dual engagement,
thus reinforcing previous results (Malebana, 2014). Passion for the hunted talent was reported by 9 participants, 3 reported a combination of passion and desire to make money while the rest (3) reported need to have an option B skill and desire to build a career as their drive for engagement in talent hunt. AB10 stated: “I am being driven by my passion and love for the industry”.

When we probed further as to why they did not enroll straight in their talent related course in the university especially during the focus group discussion it was gathered that some were enrolled in their course of study to please their parents while others just took what was available during the admission process.

Students’ experiences

The results revealed a mixture of positive and negative experiences, the challenges of social acceptance by significant others, pressure and a sense of fulfilment. Overall, students reported that despite the time pressure, they were having a good experience. For instance, AB13 remarked: “the experience has been quite good although challenging. Good in the sense that am pursuing my passion, watching myself grow in it and seeing a possible future with it. Challenging in the sense that am under pressure to meet up with academic demands.”

“Though not easy but I feel fulfilled doing it. It is also stressful and comes with the challenge of being rejected or looked down upon by family and society” (AB10).

Effects on classroom participation and academic performance

From our data, dual engagement affected classroom participation and time for other academic activities but does not have a significant negative effect on academic performance. Students developed multi-tasking capabilities and time management in order to stay ahead of the time constraints. Some of the participants reported that they have to put more effort to make up for the time lost on talent development. For academic performance, 60% (9 out of 15) of the respondents had a GPA above 3.50 on a 5-point grading system. This is consonant with Osakede, Lawanson & Sobowale (2017) who argued that students’ engagement in talent development and other entrepreneurial activities has no significant effect on their academic performance. Individuals are in most cases faced with time strain/conflict between talent development and classroom participation as it takes exceptional management technique to combine both effectively. AB11 an extra year student stated thus: “I was not able to balance my time well. Sometimes I leave school for weeks, I was overtaken by my passion for the job. I guess that is why am here on extra year while others have graduated.”

Future career path and preferences

Students believe in complementarity when they were posed with the difficult question of making a choice between the inside and outside career, eleven of them expressed a strong desire to have one career complement the other. AB7 a medical student commented: “Essentially, both are important, however, it doesn’t have to be one way or the other. If both makes you happy, why not”

“I want to get a degree because it is a necessity but I prefer to learn my skills and make money because that is what I love doing” (AB1)

Other findings

Students taking courses leading to career path on white collar jobs tend to enroll in talent hunt more than those studying professional courses leading to independent career path after graduation. The most plausible reason for this response from students is the high rate of graduate unemployment in the country. So students who enroll in courses in low demand at the labour market hunt for additional skills. Longe (2017) reported that the non-alignment of the educational system to industry need and wrong choice of field of study (Naong 2011) among the causal factor of high graduate.

3. CONCLUSION

This study examines students’ experience of dual engagement and its effect on academic performance. Talent development within the school years does not have any significant negative effect on academic performance but only affected classroom participation. It rather provided an avenue for students to engage their youthful energies and learn effective time management. Even though our participants identified some negative outcomes of dual learning especially in the areas of time and distraction, they agreed that generally, their experience is fulfilling and worthwhile.
Though the infusion of entrepreneurship studies into the curriculum of university education in Nigeria is still at its early years, higher institutions should collaborate more with government and diverse entrepreneurial companies (the informal sector) to build a curriculum where students can enroll in talent development within school time and still gain grade points. This will take care of the negative effects of the time constraints on class participation. Johnson (1999) in a study of high school students’ experiences of dual enrollment found earned academic incentives, tuition allowances and high school boredom as among the major reasons for dual enrollment. This study is limited in scope and content. Further studies should cover a wider range of students from higher institutions and follow their academic performance over time.

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ABOUT THE TEACHING METHOD AND THE MOTIVATION FOR LEARNING FOR TECHNOLOGICAL DISCIPLINES

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ABSTRACT In the current pedagogical practice, the emphasis is placed on student-centred learning. There is a variety of teaching methods, but which one is best suited to a specific subject and to a particular group of students? Motivation for learning consists of all those factors that mobilizes the student to achieve those activities that ultimately aim at acquiring new skills. The paper presents a study about the motivation to learn and about the learning methods agreed by students. The study was conducted on a group of 51 high school students in the technological domain. The purpose of the paper is to identify those teaching methods that motivate the students to achieve learning outcomes at a specific technological discipline.

KEYWORDS: Technological disciplines, students, learning, teaching methods, motivation.

INTRODUCTION
Student motivation is the secret of a successful class. A well-motivated learner can acquire competences (knowledge, skills, attitudes) for a learning outcome in a shorter time.

How can we determine the students to learn to do something? Teachers and school psychologists have observed and analysed students' behaviour in different educational contexts, thus defining motivation and setting motivational tactics.

Some definitions of motivation, according with the literature, are as follows:
Motivation is defined as "an ensemble of subjective experiences of intrinsic or extrinsic origin, through which we can explain the onset, direction, intensity and persistence of a goal-oriented behaviour" [Ciucureanu, 2015].
The intrinsic motivation refers to those reasons that lead the student to participate in the learning activity in order to satisfy his/her curiosity, to acquire certain knowledge (desired by him/her) in order to be competent to do something [Adavidoaei, 2015]. The extrinsic motivation refers to the other reasons that mobilize the student because he receives certain moral, material or social rewards, from the outside [Adavidoaei, 2015].
Motivation for learning consists of "all motives that trigger, support energetically, and direct learning activity (P. Golu)" [Ionescu, 1995].
"Motivation is a generic name, involving all the motives that dynamize human behaviour. One reason is a psychic structure, leading to the orientation, initiation and adjustment of actions toward a specified goal" [Cosmovici, 1994].

By analysing these definitions and applying them in the school context, in order to determine a student to learn to do something, we need to show him/her what are the most specifically tailored reasons to him/her for the learning activity. Motivational strategies must be present throughout a class, everything we do in one class to continuously mobilize the student.

Motivational design - "The motivational design goals are to prepare a set of motivational tactics, aligned with the student's motivational needs and complementary to the general training plan" [Keller, 2019].
Motivational design is applicable through the ARCS model [Pappas, 2015].
The ARCS model [Pappas, 2015] presented from the perspective of the students' motivation and applicable to the technical disciplines is:
A. ATTENTION: Capturing the students’ attention during in the whole class. Methods of motivation: active involvement of students in the class, stimulation of students’ curiosity, presentation of information using various didactic means, exemplification of the taught theory using practical applications [Pappas, 2015].
R. RELEVANCE: Why the information taught to the students is useful. Motivation methods: linking new information with learning experiences previously acquired by students, the information presented in the class can solve topical problems for students [Pappas, 2015].

C. CONFIDENCE: Methods of motivation: Providing learning methods at the students’ choice, dividing the teaching material into short sequences, grading tasks from simple to complex, providing immediate feed-back [Pappas, 2015].

S. SATISFACTION: Methods of motivation: immediate application of new knowledge, rewards and praises for students [Pappas, 2015].

1. METHODOLOGY

Participants The study was conducted on a group of 51 students in upper secondary education, the 9th, 10th and 12th grades of the Edmond Nicolau Technical College in Cluj-Napoca. The average admission to high school of these students is between 8.79 and 4.93. Students are enrolled to qualification Technician of text-image processing, in the field of Media Production, High School Education Technological line.

Measurement The data on activities that motivate students for effective learning were collected through a questionnaire containing 24 questions. For the first 21 questions, the answers were recorded on a Likert scale with five levels: Total agreement, Partial agreement, Neither agree nor disagree, Partly disagree, Total disagreement. The remaining 3 questions are multiple-choice type, with only one correct answer. The first 21 questions addressed to the students are presented below.

I can best learn when:

Q1. I listen to what the professor tells us
Q2. I make notes about what the professor tells us
Q3. The teacher gives us examples of technology, telling us about it
Q4. The teacher asks us questions from the taught lesson
Q5. The teacher talks to me (to us)
Q6. The teacher writes / draws on the blackboard
Q7. The teacher uses digital presentations to explain the new lesson
Q8. I solve homework / exercises and problems guided by the teacher
Q9. I just listen to a recorded lesson
Q10. I watch movies about the lesson / solving an exercise
Q11. I solve by myself some exercises and problems
Q12. I solve several exercises of the same type
Q13. I evaluate my own work
Q14. I prepare a digital presentation for the lesson
Q15. I prepare by myself a report or a practical work
Q16. I solve homework / exercises and problems with colleagues advising me
Q17. I present my theme in front of my classmates
Q18. I work as a teammate in a group project
Q19. I read by myself and then I explain to some of my classmates what I understand; Q20. I evaluate the work of other classmates
Q21. The lesson is available on-line.

The others three multiple-choice questions play the role of emphasising the activities preferred by the student during the learning activity, regardless they study alone, or they interact with the teacher or with the classmates.

Objective Determining the type of activities and teaching methods which correspond to the need of training students to obtain the learning outcomes of the technical disciplines.

Hypotheses The students want to work with classmates to learn. They prefer teamwork and they want to discuss with their classmates to get the learning outcomes.

The students can learn by themselves if they can benefit of certain methods and means.

The students need less interaction with the teachers.
Application procedure The questionnaire was applied to students at the end of the first semester of the school year 2018-2019. The students were provided the printed form and they filled up their individual responses.

2. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS
I looked to the students’ motivation for learning, considering the classroom activities and the individual learning time, from the following points of view: students’ individual study, interaction with classmates, and interaction with the teacher.

In Fig. 1 we can see that 38% of students need interaction with the teacher, which is their best way to achieve the desired learning outcomes. According with the results in Fig. 2 the most appreciated activity is the one in which the lesson contains examples of technology explained by the teacher (51% of students totally agree with this aspect).
The second placement of 45% is where students say they learn better when they listen to what the teacher says. The results for the first multiple-choice question are presented in Fig. 3. They are consistent with the previous results obtained with the Likert scale questionnaire: students prefer discussions about lesson and examples of technology given by the teacher.

The group of questions concerning the interaction with classmates, reveals the following conclusion. The students prefer to work as a teammate in a group project (45%, according with Fig. 4), and respectively to solve homework / exercises and problems with colleagues advising them. The least appreciated activities are those in which students must present their theme in front of the classmates (25% of them expressing their total disagreement). Slightly agreed by students is the explanation to other colleagues of what they understand from what they read.

When the students were asked to choose only one of the five options presented in Fig. 4, their preference for the best learning methods were: team work on a group project (41% of students), to solve exercises and problems in collaboration with classmates (31% of students), to read on their own and then explain to some classmates what they understand (18% of students), to present their theme to the teammates (6% of the students) and to evaluate the teammates’ work (4% of students).
In individual learning, the students said they learn best when they prepare a report, or a practical work (41% according to Fig. 5), solve several exercises of the same type (25%), and solve exercises and problems (20%). The least appreciated individual activity for learning is to listen to a recorded lesson, with 33% of students expressing their disagreement. The multiple-choice question about individual learning, in which students were asked to choose a single answer (Fig.6) gives 61% of students that appreciate they best learn by watching a movie about the lesson or by solving an exercise. The second preference is the preparation of an individual report or practical works, and respectively to solve exercises and problems.

The least appreciated methods are the evaluation of their own work and the preparation of a digital presentations for the lesson to be learned.

3. CONCLUSIONS

The hypothesis that students prefer less interaction with teachers has been denied. From the answers analysis, it results that students learn best when they are accompanied by a teacher.
The hypothesis that students can learn very well by themselves if some methods and means are provided to them was also been denied. The students do not really know what the most appropriate method for their individual learning should be. This conclusion is drawn based of the inconsistency of their answers.

The hypothesis that students prefer to collaborate with their classmates in the learning process has been confirmed. The most appreciated activities are those in which they work in teams on a group project or solve together some exercises and problems.

For the analysed type of students, I recommend the use of motivational teaching methods that increase confidence. The following can be used: learning methods at the student's choice, splitting the teaching material into short sequences, gradual work from simple to complex, providing immediate feedback.

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TEACHERS’ VIEWS ABOUT INQUIRY BASED LEARNING IN TEACHING HISTORY: A QUALITATIVE RESEARCH APPROACH

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ABSTRACT The aim of the present study was to investigate primary school teachers’ views about instructional approaches in History lessons based on the model of Inquiry Based Learning (IBL). The method applied is a qualitative research paradigm. Two Year-5 classes, one Year-6 class and one Year-4 class implemented the educational program on the History subject under the frame of IBL. Participants were four in-service primary school teachers. Semi-structured interviews and informal discussions with the participant teachers were employed as research tools. The outcomes showed that teachers after the implementation of the programme appeared to have been developed professionally by shifting their teaching philosophy and practice from being teacher-centered to becoming child-centred. Moreover, the implementation of IBL activities raised students’ interest during the lesson and improved their problem-solving skills and creative solution finding skills. The participants also mentioned that adopting IBL instructional strategies into History lessons had changed the learning environment since students acted independently and worked together autonomously.

KEYWORDS: Inquiry Based Learning, History lesson, learning environment, problem solving skills, creative solution finding skills

INTRODUCTION
Inquiry-based learning (IBL) has become a popular instructional approach in science curricula and development projects in teaching. It is viewed as an approach to solving problems and involves the application of several problem-solving skills (Pedaste & Sarapuu, 2006). In this approach, students often carry out a self-directed, partly inductive and partly deductive learning process by doing experiments in order to construct their own comprehension schemes. It should be added that in this study the focus is mainly on the teachers and their teaching transformation within the IBL-framework.

1. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK
The literature on IBL is based on Peirce’s community of inquiry (in Furtak et al., 2012). Peirce’s (1955) theory recommends a cooperative, communal process, involving certain normative structures of communication. According to Peirce, the phrase ‘community of inquiry’, introduces two core principles. First, Peirce assumes that external reality inevitably influences our thinking. Second, our individual experiences and beliefs about the external world necessarily differ due to our different sensual experiences. Consequently, it is claimed that human beings acquire different beliefs, based on various experiences of external reality at different times and in different places. Thus, we cannot depend on our beliefs as an immediate access to the world or to reliable knowledge.
It is necessary to know that if we want to make our ideas productive, these have to be established within a social context, where learners challenge and develop each other’s beliefs. The main idea of IBL is that it is a process of collaborative knowledge construction directly linked to the classroom environment. IBL is mainly described as a student-centered activity based on investigating a genuine problem (Evenson & Hmelo 2000) and it is recommended as an effective approach in which students are engaged in problem solving situations (Pedaste & Sarapuu, 2006). Via these processes students seek information by formulating hypotheses and testing them by conducting experiments or making observations (Pedaste, Mæots, Leijen, & Sarapuu, 2012).
Teachers in a student inquiry learning process act as facilitators and co-researchers whereas in the traditional instructional approach they often act as transmitters of knowledge. In order for IBL to be
effective, teachers must provide students the opportunity to question and investigate new information while constructing knowledge. Therefore, a key point in the teacher role transformation from a traditional instructional approach to an IBL approach is implementing open-ended learning activities that allow students to be engaged in genuine investigation in relation to authentic questions and issues to which there might well be alternative responses and solutions (Bell, 2010).

In particular, IBL in teaching History provides a learning environment that facilitates the promotion of problem solving and creative thinking skills through processes related to historical reasoning. More specifically there are six key processes: (1) asking historical questions, (2) using sources, (3) implementing contextualization, (4) engaging in argumentation, (5) using substantive concepts, and (6) employing meta-concepts (Bacon & Matthews, 2014). This evolutionary procedure of pursuing information and knowledge can lead to better understanding and mastery of skills. Many researchers insist that simply memorizing historical facts is insufficient. Thus it is more important to foster historical reasoning via the implementation of group investigation approaches (Nilsen, 2016).

2. METHODOLOGY

This study was designed as a multiple-case study investigation of IBL across school life and across a variety of historical consciousness activities in order to capture teachers’ lived experience through IBL in history in primary education. The method used is a qualitative research paradigm. Two Year-5 classes, one Year-6 class and one Year-4 class implemented the educational program on the History subject under the frame of IBL. The participants were asked to participate in an one-day training workshop organized by the school advisor of their educational authority. Into this workshop the main principles and indicative actions of IBL were presented to the participant teachers by the researcher. Also the participant teachers in the workshop were asked to apply IBL techniques in a History lesson by using historical sources for which they developed a debate of the opposing historical views. Semi-structured interviews and informal discussions with the participant teachers were employed as research tools. The present study aims to explore teachers’ perceptions of IBL-process within the framework of teaching History. The research questions are formulated as follows: what are primary school teachers’ views about a) the implementation of IBL in History classes? b) the contribution of IBL in fostering students’ problem-solving skills in History classes? c) the contribution of IBL in fostering students’ collaborative skills?

3. RESULTS

The outcomes of the study showed that teachers after the implementation of the program appeared to have been developed professionally by shifting their teaching philosophy and practice from being teacher-centered to becoming child-centered. Moreover the analysis allowed us to generate an initial overview of teachers’ incentives and challenges faced through the implementation of IBL and how these factors influence the route of their own professional development. The findings show that these factors shape differently participants’ personal professional development (see table 1). In particular, the outcomes indicated that teachers’ participation in this program is considered as an opportunity to rethink their teaching practices and find ways to overcome any challenges. Moreover, some of them admitted that they themselves acquired further knowledge about the history content, i.e. Byzantium history. Concerning the development of students’ skills through IBL, the participant teachers admitted that they found it really difficult to adjust the assessment process to the new teaching approach. More specifically, three out of four teachers continued setting knowledge centered goals and thus assessing only knowledge acquisition without assessing skills’ development or historical reasoning. Only one of the participants managed to link his teaching practices with appropriate learning objectives and assessment processes. In particular, in this classroom students co-created two assessment games with the relevant rules and an examination test with question tasks similar to the programmes’ activities. In this way, the assessment method was conformed to the instructional approach implemented.

Participants claimed that before the programme they were using teacher centered approaches focused on the school text. This is why all the participants faced challenges (Table 1) in implementing IBL, in order to navigate a teaching profile fostering students’ collaboration skills. All participants began their efforts to foster collaboration skills through class wide peer tutoring/dyadic schemes (Baudrit, 2007), as an important first step to familiarize students with IBL. Three of the participants claimed that dyadic
collaboration type as a preliminary phase was very effective. They began by suggesting students to work in a dyad using a text in order to answer basic questions from the lesson unit. One of them mentioned that even though the majority of students faced, at the beginning, difficulties to collaborate, subsequently, they managed to work together effectively, probably due to the competitive character of the activity. According to the teacher, students improved their collaboration skills in order to create the best final products amongst the class groups.

Some of the participants mentioned that adopting IBL instructional strategies into History lessons could change the learning environment since students can act independently and work together autonomously in order to create original visual material for their classroom (Teacher 1: We make our own timeline and in every new chapter we add dates or persons to the right time-date. I think that with this material children understand the dating (…) we used to say B.C. (before Christ) and A.C. (after Christ) and only now I realized that children didn’t understand what it is about.) Teachers mentioned that certain activities had fostered students’ self-regulated, problem-solving and collaborative skills: (1) Writing dialogues into a comic-text, (2) Making mock up presenting daily life of people at Byzantium, (3) Compiling architecture pieces of art (agora, statues) into the map of Istanbul. These activities stimulated students’ interest and curiosity. Participant teachers also claimed that through the IBL practices they managed to be more open to the students’ ideas as well as knowledge of how to build on students’ ideas and interests in a way that leads them to deeper intellectual curiosity and understanding.

4. IMPLICATIONS/DISCUSSION

The main goal of the current study was to provide a synopsis of IBL in History lessons from the teachers’ perspective. Previous research has presented the IBL experience from the teachers’ point of view (Nilsen, 2016; Bacon & Matthews, 2014), however, these experiences do not include History lessons. Moreover, in the current study teachers’ professional development was combined with their attempt to cultivate their students’ problem solving, creative and collaborative skills. As mentioned previously, implementing learning activities that allow students to be engaged in genuine investigation is very crucial for the transformation of the teachers’ role from teacher-centred to student-centred (Bell, 2010). Thus the transformation of the teachers’ role and their self-confidence development in student-centred approaches is the key for implementing IBL at the History lesson effectively.

5. CONCLUSIONS

From this study it is evident that teachers’ self-confidence to apply an IBL History Learning program has significantly increased after the implementation of the program even if teachers had bigger anticipations. Therefore, we can assume that for teachers attempting to use IBL effectively they need to raise self-efficacy believes about teaching History or any other subject through IBL. Apart from their professional development teachers recognize the significance of accepting IBL process as an instructional approach that not only mobilizes students’ interest but also makes them think deeply about the learning content and improves creative problem solving and collaboration skills.
FIGURES, TABLE AND LISTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Intensives for participation</th>
<th>Challenges</th>
<th>During the History classes</th>
<th>After implementation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 1</td>
<td>Need for better understanding of Byzantium History</td>
<td>Enthusiasm about the learning activities. Displeasure feelings from her colleagues.</td>
<td>Medium Confidence in collaborative learning Need for scientific support</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 2</td>
<td>Activation of students’ interest. Time for material preparation.</td>
<td>Enthusiasm about the learning activities. Making connections with previous knowledge and relevant contemporary events. Concerns about collaboration forms &amp; time spending at activities</td>
<td>Strong confidence in implementing a new similar program</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 3</td>
<td>Personal interest for better understanding of Byzantium History</td>
<td>Challenges in teaching History; implementing collaborative learning</td>
<td>Enthusiasm about learning results and her involvement in this. Concerns about learning outcomes and manipulating group investigation.</td>
<td>Better understanding of Byzantium history Improvement in supporting groups’ investigation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 4</td>
<td>Previous experience in IBL</td>
<td>Students’ lack of interest</td>
<td>Challenges to adjust the program to the students’ needs.</td>
<td>Medium confidence to manipulate student collaborative work</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Teachers’ teaching development during the IBL History classes

REFERENCES


ABSTRACT This study explores student teachers' cross-curricular skills during their undergraduate studies and it contributes to the ongoing literature about teacher horizontal competences. Cross-curricular skills/competences of the 21st century are considered to be life-long learning skills and they can be developed through education. Cross-curricular skills/competences are horizontal, transversal, and can be divided into eight more specific categories according to Ravitz (2014): (a) critical thinking skills, (b) collaboration skills, (c) communication skills, (d) creativity and innovation skills, (e) self-direction skills, (f) making global connections skills, (g) making local connections skills and (h) using technology as a tool for learning. The research method of the study was quantitative and the research tool was a self-reported questionnaire with Likert-scale questions based on Ravitz’s research (2014). Participants were 150 undergraduate students divided into two cohorts, one on the 2nd year of their studies and the other on the 4th year. The outcomes showed that the participants have developed these skills to a moderate level and there is a need to develop them further in order to be able to teach these skills into their future students. Statistically significant correlations exist amongst the eight categories of the skills. Also the study year shows statistical significant difference for collaboration skills, communication skills, creativity and innovation skills. The outcomes are discussed within the framework of the holistic-ecological approach of knowledge.

KEYWORDS: cross-curricular skills, life-long learning, undergraduate students.

INTRODUCTION

One of challenges faced by higher learning institutions is to produce graduates who possess some generic skills, as required by employers nowadays. Specifically, global market seeks potential employees who are able to think outside the box as it provides an advantage for the organization to compete with others. Therefore, university graduates as one of the sources for human capital should meet with these requirements. However, it is claimed that many graduates face difficulties to think critically in solving problem situations (Billing, 2007; Omar et al., 2012).

1. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK.

Cross-curricular skills/competences are horizontal, transversal, and can be divided into eight more specific categories according to Ravitz (2014): (a) critical thinking skills, (b) collaboration skills, (c) communication skills, (d) creativity and innovation skills, (e) self-regulation skills, (f) making global connections skills, (g) making local connections skills and (h) using technology as a tool for learning. Cross-curricular skills are close related to students’ activities, academic performances and to human and social experiences that students’ have gained through their studies. Taking into consideration the challenging social circumstances nowadays, it is considered as very important for citizens to conquer some collaboration skills, communication skills, metacognitive and reflective skills, that not only enable them to solve higher order difficulty problem situations within the framework of group work but also express themselves in a creative and innovative manner (Habók & Nagy, 2016; Hallerman, Larmer & Mergendoller, 2011).

As suggested by the European Higher Education Area (European Higher Education Area - EHEA) the demand for cross-curricular skills’ cultivation and improvement becomes higher because of the official recognition that these skills are closely related to a wide range of activities onto personal and professional life like professional development and “learning to learning” ability (Education Council, 2006). Thus, it is not surprisingly when educational systems worldwide pay attention to students’ critical thinking and problem solving skill (Billing, 2007). Previous research has focused on the effects of university
experience regarding these skills (Trounson, 2011), the importance of instructing university students to develop these skills via a learning process in the classroom, and consequently help them develop their critical thinking skill (Moore, 2011; Reid & Anderson, 2012). Within this framework, higher education in Malaysia has emphasized to incorporate concept of higher-order thinking into teaching and learning process. Similarly medical curriculum change in Saudi Arabia places emphasis on communication and critical thinking skills. The new curriculum had a problem-based learning direction, along with a range of modifications including tutor-facilitated sessions, tutorials, practical, simulations, student presentations, and small group learning supported by role play, debates, and discussions (Latif et al., 2018).

Our study aimed to produce new research data about the undergraduate students’ views about the development of cross-curricular skills through their studies in Greek universities. This study can also be seen as a step towards a better understanding of personal and social factors and attributes which may affect the cultivation of these skills to undergraduate students.

2. METHODOLOGY.

The research method of the study was quantitative and the research tool was a self-reported questionnaire with a five Likert-scale questions based on Ravitz’s research (2014). Participants were 156 undergraduate students divided into two cohorts, one on the 2nd year of their studies (78 participants) and the other on the 4th year (78 participants). The research questions of the present study are the following:

1. To what extent are cross-curricular skills developed in a Bachelor of Education Degree according to the views of 2nd year and final year undergraduate student teachers?

2. Which are the dominant cross-curricular skills developed in a Bachelor of Education Degree according to the views of 2nd year and final year undergraduate student teachers?

3. Are there any statistical differences between 2nd year and final year undergraduate student teachers’ views about the development of their cross-curricular skills in a Bachelor of Education Degree?

The demographic information of undergraduate students included gender, age, year of study and department of study.

In terms of the quantitative data in this study, eight new composite variables were formulated from the items (24 single independent variables) included in the questionnaire. The first one referred to critical thinking skills and included six items (i.e. “Compare information from different sources before completing a task or assignment”, “Analyze competing arguments, perspectives or solutions to a problem”). The second composite variable referred to collaboration skills and included six items (i.e. “Work in pairs or small groups to complete a task together”, “Create joint products using contributions from each student”). The third composite variable was about communication skills and consisted five items (i.e. “Structure data for use in written products or oral presentations (e.g., creating charts, tables or graphs)”, “Convey your ideas using media other than a written paper (e.g., posters, video, blogs, etc.”). The fourth composite variable was related to creativity and innovation skills and was consisted of five items (i.e. “Test out different ideas and work to improve them”, “Create an original product or performance to express their ideas”). The fifth composite variable referred to self-regulation skills and included seven items (i.e. “Take initiative when confronted with a difficult problem or question”, “Monitor your own progress towards completion of a complex task and modify your work accordingly”). The sixth composite variable was related to making global connections and consisted six items (i.e. “Understand the life experiences of people in cultures besides your own”, “Reflect on how your own experiences and local issues are connected to global issues”). The seventh composite variable was about making local connections and consisted five items (i.e. “Investigate topics or issues that are relevant to your family or community”, “Apply what you are learning to local situations, issues or problems”). The last composite variable referred to use technology as a learning tool and included eight items (i.e. “Use technology or the Internet for self-instruction”, “Use technology to analyze information (e.g., databases, spreadsheets, graphic programs, etc.”).

The reliability score (Cronbach α) of the whole questionnaire was very high (α=.969). The reliability score was very good for all the variables (critical thinking skills, α=.771, collaboration skills, α=.877, communication skills, α=.765, creativity and innovation skills, α=.863, self-direction skills, α=.872, global connections, α=.909, local connections, α=.870 and technology as a tool for learning, α=.884).
3. RESULTS.

Table 1 also presents the means of undergraduate students’ rating on the eight composite new variables. The mean scores and standard deviations show that the 4th year undergraduate students of the present study report that have developed cross curricular skills in a higher level than the 2nd year students.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Composite Variable</th>
<th>Mean 2nd Year</th>
<th>SD 2nd Year</th>
<th>Mean 4th Year</th>
<th>SD 4th Year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Critical thinking skills</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>.62</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaboration skills</td>
<td>3.01</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td>3.37</td>
<td>.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication skills</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creativity and innovation skills</td>
<td>3.02</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-regulation skills</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Global connections</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td>2.69</td>
<td>.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local connections</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technology as a tool for learning</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>.80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Means and standard deviations of the eight composite variables from the undergraduate students’ cross-curricular skills questionnaire (N = 156)

Next, t-test between the means of the eight composite variables and the participant undergraduate teachers’ year of study were carried out in order to investigate whether the present Bachelor of Education Degree develops their cross-curricular skills.

Only the statistically significant results will be presented in more details. The independent variable of study year does show statistically significant differences concerning the three out of eight composite dependent variables. More specifically, a statistically significant difference was depicted only for the study year and collaboration skills, communication skills, creativity and innovation skills. The fourth year undergraduate students seemed to have cultivated the above skills to a greater extent than those of the second year (collaboration skills, $t(154)= -2.89, p = .004$, communication skills $t(154)= -2.03, p = .04$, creativity and innovation skills $t(154)= -2.99, p = .003$).

Moreover, correlations tests were carried out between the composite variables From Pearson r Correlations between composite and individual variables, it was found that the inter-correlations exist in a statistical level $p < .01$. This means that each skill influences the other ones. Therefore, when undergraduate students reach good levels of each skill, they are more likely to develop the rest of the cross curricular skills.

4. IMPLICATIONS/DISCUSSION.

The results of statistical analysis show that the fourth year undergraduate students have cultivated skills to a greater extent than those of the second year. This can be explained with the longer exposure of the fourth year undergraduate students to the studies’ content and challenges. On the other hand since the development of cross-curricular skills is closely related to a wide range of activities like professional development and “learning to learning” ability (Education Council, 2006), it would be more appropriate to develop them from the first years of studies in Greek universities.

An important finding was that collaboration skills, communication skills, creativity and innovation skills were found as the mostly developed skills between the two years of studies. Previous research recognize these skills as very important for citizens’ ability to solve higher order difficulty problem situations within the framework of group work and express themselves in a creative and innovative manner (Habók & Nagy, 2016; Hallerman, Larmer & Mergendoller, 2011). Thus, this can be considered as very promising for final year students who had the opportunity to cultivate these skills during their studies. However, there is still a need to develop further the rest of the cross-curricular skills such as critical thinking skills, self-regulation skills, global connections, local connections and technology as a tool for learning in order to fully respond to contemporary social and professional demands.

5. CONCLUSIONS

Even though undergraduate students’ cross-curricular skills appeared to be cultivated in a Greek Bachelor of Education Degree, there is still further work to be done in order to achieve greater results.
Undergraduate students in an Education Degree Course should develop further these skills so as to respond efficiently to the demands of their professional life and consequently be able to cultivate these skills to school students.

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A SYSTEMATIC REVIEW OF LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT THROUGH SERVICE-LEARNING IN UNDERGRADUATE EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT Nowadays service-learning becomes more popular in developing youth leadership in undergraduate education. Yet there is a lack of systematic approach to understand the leadership development via service-learning in undergraduate education. The systematic review aims to: (1) gain a better understanding of how service-learning is implemented in supporting leadership development, (2) identify the factors influencing leadership development in service-learning in undergraduate education, and (3) review the evidence on the impacts of service-learning on leadership development in undergraduate education. Literature search is done with the use of online academic databases available through our university library. Inclusion criteria for screening papers for review include: (1) service-learning with reflection component, (2) leadership development, (3) undergraduate education, (4) empirical research papers, (5) full-text available, and (6) papers presented in English language. Findings of the systematic review are presented. Implications for future leadership development through undergraduate service-learning are then discussed at the end of the paper.

KEYWORDS: systematic review; service-learning; leadership development; undergraduate education

INTRODUCTION

As an integrated pedagogical approach, service-learning provides carefully monitored educational experience for students to engage in an organised service activity (Reeves & Hare, 2009). Such a type of service is expected to meet identified community needs. By reflection upon such activity, students gain skills and knowledge, improve self-awareness, and strengthen their sense of civic responsibility, as well as discover meaning in their lives. Service-learning is also associated with other terms, such as community engagement, civic engagement, and community engaged learning. Service-learning is distinguished from voluntary service and community-based learning or practica, as not only should it involve the learning of both the content (disciplinary or interdisciplinary knowledge taught) and the service (skills and concepts required to provide a higher quality service), but it must also include learning about broader social issues (Furco, 2015). By connecting the classroom and community, service-learning becomes an initiative to instil civic responsibility among students with the goal to nurture them into citizens who are socially responsible and actively participate in the community (Butin, 2005). Service-learning programmes are thus generally hoped to improve students’ self-efficacy and future engagement in leadership and advocacy.

1. SERVICE-LEARNING: ORIGINS AND PRACTICE

Existing empirical studies in the service-learning or relevant literature examine the effects of service-learning on students, educators, institutions and communities (including community partners and service recipients). Eyler et al. (2001) provide a comprehensive bibliography of service-learning research at national, regional (subnational), institutional and programme-specific levels in the US context. The bibliography illustrates the emergence of service-learning research in the 1990s. Such studies published during 1993-2001 mainly examine personal, educational, social, institutional, community or career developmental outcomes, as well as the relationship between programme characteristics and these outcomes. Most service-learning research has been focused on (1) learning outcome (impact on student learning), (2) impact on other stakeholders, including the community, the service recipient, the local partner, and the practitioner. Furco (2015) suggests that a course-based service-learning experience should be built around three main learning objectives: (1) learning the content (disciplinary or interdisciplinary knowledge taught in the course), (2) learning the service (skills and concepts required to provide a higher quality service), and (3) learning about the societal issue (broader social issues being
addressed). All these three learning elements combine to create cumulative effect that distinguishes service-learning from voluntary service and community-based learning or practice.

2. OBJECTIVES AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The scientific and academic fields have seen an increasing attention to the use of systematic review for its great power in providing ‘high level of evidence’ to inform recommendations and contribute to the development of new knowledge (Higgins & Green, 2011). It is conducted to identify recent trends of the application of different learning approaches, for example, problem-based learning approach (Tsai & Chiang, 2013). The objectives of this paper are: (1) to review research studies on student leadership through service-learning in undergraduate education in the empirical literature, including study/programme location, subject/theme of programme, and methodology), and (2) to identify the impact of service-learning on students’ leadership skills and traits. We therefore ask the following research questions: (1) To what extent is service-learning research focused on student leadership development in undergraduate education?, and (2) What are the key aspects of impact reported by the service-learning studies on undergraduate students’ leadership development?

3. METHOD

The review process includes data collection, data analysis and synthesis. To collect data, the researchers take into account that the Social Sciences Citation Index (SSCI) are regarded to offer high quality and high impact of research in the field of education. In addition, only full-text available papers in English would be shortlisted for review. There are three steps in the selection procedure. Relevant journals are first searched from the SSCI list on Web of Science in the category of “education”, or with the keyword “community”, which would cover subjects, including higher education (undergraduate), service-learning, leadership development, and community development and engagement. The search from the “education” category returns 243 journals, among which 63 are identified relevant either because the journal is general, or because it is focused on higher education. The search with “community” as the keyword returns 12 journals, among which two are identified relevant. The second step involves a search of full-text articles about empirical research on service-learning and leadership development in undergraduate education from the 62 “education” journal titles on Web of Science, with such command (“higher education” or “undergraduate”) AND (“service-learning”, “community engagement”, “civic engagement”) AND (“leadership”, “leader”). This generates 32 results of articles. However, only two of those (Taylor, Jones, Massey, Mickey, & Reynolds, 2018; Taylor et al., 2017) are directly concerned about student leadership development through service-learning; yet, these two articles are from the same programme. On the other hand, among the two journals with “community” as keyword, no relevant article is found from the article search about “service-learning” and “leadership”. The third step is therefore taken to conduct an additional search on journal titles other than those shortlisted. Keywords “service-learning” and “leadership” are used. This search returns 75 results, among which six are identified as relevant. Three of them are from subject-specific education journals (early childhood, sociology, and management) (Chen, Snell, & Wu, 2018; Diamond, 2014; Marullo, 1998), while one from a business journal (Sabbagh, Cavanagh, & Hipskind, 2013), and the other two from health or medicine journals (Goldstein et al., 2009; Long et al., 2011). Overall, a total of eight articles are shortlisted for review in this paper. We then organise the contents of these papers based on year of publication, author(s), journal (issue, number, page number), origin of first author's affiliation (country), location of study, purpose of study, research questions or hypothesis(es), methodology, key findings, and implications. Data analysis includes: (1) descriptive analysis (e.g. counting the number of published papers, origin of papers, targeted groups, and data collection methods) with the use of MS Excel, as well as (2) content analysis (i.e. thematic analysis) with coding strategies to generate and search for patterns as emerged from the contents of the papers (e.g. limitations of the study, and future research directions) (Bazeley, 2013; Clarke & Braun, 2013).
4. PRELIMINARY FINDINGS

4.1 Service-learning research on undergraduate student leadership development

Eight articles were identified in the systematic literature search from the SSCI. Compared to the 1990s when service-learning first emerged in the American context, there has been a steady increase in the number of service-learning studies since the turn of the millennium. Those eight identified were published within the recent decade. In consideration of the various aspects of focus, among the eight articles, three are programmes mixed with graduate and undergraduate students. With respect to programmes of the students, five are subject-oriented, e.g. medical studies (2), finance and business (2), early childhood education (1); three are general education or liberal studies. Predominantly, six are concerned with the USA as the study location, despite two of them covering abroad service-learning experience (Taylor et al., 2018; Taylor et al., 2017), while the remaining two studying respectively Australia (Diamond, 2014) and Hong Kong (Chen et al., 2018). Except the two abroad service-learning programmes, all the other six served their home country communities.

In general, all the studies aimed to assess change in leadership skills, attitudes and/or engagement upon the completion of their service-learning experience. While a case study methodology was applied in Taylor et al. (2017) and Taylor et al. (2018); the others used a mixed method design which was comprised of pre- and post- questionnaires, followed by qualitative data collection, including reflective journals, course feedback, grades, and other course assignments. The questionnaires asked students to self-assess a range of leadership competency and perceptions. For example, Diamond (2014) compared students’ perceptions of themselves as possessing leadership qualities and capabilities, as being future professional leaders, and as being informed advocates before and after a final-year course project in partnership with a site or agency that involved a range of early childhood programmes and initiatives. Sabbaghi et al. (2013) asked participants to rate their competence level for an extensive range of statements concerning major leadership characteristics, such as listening, empathy and commitment to the growth of the people, as well as concerning their interests in social justice issues, such as rights and responsibilities, call to family, community and participation, and option for the poor and vulnerable.

4.2 Impacts of service-learning on students’ leadership development

The impact of service-learning experience on students has been investigated through different aspects. Major dimensions included leadership self-perceptions and aspirations, interests in social issues, understanding of such concepts as citizenship, empowerment and social problems, and engagement in community service and advocacy. For instance, Goldstein et al. (2009) assessed student confidence in communicating their leadership vision, effectively networking with diverse groups, working collaboratively, developing a coalition, organising and facilitating meetings, negotiating and resolving conflict, advocating for a cause, raising money, motivating people, delivering effective presentations, writing grants, transferring organizational leadership, and using an understanding of leadership styles to lead an organisation. Most studies measured short-term outcomes, mainly immediately upon the completion of the programme. Very few offered longitudinal investigation into students’ change. Only the study by Taylor et al. (2017) and Taylor et al. (2018) measured the post-course impact after one year of completion. They demonstrated that it took time to materialise the transformative potential of service-learning experience.

5. CONCLUSIONS

The systematic review presented in this paper helps extend our knowledge about the practice of service-learning in nurturing university students’ leadership qualities and engagement by assessing its methodological rigors and practices. Nonetheless, this study observes that SSCI journals have limited coverage on service-learning studies that focus on leadership development in higher education. On the other hand, a brief look at other sources, including specialist journals focusing service-learning or community engagement, and books themed on service-learning, shows that there is an increasing trend of service-learning implemented for nurturing university students’ transferable skills. Yet, they are not indexed in the SSCI. These two observations provoke the following doubts:

(a) Limited paper on service-learning studies researching on student leadership development is found in SSCI journals. Do such studies tend to have limited value or impact in educational research?
If the answers to these questions are negative, then what are the reasons? These questions require further research and discussion.

REFERENCES


SECTION 4

TEACHER EDUCATIO-EXPERIENCES AND CHALLENGES
INCENTIVES AND OBSTACLES IN THE PROCESS OF TEACHERS' PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

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ABSTRACT This article aimed to examine the most important incentives and obstacles teachers face in the process of their professional development and the possible differences between Croatian and Slovenian elementary school teachers according to the years of their teaching experience. Within the framework of the project Teachers' Professional Development, Status, Personality and Transversal Competencies, we designed a questionnaire that was applied to a representative, stratified sample. The study included a total of 1,867 Slovenian and Croatian elementary school classroom and subject teachers. As the greatest incentive, teachers expressed their desire for personal development and professional advancement, while they view the overload with professional tasks and obligations as their greatest obstacle. The research results show similarity in ranking the strongest incentives and obstacles to the professional development of Croatian and Slovenian teachers. Teachers with less work experience more commonly refer to harmonization of personal and professional life as the greatest obstacle, while generalized discouragement (resignation) is more frequently highlighted by teachers with more work experience, which points to the importance of years of service as an important factor in planning a continuous professional development (CPD) program for teachers.

KEYWORDS: elementary school teachers, professional development, incentives, obstacles

INTRODUCTION

The professional development of teachers is essential for the improvement of the quality and effectiveness of education, but also for the encouragement of teachers to devote themselves to their learning. We understand the professional development of teachers as lifelong learning and process during which teachers establish and maintain the highest level of professional competency, which they are capable of achieving (Terhart, 1997). Numerous factors can encourage or prevent the teachers' professional development. In addition to personal factors (attitudes, experience, ability, motivation), contextual factors such as a clear vision and educational institutions' mission, a cooperative culture, an open and inclusive organisational structure, the principal's leadership style, self-education opportunities, as well as policies and resources that support professional development are also of crucial importance.

1. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Teachers’ professional development is a key issue that lies at the very heart of many studies dealing with the quality and effectiveness of education. In this regard, the fundamental question is how to ensure the achievement of educational needs, conditions, and opportunities as the main prerequisites for teachers' professional development, as well as how to support the curricular modeling of their education. Most authors believe that the professional development of teachers should be considered in light of the social-constructivist theory as a result of the individual's self-activity, which is influenced by personal and professional environmental factors.

Despite recognizing the importance of professional development and the pressures arising from current educational requirements, most of the opportunities for professional development remain fragmented, insufficiently linked to the curriculum, and inappropriate to the teachers' needs, requirements, and opportunities. Professional development does not happen in a vacuum or according to a clearly defined scheme; instead, there are fluctuations in the progress within each career period and different paths of development depending on the interaction of internal and external factors for each individual (Huberman, 1993; Javrh, 2008). However, there is insufficient knowledge about the teachers' learning
opportunities or how forms of activity change during their career (Corcoran, 2007). Empirical research on teacher participation in professional development has identified age-related differences (e.g., Desimone, 2009; Desimone, Smith and Ueno, 2006). For example, Richter, Kunter, Klusmann, Lüdtke, and Baumert (2014) explored the participation of teachers in formal and informal forms of professional learning, taking thereby into account the content of the learning, and they concluded that older teachers are less involved in professional development and training. In the context of the aforementioned, it can be noted that internal and external educational conditions are interdependent and, therefore, need to be aligned to be more effective. Incentives and obstacles are significant indicators of the existing educational conditions and opportunities for teacher participation in the process of professional development.

This paper presents the results of an analysis carried out within the framework of broader research that was part of the project Teachers’ Professional Development: Status, Personality and Transversal Competencies (Čepić & Kalin, 2017). This paper aims to examine the most significant incentives and obstacles which teachers face in the process of their professional development. We are interested in the possible differences between Croatian and Slovenian elementary school teachers according to the years of their teaching experience.

2. METHODOLOGY

The research survey was conducted on a representative sample of elementary school teachers in Croatia and Slovenia. The stratified sample included 10% of schools, selected using a randomized algorithm from the school list. A total of 1,867 teachers filled out the questionnaire correctly, of which 1,103 (59.1%) were Croatian and 764 (40.9%) were Slovenian. A total of 1,052 (56.3%) Croatian and 742 (39.7%) Slovenian teachers answered the question about incentives and a total of 1,030 (55.2%) Croatian and 710 (38%) Slovenian teachers answered the question about obstacles concerning the whole research sample. Regarding gender, female teachers dominate in both samples: 83.7% in the Croatian and 89.2% in the Slovenian sample. According to the teacher career development, based on the Huberman model and S-model (Huberman, 1993; Javrh, 2008), we first grouped teachers into five categories with regards to the years of their work experience. However, due to the small representation of the final two categories, we divided the participants into three groups with regards to the years of work experience: a) up to six years, b) between seven and 18 years, and c) 19 years and above. The data collection instrument covered a wide range of socio-demographic variables and measures and the items referring to incentives and obstacles were designed based on a review of theory and previous research on teachers’ professional activity. On the list of 10 offered incentives, the respondents had the option of selecting only one as the strongest incentive for their professional development. On the list of nine offered obstacles, they could choose only one as the greatest obstacle to their professional development. This paper presents the results related to a descriptive analysis of responses.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 1 shows the similarity in the ranking of the strongest incentives for the professional development of Croatian and Slovenian teachers. Both Croatian and Slovenian teachers expressed the desire for personal development (32.1% : 37.2%) as the strongest incentive for professional development have, which was followed by demanding and diverse students (18.8% : 17%) and clearly defined professional development goals at the personal level (12.2% : 15.9%). Also, the importance of mutual collaboration and support from colleagues (10.3% : 12.1%) cannot be neglected. In both subsamples, teachers rarely chose to acquire a greater reputation as a significant factor in professional development. Furthermore, we were interested in whether Croatian and Slovenian teachers differ in the response frequency to some of the strongest incentives for professional development with regards to work experience. The answers are quite similar between Slovenian and Croatian teachers. In all three groups, Croatian teachers most often mentioned the desire for personal development and demanding and diverse students as a significant factor in the professional development. For teachers with up to 6 and 19 and more years of work experience, clearly defined professional development goals at the personal level (with 12.2% and 15% of choice) takes the third place. Among the teachers who have between 7 and 18 years of work experience, the third place is taken by mutual collaboration and support from colleagues (10.4%); however, clearly defined professional development goals at the personal level (9.6%) is also an
important incentive in this group. It is interesting to note that, at the beginning of the career, there is a greater incentive for professional development innovative and quality work of colleagues, while in the later period it is positive experiences of previous education and requirements of changed curricula, regulations, and legal provisions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The strongest incentives for professional development according to Croatian and Slovenian teachers</th>
<th>CRO</th>
<th>SLO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Desire for personal development, progress</td>
<td>338</td>
<td>276</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demanding and diverse students, working with students with special needs</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clearly defined professional development goals at the personal level</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mutual collaboration and support from colleagues</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive experiences of previous education</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Requirements of changed curricula, regulations, and legal provisions</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Innovative and quality work of colleagues</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional advancement</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encouragement from school leadership</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acquiring greater reputation</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1052</td>
<td>742</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: The strongest incentives for professional development

In all three working groups, Slovenian teachers chose the desire for personal development; demanding and diverse students and clearly defined professional development goals at the personal level as the top three most important incentives for professional development. In the group of up to 6 years of work experience, teachers find mutual collaboration and support from colleagues as an important incentive, which is also ranked third. It is apparent that the desire for personal development is more common among teachers with less work experience but less common among teachers with more work experience. On the other hand, teachers with less work experience, compared to those with more work experience, rarely highlight demanding and diverse students, and clearly defined professional development goals at the personal level as the strongest incentives.

Most of the Croatian and Slovenian teachers (25.2% and 38%) identified the overload with professional tasks and obligations as the greatest obstacle to professional development (Table 2). As the second greatest obstacle, Croatian and Slovenian teachers refer to general societal discouragement (resignation) (18.9% and 16.9%), followed by 16.8% of Croatian teachers referring to a lack of appropriate in-service education and training programs, and 13.8% of Slovenian teachers highlighting difficulties in harmonizing personal and professional life. Lack of appropriate in-service education and training programs was ranked fourth by Slovenian teachers (11.8%), while this place is occupied by difficulties in harmonizing personal and professional life in the sample of Croatian teachers (11.7%).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The greatest obstacles to professional development according to Croatian and Slovenian teachers</th>
<th>CRO</th>
<th>SLO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overload with professional tasks and obligations</td>
<td>260</td>
<td>270</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General societal discouragement (resignation)</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of appropriate in-service education and training programs</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difficulties in harmonizing personal and professional life</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Requirements of changed curricula, regulations, and legal provisions</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inadequate system of professional advancements</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nobody appreciates my quality work</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor support from school leadership</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor interpersonal cooperation and limited support from colleagues</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1030</td>
<td>710</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: The greatest obstacles to professional development
Compared to the Croatian sample, a significantly higher share of Slovenian teachers reported **overload with professional tasks and obligations** as the greatest obstacle. On the other hand, a slightly larger share of Croatian teachers compared to the Slovenian sample reported **lack of appropriate in-service education and training programs** (16.8% : 11.8%) and **inadequate system of professional advancements** (7.5% : 2.5%) as the greatest obstacle. A particular problem is the **general society discouragement (resignation)**, which teachers point out as one of the greatest obstacles that adversely affect their professional development. A probable cause should be sought in the teachers' opinion about the insufficient evaluation of their work, which is to a certain extent related to the overall unfavourable social and material circumstances of the education system.

Both the Slovenian and Croatian teachers, regardless of their work experience, highlight **overload with professional tasks and obligations** as the greatest obstacle. However, Slovenian teachers point this out to a much more significant degree than Croatian teachers (38% : 25.2%). Croatian teachers, and especially Slovenian teachers, point to the fact that younger teachers find **difficulties in harmonizing personal and professional life** as a great obstacle. That was stated by 21.1% of Slovenian teachers and 14.2% of Croatian teachers with the least work experience, and only by 8.6% of Slovenian teachers and 10.3% of Croatian teachers with more than 19 years of work experience. Slovenian teachers further demonstrate that teachers with less work experience repeatedly referred to the **lack of appropriate in-service education and training programs** as an obstacle compared to teachers with more work experience (14.4% : 9.5%).

The opposite trend is evident, in terms of work experience, between Croatian and Slovenian teachers with regards to **general societal discouragement (resignation)**. This factor seems to be the greatest obstacle to professional development to a significantly higher number of teachers with 19 and more years of work experience (23.5% of Croatian and 21.9% of Slovenian teachers) compared to teachers who have up to 6 years of work experience (12.1 % of Croatian and 12.2% of Slovenian teachers).

### 4. CONCLUSIONS

The results of the conducted analysis showed a similar understanding of the strongest incentives and greatest obstacles between Croatian and Slovenian teachers, although there are some differences between them and among the groups considering the work experience. Teachers find the desire for personal development as the strongest incentive for professional development and the overload in professional tasks and obligations as the greatest obstacle. Based on results we conclude that attention should be paid to the following issues. Firstly, the awareness of educational needs may exist, but they cannot be realized without proper conditions. Secondly, it is necessary to identify the existing conditions for the teachers' professional development, whether the existing conditions could be better used or even modified. Thirdly, in the curriculum planning of the teachers' professional development, it is necessary to start from the educational needs, conditions, and opportunities of the potential participants and organizers of the educational process. Without this, only short-term, limited, and improvised activities remain. The results clearly show that teachers need to be protected from work overload. Indeed, it is important to ensure the circumstances and the time required for teachers' professional development, relieve them of certain obligations and empower them to make meaningful plans of their obligations and select priorities for more quality work and personal life.

### REFERENCES


AKNOWLEDGMENT

This research was run within the project: “Professional Development of Teachers: Reputation, Identity and Transversal Competencies 13.10.2.2.02 (2013-2018) supported by University of Rijeka, Croatia. Presentation and publication supported by the project (2) Teacher beliefs as determinants of self-regulation and creativity of students in the STEM field of education (uniri-drustv-18-209).
'WHAT DOES EDUCATION MEAN TO US? A CRITICAL DIALOGUE THROUGH PHOTOVoice

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ABSTRACT The aim of the paper is to explore the use of Photovoice as a collaborative action research methodology to identify and explore the meanings of education. The use of Photovoice works as a bridge in channeling and co-sharing our images of education. Through different stages of photo sharing, discussion and action planning, we discovered the discrepancy between our ideal and real images of education. In spite of the limitations of the study, we discuss the insights about what we 'can' do in preparing ourselves as student teachers in coping with the future challenges ahead.

KEYWORDS: Photovoice, collaborative action research, teacher education

INTRODUCTION
Social semiotic theories suggest that meaning-making always draws on various modes of communication such as words, images and videos (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2001; Paltridge, 2012). A mode can be defined as any system of signs that contributes to meaning-making in a consistent and systematic manner (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006). In contemporary world, visuals are central to communication among people. Images are powerful and persuasive in the sense that they can convey various meanings ranging from depiction of social events to representation of interpersonal relationship and the world (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006). By reporting the participatory experience of a group of student teachers, this paper discusses how Photovoice can be used as an effective tool facilitating teachers to reflect upon the ideal and actual practices in education.

1. PHOTOVoice AS A RESEARCH TOOL
Photovoice has been described as an instrument for qualitative data collection in community-based participatory research as it provides the opportunity for participants to share and discuss key issues within the community critically (Wang & Burris, 1994). In educational settings, teachers share the same professional community and photovoice can enhance self-awareness and foster personal development by looking for changes to address the challenges faced in teaching (Orchard & Wan, 2019).

2. METHODOLOGY
In this study, a private Facebook group was set up for a group of student teachers in Hong Kong to share any photos that trigger their thoughts about education practices. Each photo is accompanied by a short caption that summarises a key idea or initiates further discussion among student teachers. Such sharing encourages critical reflection and dialogue within a community of practice (Fook, 2007). After the photo-sharing stage, discussion sessions were held as a platform whereby the student teachers were able to interact, discuss the educational issues, and explore possible directions. By doing so, student teachers reflected upon their teaching philosophy collectively while they exchanged different ideas to help each other overcome challenges in various areas (Catalani & Minkler, 2010). In other words, this study is qualitative in nature as it focuses on broadening and enhancing understanding of the perspectives of individuals (Stoner, 2010). Major issues identified by the participants in this collaborative action research were described and discussed qualitatively in the next section.
3. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Issue 1: Addressing Learners’ Needs vs Rigid Curriculum Design

Teacher A suggested that education should be student-centered in order to meet students’ needs. Teacher should not blindly follow a fixed syllabus designed by the Education Bureau because learners’ needs are diverse and different from what can be absorbed in the syllabus. Teachers know best what to teach because they have the first-hand information about what students do and do not know as well as what they need to know. They deserve the right to design their own curriculum and education for their students.

Figure 1 shows that teachers are the primary readers of students’ written work and become familiar with the needs of each writer. With their professional subject knowledge, teachers are able to provide feedback and devise plans that are conducive to each student’s writing development. However, teachers are often restricted from creative feedback because of the strict school-board regulations. They are often forced to follow rigid mechanical error-focused feedback. Moreover, countless students write about topics that neither interest themselves nor engage the teachers. The reasons behind are that questions are usually prescribed by the official curriculum documents or curriculum-oriented textbooks. It is often said that both teachers and students find writing, and the assessment thereof, tedious, boring and sometimes mentally draining.

Issue 2: The Use of Textbooks vs Self-designed Materials

Teacher B expressed that education should be flexible and teachers should develop and adapt teaching materials that suit the needs and interests of their students. Flexibility is an important element in education as teachers face learners of diverse background under different school contexts. However, in Hong Kong, education seems to be highly textbook-driven.

Figure 2 shows that teachers have five textbooks for an English lesson, not to mention lessons of other subject matters. Imagine the number of textbooks students need to carry to schools learning six to seven subject matters. It is apparent that this can put students’ physical health, i.e. their back, into risks when school bags are heavy as a result of textbooks. Teachers should think about the meaning of these textbooks. Sometimes, textbook contents are not relevant to students’ life experience or suitable to the learners’ proficiency. For instance, under the theme of ‘trendsetters’, there is no inclusion of current fashion trends and brand names. The ‘trendy items’ discussed in the textbook are the ‘artificial’ styles of clothing. Such learning content does not motivate students as they cannot feel the sense of relevance. Ideally, teachers should use textbooks more flexibly by complementing with self-designed materials. However, such actions may not always be feasible as teachers may face challenges like the need of conformity with other classes’ teaching content and complaints from parents about wasting the textbook materials. As a result, many teachers are forced to confine their teaching to the use of textbooks.

Issue 3: Collaborative Learning vs. Unilateral Teaching

“Education” is a complicated concept. Dewey (1944) suggested that education is the process of facilitating learning, acquisition of knowledge, skills, values and beliefs. It can be conducted in a diverse
way, for example experiential learning by taking students out of the classroom, to explore learning elements in daily lives; student-centered discussion and presentation replacing unilateral teaching by teachers, ideas can be exchanged in a mutual way, reaching the best learning outcome. However, in Hong Kong, many of these methodologies cannot be implemented due to lack of lesson time and abundance of learning tasks. This is the most common issue faced by the local teachers. Most of the lesson time was spent on drilling test papers, homework corrections and university admission examination preparation, but not nurturing students’ values and beliefs.

In Chinese Language subject curriculum, the senior form high school students (i.e. aged from 16 to 18 or grade 10 to 12) need to prepare for the public examination. This is the only channel for the school kids to get admitted to the local universities. As a result, most schools will choose to do intensive drilling in order to let the students familiarize with the examination framework, study question structure of the past papers, as well as to recite some “beautiful, useful quotes” to cope with the writing examination by simply transplanting those things into their works. In the eyes of the current students and teachers, they are not appreciating Chinese Language, but making it as a stepping stone to get to the university. In Teacher C’s view, Chinese Language should not be a tool to success. Teacher C has strong belief in upholding the value of the language by implementing various activities and innovative methodology to merge examination drilling and language appreciation.

Unfortunately, the belief is not that idealistic. Figure 3.1 shows the typical classroom setting in local high school. It performed a very traditional way of teaching methodology: teacher lectures, students listen, interactions are barely found, and especially students from the senior forms are not that keen to answer questions asked by teachers, not to mention they will attempt to involve in group discussions about the topic. In light of this issue, Teacher C changed the classroom setting to groups (Figure 3.2), each small group contains five students. Idealistically, this can facilitate discussion on the writing sample’s performance. Lesson objectives are clear - to read the sample works and review the writing techniques used and conceptions performed, as well as to discuss with the classmates to brainstorm ideas on how to work better. The teacher will also invite students to give informal presentations in front of the class to indicate findings and report on how to amend the flaws in those sample writings. This is to train their self-assess ability thus able spotting out problems simultaneously during writing, without teacher’s assistance.

However, the outcome had gone far from expectation. Firstly, students were not able to review the sample writings. As students were only trained to write their own compositions, they are not used to appreciate the others’ work. Secondly, the new classroom setting was also a barrier for them. Students are so used to the traditional teaching method that they are not familiar with such discussion platform for them to exchange ideas. To state clear, a teacher centered classroom is preferred other than student centered one. In short, the ideal change of teaching method derailed completely.

**Issue 4 – Teaching Language: Cantonese vs Putonghua**

More than half of primary and secondary schools in Hong Kong adopt Putonghua (PTH) as the medium of instruction for Chinese subject, which has become a growing trend. But is it really beneficial to teachers and students in teaching and learning Chinese? Teacher D believes that curriculum and teaching design should be more flexible, so that teachers can make suitable adjustments according to students’ situations.
Certainly, teachers’ proficiency is also a key concern. Are teachers competent enough to teach in a second language? Does the school provide teachers with sufficient support? Figure 4 shows simulation teaching of teaching Chinese in PTH, which also presents a problem: teachers fail to speak PTH fluently and there are mistakes in their pronunciations and expressions. As a result, teachers merely focus on correcting their pronunciations. Is it really effective teaching? The original intention of PTH teaching is to improve students’ Chinese ability, reduce colloquial words in writing, accurately use words and learn PTH in a relaxed way as well as increase students’ opportunities to use PTH. From a realistic perspective, due to the lack of PTH vocabulary, it is hard for students to express some in-depth ideas and this hinders them from learning Chinese; besides, teachers also face the same problem - they cannot fully master vocabulary of PTH, leading to semantic deviation.

4. CONCLUSION
This collaborative action research using Photovoice guided us to explore our understandings and meanings of education through continuous reflection and discussion. The information gathered in this Photovoice action research resulted in an action plan for future personal goal settings and improvements in teaching. The application of Photovoice is a potential powerful tool to let us reflect upon ourselves and discover discrepancies and struggles between the ideal and real educational worlds. With a heightened awareness of the ideal and actual practices in their educational contexts, teachers have a better direction to improve teaching and learning.

REFERENCES
ADDRESSING LSP TEACHING AND TEACHER NEEDS: THE TRAILS PROJECT

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ABSTRACT: Most higher education teachers involved in the field of Language for Specific Purposes (LSP) have received little or no specific training. As a corollary, the lack of qualified teachers affects vocational education and training institutions in European contexts and beyond, despite an increasingly strong demand for the delivery of LSP courses (aimed at students from academic or practical fields). It is against this backdrop that a project titled “LSP Teacher Training Summer School (TRAILs)” was launched in 2018 with the objective of designing, testing and assessing innovative LSP teacher training programmes. TRAILs will contribute to innovative solutions to support skills development for LSP staff and for future LSP teachers in higher education. The partners involved have adopted a participatory approach to set objectives for a programme made to measure for the specific target needs, drawing on input from research and situational analyses. The first stages of the project are devoted to document the current situation in empirical investigations aimed at increasing our knowledge of existing LSP teacher training programmes in European higher institutions and at supporting a better knowledge of the needs of teacher who are involved in the specific context. Preliminary findings of research surveys give some indications of factors to be considered in the development of LSP teaching programmes.

KEYWORDS: Language for Specific Purposes, Teacher training, Teacher needs, Collaborative approach, Programme design

INTRODUCTION

A strive for excellence in skills development for graduates is high on the agenda and consequently, quality teaching has become a major issue in higher education. However, learning to teach remains a matter that has not been given enough attention in the European Higher Education Area (EHEA). As mentioned in the Renewed Agenda for Higher Education adopted by the Commission in May 2017, “Too many tertiary education teachers have little or no pedagogical training” (European Commission, 2017: 5). In the field of Languages for Specific Purposes (LSP), the situation is even worse since most higher education teachers concerned have received little or no specific training (Basturkmen, 2014). Indeed, despite an increasingly strong demand for the delivery of LSP courses, there is a blatant lack of qualified LSP teachers which affects vocational education and training institutions in European contexts and beyond (Brudermann et al., 2016). It is in this context that the 2-year TRAILs project was launched in 2018 with the objective of designing, testing and assessing innovative LSP teacher training programmes.

1. LSP TEACHING AND TEACHER NEEDS

Demand exceeds supply for competent teachers of LSP in higher education. The high demand for LSP provision is to be seen in relation to academic and societal expectations, considering that the foreign language sector is an asset and a springboard for higher graduates who need a relatively good level of proficiency in one or more foreign languages in order to manage in the labour market (Räsänen, 2008). The close links between language needs and the world of work must be considered in the context of internationalisation of higher education (Deyrich et al., 2016) where language skills are expected to enhance mobility and employability. Given the high stakes, it is unsurprising that there is an ongoing worldwide increase in LSP courses for students who are non-specialists of the language, i.e., specialists in other disciplines. However, while job offers targeting LSP teachers are proliferating, many of these vacancies tend to remain unfilled in the French context (Brudermann, et al., 2016) due to a mismatch between the profiles of the job-seekers and the skills which are needed. The mismatch problem is also reported in many other contexts where the lack of effective teacher-training programmes is held as the determining factor (Ghafournia, N., & Sabet, 2014). Teachers are almost never prepared to teach in this sector (O’Connell & Chaplier, 2015) which is worrying since teacher needs in the domain are multifarious,
complex and interrelated, owing to the specificity of teaching a foreign language for specific/special purposes in higher education.

A systematic investigation of needs is thus considered as vital for our purpose. Much research has been conducted on needs analysis in LSP: “the means of establishing the how and what of a course” (Hyland, 2006: 73). But, as mentioned by Bocanegra and Basturkmen (2019) needs have always been approached from and for the learner, but teacher needs are unvaryingly overlooked in needs analysis. That is why it is critically important that teacher needs should be taken into consideration to inform decisions about topics in teacher education programmes. Basturkmen (2014) explains that the description of the needs of LSP teachers found in the literature must be deepened by means of empirical investigations to shed further light on the nature of these needs. Correspondingly, an in-depth investigation into the needs of LSP teachers is a fundamental step in the contribution this project makes towards finding solutions and tools to support skills development for LSP staff and for future LSP teachers in higher education both at national level for each of the partners and at the European level.

2. METHODOLOGICAL FRAMEWORK.

To address the challenge set in the highly specific context of LSP, a transnational and collaborative approach is being tested and evaluated in the TRAILs project. Based on input from research and good practice, the project relies on ICT innovative potential for communication and preparation. A customized methodology is being defined step by step and adopted in the course of all the following consecutive phases: (1) Review of existing LSP higher education teacher training programmes in different European countries and identification of good practice; (2) Identification of teachers’ needs based on LSP teacher interviews; (3) Identification of gaps between the provision of LSP teacher training and teacher needs, definition of training objectives topic areas and outcomes of the TRAILs Summer School; (4) Design of a programme for LSP teacher training, implementation (5) Organization and evaluation of a pilot summer school for (future) LSP teachers.

The first stage of the project, namely the identification and analysis of LSP teacher training programmes in Europe, involved the setting up of preparatory guidelines for the collection of data on LSP teacher training programmes in Europe (John et al., 2019). Relevant information was then collected on LSP teacher training programmes in Europe. Two internal and external online form-based surveys were set up for each partner to then send out to the countries of research, totalling fifty surveys in all. The internal survey was completed by data collected from web-based research conducted by the project research teams. External surveys were forwarded to representatives of tertiary education institutions to fill out when additional information was required. The results of the identification of LSP teacher training programmes in the European higher education area were then synthesized and analysed.

Concerning the second stage of the project, LSP teacher needs were analysed in terms of the needs of junior/experienced LSP teachers, the required qualifications, teaching skills and methodology, materials design, use of ICT, testing and assessment, disciplinary knowledge, and so on. The identification of LSP teacher needs is based on the following key activities: (1) Setting the guidelines for the collection of data on LSP teacher needs through questionnaires and interviews; (2) Collecting the necessary information about LSP teacher needs; (3) Analysing the collected data; (4) Synthesising the results of the identification of LSP teacher needs; (5) Data analysis.

3. PRELIMINARY FINDINGS

Following the guidelines, TRAILs partners have checked over 1,000 tertiary educational establishments for LSP teacher training in 25 EHEA member states. The summary given by John et al. (ibid) points to the very limited number of courses identified by the partners: out of the 25 surveyed EHEA countries, only 14 countries were found to provide LSP teacher training at a tertiary education level. Together, these countries provide a total of 88 LSP teacher training formats. Another point is the difference in terms of scope: a total of 26 full-length courses were found, 52 short courses, 7 classified as “subjects” or “modules” and 3 as “other”. The extent to which these courses contribute towards obtaining a recognised teacher qualification has also been scrutinised. It is found that 37 programmes contribute fully towards achieving an LSP teacher degree and 12 partially, while 40 per cent (35 provisions) do not contribute towards a recognised teacher qualification.
Interesting results were also obtained with regards to the target language selected for LSP. As anticipated, the predominant language that LSP students of foreign languages are trained to teach is English (52% of all LSP courses). It is followed by German (17%), Spanish (16%), French (11%) and Russian (5%). Preliminary data about LSP teacher needs have already been collected. This will be completed through interviews undertaken with a selected panel of LSP language teachers ready to be interviewed. 33 countries of the EHEA were investigated for the online questionnaire. 621 responses were received and have been synthesized. Half of the respondents teach LSP at Bachelor level. 66% are working on a full-time permanent basis; 1% (16 respondents) have full-time fixed contracts while 11.8% have part-time contracts; the remaining 5.6% correspond to other situations. Most respondents disclose that they have not received any pre-service training on LSP (469 out of 621) or any in-service training (446). Besides, when asked whether they know of any LSP courses in their country, only 101 say they do. This is in sharp contrast to the results that indicate their beliefs regarding the necessity of teacher training programmes to qualify as an LSP teacher: 193 strongly agree, 165 agree, 175 neither agree nor disagree, 68 disagree. It is also apparent that their needs converge in terms of priority and specificity: when asked to make a choice in a list of 43 items about knowledge and training issues which are needed to teach LSP, the first five issues selected by the interviewees as “very important” were (in order of importance): (1) Analysis of target and learner needs; (2) Materials design and development; (3) Course design and development; (4) General principles about LSP; (5) Task-based teaching. The specificity of their needs goes sometimes further than skills development: When asked to insert any additional relevant comments to the questionnaire, answers tend to highlight the specificity of their needs in terms of professional recognition, as expressed by one of the respondents: “LSP teachers’ knowledge, competences and efforts are not appreciated enough at our institutions of higher and secondary institutions. Our colleagues know almost nothing about LSP. For them you just teach English/Italian/German….”.

4. IMPLICATIONS/DISCUSSION.

The TRAILs project addresses an issue that is generally left by the wayside: the issue of teacher education and skills development in the field of languages for specific purposes. Although LSP represent most language courses at university, research and projects on teacher needs and teacher education in this specific field are rare or fragmented. It is expected that TRAILs will contribute to high quality and innovative teaching in the field and that the work done will also contribute to promote LSP in language teaching. It is hoped that the transnational collaborative approach adopted will be influential in terms of methodology. The project is successfully advancing step by step towards its overall objective: the investigation of needs and gaps will serve as a basis for a definition of training outcomes and curriculum for an LSP teacher training programme which be tested through the TRAILs Summer School. At this stage, it is envisaged that the transferability potential of the adopted methodology based on the guidelines will provide the basis for the analysis of the provision of training in any discipline.

5. CONCLUSIONS

The co-construction methodology in the project TRAILs is based on a collaborative approach to foster high-quality teaching (which in turn will impact the learning experience and achievements of students) to overcome a skills mismatch in HE language teaching. The project is moving forward thanks to the complementarity of the partners involved in the project (High LSP specialists, Teacher Training Institutions) and their drive to put into perspective current practice and needs with a view to designing and implementing an innovative programme to meet the challenges and needs identified. The collaborative process will also apply in the synergies offered to those attending the TRAILs summer school, both students and LSP teachers. It is anticipated that this collaborative approach will also involve stakeholders (sectorial associations, scholarly institutions and policy makers) as they will be invited to contribute to the discussion.
REFERENCES.


AKNOWLEDGMENT.

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CREATING A SPACE FOR TEACHERS TO REFLECT ON THEIR LEARNING AND BECOME EMPOWERED AS PROFESSIONALS

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ABSTRACT The teaching profession calls for professionals that are aware of the theoretical, pedagogical and critical abilities that influence their teaching and learning. Situations in everyday life of each individual affect teachers' commitment and their abilities to be resilient. In the course Working in Inclusive Practices taught at the master level at the University of Iceland there is a strong emphasis on reflective thinking using the term “Professional Working Theory” (PWT). Making ones PWT explicit needs a space for systematic and comprehensive critical reflection and collegial dialogue. The purpose of this self-study was to explore how we three teacher educators created a space for student teachers and teachers to reflect on their practice, and clarify their theoretical and ethical sources. Data collection was conducted from the year 2013–2018 through students' tasks, our journals and TOC. The data indicates that we experienced evidence that the process of working on the PWT was a continuous journey throughout the course taken in many steps and through different assignments, tasks and readings, guided by the PWTI. Although students often called for more technical knowledge we resisted and held on to the deepening reflective process of the PWT work permeating the whole course. Steadily students’ PWT emerged where they appeared as empowered and confident professionals within the learning spaces we had created.

KEYWORDS: professional working theory, Professional Working Theory Instrument, reflection, empowerment, cultural workers

INTRODUCTION
The teaching profession calls for professionals that are aware of the theoretical, pedagogical and critical abilities that influence their teaching and learning. Situations in everyday life of each individual affect teachers’ commitment and their abilities to be resilient. It is therefore important for teachers to have opportunities to reflect on the relationship between what they do and why, and to see the theory behind their practice. Reflecting on their work and relating it to theories can make them stronger professionals and enable them to develop their practice (Dorovolomo, 2004). However, it is a challenge, to support teachers to see the theoretical foundation in their daily experiences and many teachers don’t believe that theories matter. In this paper we present how we three teacher educators work with our student teachers to critically reflect on their practice in our course on inclusive pedagogy for the last six year. The purpose of this chapter is to give an account of how we worked with our students to create a space them to reflect on their practice, and clarify their theoretical and ethical sources.

1. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK
Freire (1998) refers to teachers as “cultural workers “, who are committed to empower their learners to make a social change and become active citizens. In their practice teachers as cultural workers focus on matters as nationalism, racism, sexism, and ableism. They make their learners aware of these realities and equip them with analytical skills to understand how these forces work and develop competence to act against them. The cultural work of teaching needs to be prosocial, foster empathy, and help teachers and learners to build the knowledge, skills and personalities that creates a space to generate and participate in an inclusive and responsive democratic society.

It is critical that teachers understand how their own identities can influence the ways they work and respect the value of diverse identities. Freire (2005) pointed out that people tend to look at those who are different from themselves as inferior. If teachers don’t become aware of this central problem, this intolerance, can hinder them from transferring their cultural work. To empower their learners, teachers need to recognize their identities, their differences and their roles. They must realize that they are the makers of their culture. Teachers that “dare to teach” as cultural workers take a special stance. They know and understand the complexity and diversity of the world in which their pupils live. (Freire, 2005).

Teachers as social workers build their teaching on learners’ funds of knowledge as they help them build on their strengths and look beyond themselves as they grow (González, Moll & Amanti, 2005).
For Freire (2005), to become a teacher as a cultural worker, one has to begin with humility. Humility helps us understand that no one knows everything and no one is ignorant of everything – but we all are ignorant of something. We must listen respectfully to all regardless of their competence and this is a human duty aligns with democracy and rejects elitism. Freire (1998) argues that teachers as cultural workers also have to apply lovingness, not only for their learners but also for the process of teaching. Teaching is a complex work that needs to be built on trust and love rather than control or fear. As teachers reflect on their cultural practice it is important to continually inquire the purposes and means of the teaching. The goals of education are many and complex. There is always a space for teachers to find better ways to connect with their learners, families, colleagues, and communities. And they need to align their practice and thinking with the purposes of their work and be aware that there is always a space to extend knowledge about teaching and learning.

To understand how professional understanding evolves through interplay of professional knowledge, practical experience, reflection, and ethical or moral principles in our teaching we emphases reflective thinking. Dalmau and Guðjónsdóttir (2002) suggest using the term “Professional Working Theory” (PWT). Making ones PWT explicit needs systematic and comprehensive critical reflection and collegial dialogue. Thus Dalmau and Guðjónsdóttir (2002) developed the Professional Working Theory Instrument (PWTI) as a framework to help teachers and student teachers reflect on and uncover their professional working theories. The PWTI is designed in three main steps to engage teachers and student teachers in deep reflection on their profession as a personal construct. In our work with our students we have built on this model.

2. METHODOLOGY.

The research builds on the methodology of self-study of teacher education practices. The purpose was to explore how we three teacher educators created a space for student teachers and teachers to reflect on their practice, and clarify their theoretical and ethical sources. The research question was: How do we develop spaces to empower teachers and strengthen their voices? Participants were we three teacher educators and students participating in our course from 2013 to 2018. The course Working in Inclusive Practices is taught at the master level at the University of Iceland. The student group is diverse. Some are in their initial teacher education, others are coming back for their graduate studies, some are pre-school teachers and others are secondary teachers. Some are distant students while others take the course on campus. Data collection consisted of students’ tasks, our journals and TOC (ticket out of class). Analyses was ongoing, as we identified and developed learning spaces in which students got an opportunity to grapple with their professional working theory. The findings from the analyses have been used simultaneously to respond to students’ learning and to develop and improve our teaching.

3. RESULTS

Findings indicate that as we created opportunities for teachers to review their professional identities and practices we faced challenges but mainly we saw how students gradually became engaged and empowered. To take part in an ongoing and critically reflective professional dialogue we designed processes for students to work through building on the PWTI. Throughout the course we emphasize that the professional working theory is a living phenomenon rooted in our experiences and continuously shaping as we develop new understandings. To highlight the PWTs evolving nature we designed different activities and steps to engage students personally and encourage them to reflect on how their life experiences have influenced who they are or want to become as professional. We want them to experience the empowering element of the theoretical dimension of the PWT, how it can remind you when it is time to slow down, notice and critically engage with what might seem at first to be every day experiences. Our aim is to make student’s PWT explicit to them so they can take conscious steps to develop it towards the different realms that they will encounter through their professional lives.

In working with the PWT we accentuate the different aspects of it; the practical, theoretical and ethical, while highlighting how it evolves through the constant interplay between them all. As teacher educators we want to practice what we preach. We agree that learning takes time and that it is important to use various methods and strategies in working with students; we wanted to model for them that what we
were telling them was useful. Therefore, we made sure we both planned a time for students to discuss the issues being addressed and created tasks for students to experience these firsthand.

Early in the course we had students conduct a triple step interview working in groups of three. The aim is to increase students’ awareness of the practical aspects of their work or how they might want to approach it. We observed students interviewing each other, somewhat resistant at first but as they continued, becoming more alive. After the interviews, students wrote in the TOCs how they had “learnt about what a professional working theory is,” “how they needed to be proud of themselves as professional,” and “the importance of writing about and reflecting on one’s work”. One mentioned that she had never thought of what kind of teacher she was and now she needed to allow herself to think of and put into words who she is as a teacher.

Following the interviews, we ask students to choose a tangible object that symbolizes who they are or want to become as professionals and bring to class. They show the object to each other and explain the connection between their objects and the PWT in small groups.

We emphasize to the students the importance of recognizing one owns as well as other people’s core qualities emerging in words and actions. We asked students individually to scrutinize several labels, each capitalizing one core quality, and find the ones they recognize within themselves. Then choose one quality and share how their qualities represent who they are or want to be as professionals. The listeners then identify and write 1-3 core qualities in each other, share with the person and explain how they saw it emerge in the narration. Gunnhildur brought a bag of seeds to the session to symbolize her core qualities (Figure 1).

![Figure 10 Gunnhildur’s symbolic work](image)

On the paper Gunnhildur wrote: I chose a bag of seeds. In school we collect seeds. Apple seeds, mandarin seeds and avocado stones that the children bring to school in their lunch boxes. It is all collected and planted when it gets closer to spring. I want to teach the children how to care for their surroundings. This also involves a research project; why some of the seeds turn into plants while others do not, what they need to grow. I can apply this idea to the children. It is a reminder of the diversity within the classroom and the children’s’ different abilities.

Through the narration the students saw the core qualities emerging in Gunnhildur’s account. They named the qualities of care, creativity, reflective, awareness, motivation, visionary and broad mindedness.

One of the task students engaged in was to write a list of “I remember” from their experience of being students or teachers. This was a task developed for students to identify moments in their lives or work they related to IE. From there, students were to write out the full account of that moment in order to explore the multiple factors influencing their actions and thoughts at that time. An example of “I remember” writing is this description from Kristín:

I remember a physically disabled boy with spasm in his hand, playing with unit blocks. The other children were tired of him kicking down their buildings when they were playing near him. One day they decided to build the blocks around his feet and so he could not hit the buildings and destroy them. From this moment the boy was an active participant in their play for the first time. The handed him pieces of cloth to cover his feet, and for playing hide and seek. The boy laughed happily and the other children enjoyed playing together.
The aim behind setting these activities up and working with them one after another, were to emphasize the importance of being descriptive in order to become analytical. Once the stories were narrated students could select key words from their writings to explore what was happening in their surroundings. Other assignments and tasks were similarly designed to get students to develop their PWT enabling them to both problematize their understanding of inclusive education and identify professional strengths within themselves or their professional community to respond to different situations. Throughout the course we had a strong emphasis on creativity and individual expression. Many students found the openness of some of the tasks to be challenging especially in the beginning of the course. We encouraged students to use original ways of presenting their PWT for the final form of that assignment. Drawing this together we saw evidence that the process of working on the PWT was a continuous journey throughout the course taken in many steps and through different assignments, tasks and readings, guided by the PWTI. Steadily their PWT emerged where they appeared as empowered and confident professionals within the learning spaces we had created.

4. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS.
Gradually throughout the course we saw students’ PWT materialize and they emerged as confident professionals ready to take on working in the culture of schools to empower their own learners to take part in and influence society (Freire, 2005). We saw them engage, often hesitant at first, in different critical and analytical professional dialogues we designed through the tasks in the course and saw how their competence for reflection grew (Freire, 1998). Although students often called for more technical knowledge we resisted and held on to the deepening reflective process of the PWT work permeating the whole course. We wanted to enact scholarship that avoids our students becoming prisoners of certainty (Freire, 1993) as they inculcated efficacy and belief in themselves as professionals in the cultural work of teaching. Our goal was that our students would realize that they are the makers of their own culture (Macedo & Freire, 2005).

REFERENCES

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PROPOSING THE USE OF PHOTOVOICE FOR COLLABORATIVE ACTION RESEARCH IN TEACHER EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT This chapter proposes the idea of applying Photovoice as a research methodology to collaborative action research during the journey of teacher education. Photovoice is regarded as a powerful tool in serving as a bridge between teacher educators and student teachers, creating and documenting their reflective dialogues about their learning experiences in teacher education. Participants (i.e., teacher educators and student teachers) are engaged in different phases of action research collectively—from action planning to implementation to reflection—where photos are collected at different stages to developing emergent themes that will inspire constructive discussion and critical reflection. Implications of the development of employing Photovoice in teacher education and professional learning will also be discussed.

KEYWORDS: Photovoice, collaborative action research, teacher education, professional learning and development

INTRODUCTION

Lewin first proposed action research as a methodology promoting collaborative and critical reflection within the community. Such methodology further was found to empower teachers or/and schools as agency of change through continuous reflection on pedagogy (Adelman, 1993; Sagor, 2000). Such reflective methodology was characterised as technical and practical, focusing on methods which could achieve learning outcomes (van Manen, 1977). However, in the journey of teacher education, there can be frequent discourses on teaching ideal and teaching reality faced by student teachers and teacher educators (Hargreaves & Fullan, 1992). Photovoice, a visual collaborative methodology, could facilitate critical reflection and change (Sitter, 2017) by empowering the participants (i.e., teacher educators and student teachers) to voice out reflections that could not be expressed in face-to-face conversation (Chio & Fandt, 2007). This paper aims to: (1) propose Photovoice as a methodological tool for collaborative action research; and (2) explore the effectiveness of using Photovoice in educational action research.

1. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Student teachers sometimes experience powerlessness in expressing their emotions during their teaching-learning process (Teng, 2017; Yuan & Lee, 2016). The effectiveness of action research empowering student teacher is questioned because of its lack of deeper understandings about the perceptions of student teachers towards the teaching-learning process (Kresser, 2013), time for student reflection on learning and teaching process (Halim, Meerah, & Buang, 2010). Originated from visual documentation, Photovoice became methodology voicing the deeper perceptions of the informants. Under Wang and Burris's work (1994) on woman health education in rural Yunnan village, China, the female informants reflected their daily lives through photographs. The photographs provided opportunities for the women to voice out their thoughts by visual communication. Application of Photovoice was also made in educational research: Asian international students used photo to reflect on their learning and living in a non-English speaking environment (Wang & Hanes, 2014); photos were used to display educational discourses between socio-cultural environment and teaching ideals faced by ESL student teachers in Spain (Villacañas De Castro, 2017). The approach allowed the research participants involving student teachers who were “powerless” (Teng, 2017) communities to present the world they see through the photographic lens. Based on the said theoretical foundation, this essay further explores the feasibilities and effectiveness of putting Photovoice into action research for reflective teacher education programs.
2. METHODOLOGY

The present study was conducted in education program at one university in Hong Kong, involving 19 student teachers (eight from the postgraduate diploma education programme (PGDE) and eleven from the bachelor of education programme (B.Ed), and one teacher educator from the faculty of education. The regular one-year PGDE and five-year B.Ed programmes are to prepare qualified teachers for primary and secondary schools in Hong Kong. Students were required to take a series of learning courses during the academic year, and were assigned to at least one four-week teaching practice during the academic year.

Central research questions that guided the study and the action plan implementation were: (1) what is education?; (2) what issues did the student teachers see in teacher education? This research included two cycles of implementation on the action plan. Within the cycles, data was collected from online photo collection. Participants could capture any photos that are related to their learning experience of teaching. After two months, reflective discussions were held, wherein one student teacher, Howard, acted as the main facilitator, making the discussion as comfortable and interesting as actual dialogues. Howard was selected because he was familiar with the concepts of photovoice and action research.

The discussion consisted of two stages upon which the participants could reflect on their thoughts and feelings towards the action plan. The first stage was to describe a concrete situation which sheds light on an issue in teacher education. Participants were asked to categorize their most significant photo based on six themes were given to the participants (Pedagogy, Teacher-student Relationship, Ideal and Reality, Influence of Assessment to Students, and Role of Teacher). The student teachers were further asked to elaborate their reflection on teaching ideal or core qualities, teaching reality and challenges faced. The second stage was about executing an action plan as a result of reflection. Each participant was asked to write their teaching ideal, ideal teaching plan or how their core potentials could facilitate action plan. The participants would then further implement the action plan in the coming two months, completing one whole research cycle.

3. RESULTS

Two reflective discussions were conducted. More than 90 photos in total were uploaded by the participants. Most of the photos were related to the daily teaching of the participants, such as lesson preparation, learning results of the students.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student</th>
<th>Cycle 1</th>
<th>Cycle 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Role of teachers, pedagogy</td>
<td>Improve learning activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>Ideal and reality</td>
<td>Let the student be themselves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Role of teachers, pedagogy</td>
<td>More learning activities; Enhance student learning motivation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>Role of teachers</td>
<td>Improve learning materials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>Role of teachers</td>
<td>Teaching, value and life education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>Ideal and reality</td>
<td>Create teaching community; Create student-based learning materials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Influence of Assessment to Students</td>
<td>Engage students in class; Teach lifelong learning skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>Role of teachers</td>
<td>Enrich subject knowledge; Input more learning variations in class; Have more interaction with students outside classroom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>Role of teachers</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Issues student teachers see in teacher education and respective action plan

The significant photos chosen were mostly taken from teaching experience. Among the six categories, most of the participants related their chosen photos to “Role of Teachers”, which were associated with their struggles in face of the school culture. From the sharing of teaching experience (Table 1), many
participants questioned their subjectivity, capability, and possibility in implementing their ideal teaching methods in their future teaching environment.

All participants were asked to talk about what difficulties they encountered when they executed their action plans. Internal and external difficulties were mentioned but more participants had various external factors which became barriers of execution. ‘Power Struggle’ was the most frequently mentioned external factor. For example, Participant B believed dealing with personal issues was one of the most time consuming issue because of different working styles and beliefs. Moreover, Participant A worried about promoting reform or implementing new teaching activities which could adversely affect teachers’ relation. Besides, ‘lacking resource’ was another frequently stated external factors. Participant C originally wanted to organize a field trip to enhance students’ writing skills. However, because of lacking human resources, school eventually rejected his suggestion so he changed his action plan.

Internal factors were less-mentioned factors. Participants E and G mentioned that they had consecutive failures during the teaching practices (being unable to communicate with students and raise students’ learning interest). These challenges dampened their confidence and undermined their self-efficacy to actualize their action plans.

### Table 2: Difficulties faced by student teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student</th>
<th>Internal or External Factors</th>
<th>Difficulty</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>External Factor</td>
<td>Restrictions from centralized curriculum and power struggle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>External Factor</td>
<td>Power Struggle; different beliefs and working styles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>External Factor</td>
<td>Power Struggle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>External Factor</td>
<td>Teaching materials are broken by students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>Internal Factor</td>
<td>Unable to arise students’ learning interest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>External Factor</td>
<td>Restrictions from centralized curriculum and teacher relation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Internal Factor</td>
<td>Unable to communicate with students</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Despite the difficulties executing plans, all participants showed positive attitudes towards Photovoice. After the second reflective discussion, all participants were requested to evaluate the effectiveness of Photovoice. Most participants agreed that Photovoice could give them opportunities to consolidate their teaching philosophies and difficulties. Participant C and F mentioned that joining Photovoice meeting was a great opportunity to think about education issues in depth. Moreover, Participant A said ‘listening another participants’ voices can understand more about teaching profession. It may imply that instead of forming individual teacher identities, forming a supportive community was important. Photovoice hence was able to inform and inspire participants. Some participants wished that the conference group can be long-lasting.

### 4. DISCUSSION

Photovoice provided opportunities for prospective teachers to conduct core reflections. It showed that Photovoice can help pre-service teacher to identify their beliefs and encountered difficulties. Moreover, participants can be nurtured by critical dialogues. On the other hand, this cycle of Photovoice might not be able to channel prospective teachers’ negative emotions and reality shocks. It was not difficult to find out that some participants held pessimistic views when it comes to implementing their action plans and imaging their career. For example, Participant G often said ‘I cannot’ and ‘fail’ in her conversation. Also, Participant E and G put much attention on sharing their failure experience and reality shock. Moreover, some felt strongly that they failed to follow their action plans. Further Photovoice practice or even teacher education program should engage pre-service teachers’ who faced emotional setbacks as a result of education.

### 5. CONCLUSIONS

This paper has proposed Photovoice as a powerful methodological tool for collaborative action research. Photovoice can allow the research participants to express their concern on the role(s) of teacher, pedagogy, gain mutual support from other student teacher fellows and determine action plans which
improve their own teaching. Therefore, Photovoice is generally effective to serve as a bridge between teacher educators and student teachers, creating and documenting their reflective dialogues about their learning experiences in teacher education. However, more attention should be given to further investigation of the relationship among the student participants such that the level of authority of teacher educators in the research can be discussed.

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SELF-REFLECTION AS A MEANS TO ADDRESS ACADEMIC ENTITLED BEHAVIOUR

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ABSTRACT The paper intends to focalize an important subject in teacher education: the written self-reflection to understand didactic practices and to analyse the aspects: power docendi, firm beliefs, tacit knowledges, expressive ostentation which can inhibit potential riches of student from learning and can crack his hidden talent. The research, started three years ago, intends on the one hand to refine the study of the teaching practices of the student-teacher, on the other hand to encourage reflective practice in them. It will end in 2022. Six hundred university students observe and study the entitlement behavior of the teachers of the courses they attended (Italian Literature, Sociology, General Pedagogy, History of Pedagogy). The students interview the teachers on the words they use in their relationship with them, on the paralingusitic elements, on the justified beliefs, on the time that they allow the students to speak. The methodology used is that of the epistemology of testimony (Lackey, Sosa, 2006; Graham, 2000; Rot, 2002; Vassallo, 2003; Laneve, 2009). Testimonial knowledge is knowledge acquired on the (epistemic) authority of teacher. The first non-aggregated outcomes highlight, on the basis of what the teachers tell us, that entitlement attitude is already marked and almost never conscious in the teachers.

KEYWORDS: self-reflection, writing, epistemology of testimony

INTRODUCTION

Over the last ten years the General Education course held by prof. Cosimo Laneve (founder with Elio Damiano of APRED, Analysis of educational practices), first at the University of Bari Aldo Moro and then at the Suor Orsola Benincasa University of Naples has focused on research aimed at teaching students to reflect on their training experience through autobiographical writing practices. Writing is intended as a tool for self-training and, at the same time, as a way through which teachers can observe themselves from the outside and re-think their methods with a critical approach that often calls into question the way of teaching.

The material collected was subject to analysis. Taken into consideration were both method and the profile of the teacher, who is not a mere performer but one who brings with them a personal background also made up of beliefs, tacit knowledge, expressive ways, and above all assertive tones, which characterize their approach to teaching. It is essential to understand the extent to which personal and professional history come into play in teaching and how much one influences the other in terms of impact on school practice.

The research project was articulated over a long period to give its creators the opportunity to propose writing as a way of (self) representation and to gather a sufficient number of contributions on which they could work. Teachers and students engaged in teacher training courses were asked to reflect on their own journey, in order to build a sort of short biography, using a series of indicators.

The three phases in which the research was articulated:

Phase 1: Collection and analysis of bureaucratic writings and writing carried out in the “borrowed time” (i.e. non-bureaucratic voluntary writing the teacher does in particular moments of their existence in diaries, on loose slips of paper, post-its, when not involved in work) of teachers working in primary and secondary schools and students engaged in post-graduate work; results and reflections have been published in a book by Cosimo Laneve (2009). The intent was to be able to typify and extrapolate some of the categories of teacher practices related to real life situations.

Phase 2: Secondary school teachers attending the special qualification course at the Suor Orsola Benincasa University, a.y. 2013/2014, were asked to write a short essay about themselves as teachers in view
of building their professional identity (Laneve, Gemma, 2013). Writing takes on a double meaning: as writing for the teacher, it is a device of knowledge and self-construction of one's own professional self; in the sense of being writing by the teacher it is a primary, first-hand source that helps researchers in the field of teaching to follow changes taking place within the school. The students on the General Education course were also invited to write about “themselves as teacher” so as to begin to define their ideas on/of teaching. A deliberately “open” stimulus (“How I gain my professional identity”) was proposed.

Phase 3: In the last phase of the research process, still in progress, space is given to a new narrative mode which is substantiated by open-ended questions from the students to the teachers holding the courses they attend at the Faculty of Education. The goal is to shift the focus to aspects of teaching practice, such as communication, relationship dynamics, the gap that exists between expectations and expected results and actual results in the exams, for example, that are not evaluated and do not always represent an opportunity for the teacher to reflect on their own way of teaching. The researcher's attention is aimed at capturing and recording the perception the students have of their teachers and, at the same time, at verifying whether there is a gap between the image teachers have of themselves as teachers and their way of teaching and the image they reflect back to the students. This means going to observe the teachers carrying out their job, and identifying attitudes of which they are often unaware but that nevertheless hinder or interfere in the development of students' learning, trying to bring out common traits on which education research can theorize new models.

1. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK
The research is based, on the one hand, on the importance of the contribution of writing to professional (self) learning (Elbaz-Luwisch, 2010), on the other, on the epistemology of the testimony (Lockey, Sosa, 2006; Vassallo, 2011), oral but above all written, of the teachers, who become a “source” of research on teaching (Damiano, 2004; Laneve, 2005, 2009; Laneve, Gemma 2013).

2. METHODOLOGY
Given the complexity of the material being analysed the research, composed mainly of spontaneous writings, with the exception of the bureaucratic writings analysed in the first phase of the research, is based on two distinct modules: the first uses a quali-quantitative methodology, with grids and tables specially prepared for analysis of the material, that makes it possible to categorize part of the contents that have emerged; the second uses an exclusively qualitative methodology. We proceeded with two readings of the written material. The first, intended to find certain linguistic components, but also to detect the traces of aspects, forms and methods of teaching practices that also denote the subjective work of the teacher.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Recurrent themes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reasons for university choice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>References to the Teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Representation of the Teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training methods</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Theory-practice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Facilities(work placement, workshops)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change in knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expressions of doubt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1

The second, aimed at understanding to what extent their interpretations (of school, teaching, learning, learning to learn, disciplines, and students) really guide their own daily behaviour. We tried to identify the origin and nature of the beliefs they use in their work, the possibilities of changing knowledge, and so on. In the construction of the educational biography, students and teachers wrote their essays freely (choosing order, contents,
style, etc.), nevertheless certain recurrent themes and constant references emerged. Based on these, an a posteriori category grid was obtained (table 1).

Finally, given the objectives, a semi-structured interview was chosen in order to allow greater flexibility and at the same time thanks to a list of topics to be followed (table 2), give the interviewer the possibility to collect relevant material to investigate and develop any topics that may emerge spontaneously during the interview.

### Interview questions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reasons for choosing subject</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How your professional identity has been defined over time and how your idea of teaching has changed.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vertical or horizontal communication, use of pronoun I/we</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Use and frequency of communication strategies: verbal, non-verbal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of spaces and times.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of tone: assertive or friendly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Way of relating to students.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2

3. RESULTS

For the results of the survey on the bureaucratic writings and those undertaken in “borrowed time”, see the contribution by Cosimo Laneve 2009 (above) in which great importance is given to the spontaneous writings of the teachers, even if to be an effective aid to the research, these need a varied and articulated series of accompanying ways that help the teacher understand how to interpret the educational situations they have experienced and, above all, that help them with that “ability to explain” that guarantees the highlighting of those elements useful to shed light on educational practices. In the subsequent stages of the research, we tried to direct the attention of the writers towards the elements that characterized construction of their own professional identity. In the writings of those attending their qualifying course a desire emerged to express in a spontaneous and natural manner their own professional self, which often became confused with the personal one. A sense of loneliness and abandonment emerges vividly in several writings. Teachers complain often of having been ‘thrown’ into classes without any preparation and without the guidance, support or supervision of an experienced teacher or tutor. Indeed, they often speak of episodes of competition and hostility from older colleagues. This leads to the sense of pride and self-assuredness that some teachers show in their professionalism, precisely because they have learnt without any help from outside, and with consequences that are not always positive in terms of teaching-learning practice. In the essays of the students of the course of General Education, instead, certain common traits can be highlighted: teaching is perceived as a complex process. The first non-aggregated results of the latest writings collected and the interviews show that certain attitudes emerge in the relationship with their students that the teachers themselves are not fully aware of and which reveal an entitlement attitude that is not always appropriate for the handling of learning processes.

4. IMPLICATIONS/DISCUSSION

The survey addresses the topics discussed at the Symposium and aims to be a contribution to the development of teacher training as understood and implemented in Italian universities, in a scenario where the school teaching/learning process is becoming increasingly complex. Preparing young teachers not only on the contents, but above all on the affective-relational aspects connected to the learning processes is one of the aims of current research: the objective is to train teachers who know how to act as reflective and competent professionals, therefore able to cope with the unexpected and continually recalibrating their teaching, focusing it on the student and not on the programming, thus overcoming the frustrations and despair that derive from the possible failure to meet expectations.
5. CONCLUSIONS
The elements emerging from the interviews and observations of the students will be valuable indicators to recalibrate the training of aspiring young teachers.

REFERENCES
STUDENT TEACHERS’ PERCEIVED TEACHING SELF-EFFICACY BELIEFS IN RELATION TO MOTIVATION TO TEACH, EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND SOURCES OF SUPPORT DURING SCHOOL PRACTICUM IN A SPANISH PRIMARY EDUCATION DEGREE PROGRAM

Mena, J., Hernández, I., García-Rodríguez, M., & Peinado, C.

ABSTRACT
This study aims at replicating the scale originally constructed by Kaldi & Xafakos (2017) in the Spanish context about student teachers’ experiences in the practicum. It was verbatim translated to Spanish from English to keep the statistical properties of the items. Descriptive information was slightly modified according to the Spanish program (i.e., including two more questions). Based upon the theory of situated learning and self-determination, the 43-item questionnaire measures self-competence, motivation, and sources of support of student teachers.

The questionnaire is based on a Likert type scale measuring different aspects of pre-service student teachers’ experiences and competencies. Quantitative data was collected from 116 pre-service Spanish student teachers who enrolled in the Practicum I in December 2018. Data analysis was based on comparing the student teachers perceptions in the Early Childhood Teacher Education program and the Elementary education teacher program. Main results indicate that there were no significant differences in the two cohorts across four dimensions of the questionnaire but only in the motivation dimension where the student teachers from the Elementary Education program felt more engaged to their profession. The need for research evidence on the practicum experience is widely demanded to enhance the quality training of the new teacher generations.

KEYWORDS: practicum, student teachers’ experiences, motivation, self-efficacy.

INTRODUCTION
Typically, student teachers in Castilla y León (Spain) go to the Practicum in two semesters: Practicum I (first semester of the third year of the Teacher Education degree) and Practicum II (second semester of the fourth year of the degree). Even if these two terms can shape their previous representations and conceptions about the teaching career, it seems to be important to bring to light their motivations, their prior beliefs, emotions and their self-efficacy perceptions to face teaching situations professionally. Kaldi (2009) identified three main aspects: (1) identifying and classifying student teachers’ perceptions about self-competence in teaching, (2) knowing about their emotions, levels of stress, and ways to deal with it, and (3) studying the relationships between those emotions and expectations and the actual teaching practice.

1. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK
The practicum period is perceived by the student teachers as their most positive experience during their training process in college. When student teachers began their externship in schools, they carry a bunch of beliefs, feelings, prior knowledge and prospects (Latorre, 2005) about this term. Research suggests that student teachers’ personal beliefs and representations could initially be built with personal experiences and prior knowledge as pupils, that it has strongly contributed to their current and evolving identity as future teachers (Chong & Low, 2009). They also tend to think that they can only learn to teach through experience (Shkedi & Laron, 2004) and previous theoretical knowledge seems to be less useful for them.
Thus, delve into their reasons for choosing the teaching profession can give us information to anticipate their future level of satisfaction in their careers (Chong, 2008).

Bandura (1977, 1986), suggested a model about self-efficacy based in four sources, first, successful experiences teaching; second, vicarious experiences to model accomplishments; third, verbal persuasion based on trust and credibility and fourth physiological and affective state. Poulou (2007) concluded that, in their sample, teaching experience and personal beliefs, feelings and perceptions contributed to create a self-efficacy image, whereas vicarious experiences did not result that determinants to the same purpose and neither physiological nor affective states. Nevertheless, Poulou (2007) also affirms that their findings “highlight the importance of student teachers’ personality traits, capabilities and motivation as potential sources of personal teaching efficacy” (Poulou, 2007, p. 213) that could be built through their experiences to contribute to the creation and modelling of their self-efficacy concept.

Additionally, teachers’ personality traits have been related somehow to common sources of teacher stress. Self-efficacy appears to be fundamental to cope with stressful situations (Bandura, 1977; Beltman, Mansfield, & Price, 2011; Chan, 2008; Kaldi, 2009; Poulou, 2007; Yost, 2006) in which intrapersonal emotional skills could intervene positively. Chan (2008, p. 4) adopts Bandura’s definition of self-efficacy when he affirms that “self-efficacy refers to one’s belief in one’s competence to tackle difficult or novel tasks and to cope with adversity in specific demanding situations” (p.4). Accordingly, stressful or demanding situations switch on personal skills, beliefs, emotions and strategies to face the challenge.

Self-efficacy could also be mediated by student teachers’ reasons to choose the teaching profession and to anticipate their future level of satisfaction with their career (Chong & Low, 2009). Research suggests that most of student teachers choose their career motivated by internal motivations, such as ability to teach or expert career, more than moved by external motivations (salary, job security) or altruistic reasons (shape children’s life, make social contribution) (Chong & Low, 2009; Watt et al., 2012). Moreover, inner motivation has been linked to better levels of resilience and, accordingly, to commitment and to positive career trajectories (Beltman et al., 2011).

Beltman et al. (2011), in their review, suggest that resilience usually appears to overcome difficult contexts or situations through a dynamic process implying personal skills, as inner motivation or self-efficacy perception, and contextual factors as working conditions or supportive school administrations and colleagues. For this reason, identifying personal factors to enhance resilience could be useful to preservice teachers’ programmes because skills to cope with stress as assertiveness, self-regulation, social skills or empathy can be taught (Beltman et al., 2011; Flores & Day, 2006; Klusmann, Kunter, Trautwein, Lüdtke, & Baumert, 2008; Tait, 2008). Similarly, Poulou (2007) assumes that going into details about student teachers’ beliefs and feelings could result in important enhancements for teaching programmes to train personal capabilities in their students.

2. METHODOLOGY

The sample was composed of 116 student teachers (52 belonging to an Elementary Education Teacher Education Program and 64 of Early Childhood Teacher Education Program) in the faculty of education at the University of Salamanca (USAL) in Spain. The student teachers joined the practicum in primary and kindergarten schools for three months during the school year 2018-2019.

A 43-item questionnaire on a Likert type scale (from totally agree to completely disagree) designed by Kaldi and Xafacos (2017) and translated to Spanish was used to evaluate student teachers’ beliefs on the practicum. The tool explores the following dimensions: orientation during the time of the practicum (with 16 items), teachers’ self-efficacy (with 31 items), challenges during teaching (with 13 items), motivation to teach (with 15 items), and management of emotions (with 40 items). Reliability analysis were also conducted.

Data collected was analyzed using the SPSS (Statistical Product and Service Solutions) software. The analysis allowed us to extract descriptive information about course, gender, teacher education course as first and second choice, actual and preferred school level, and number of students in a first stage. In a second one we could compare student teachers of both elementary school and early childhood programs around the five dimensions of the questionnaire: student teachers’ perceived teaching self-efficacy beliefs in relation to motivation to teach, emotional intelligence and sources of support during school practicum.
3. RESULTS

3.1. Descriptive results

Regarding the course, 52 student teachers were n=52 (45.2%) enrolled in an elementary school Teacher Education program whereas 63 (54.8%) and Early Childhood Education program.

As for the gender, for the total sample, 88.8% were women (n=103) whereas 11.2% were males (n=13). In primary education 36.2% (n=42) were females and 8.6% (n=10) were males. In Early Education 2.6% (n=3) were males and 52.6% (n=61) were females.

On the other hand, 84 of the Student teachers (75.7%) chose the Teacher Education program as their first option for their studies whereas 27 (24.3%) as their second choice. Regarding the number of student teachers who taught in different levels of education when at the practicum differ.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Actual School teaching level</th>
<th>Preferred School level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>f</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 (1º-2º grades)</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 (3º-4º grades)</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 (5º-6º grades)</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subtotal</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Early Childhood</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 (3 years)</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 (4 years)</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 (5 years)</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subtotal</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Actual school teaching level in the practicum vs. preferred school level by the Student teachers

As it is shown in table 1 most of the Elementary School Student teachers taught in the 3º and 4º grades (26; 40.6%) when they preferred to be at the first level (27; 46.6%). For Early Childhood student teachers, many of them taught to four year-old students (29, 43.3%) when the preferred level was in the three year-old classrooms (33, 23.9%).

Finally, regarding the number of school student they taught per classroom we obtained the following numbers: Up to 10 school pupils = 2 (1.7%); 11-15 = 10 (8.6%); 16-20; 27 (23.3%); 21-25= 63 (54.3%); 25 above =14 (12.1%).

3.2. Reliability tests

The replication of the tool conducted in the Spanish sample showed consistency with the original instrument used in Kaldi and Xafacos (2017). See table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Part A- Orientation</td>
<td>0.794</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part B- Self-efficacy</td>
<td>0.930</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part C- Challenges</td>
<td>0.945</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part D- Motivation</td>
<td>0.606</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part E- Emotions</td>
<td>0.866</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total score</td>
<td>0.828</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Reliability scores (Cronbach Alpha)


As shown in table 2, the overall Cronbach alpha was of a=0.828. The dimension where reliability scores were higher are Self-efficacy and Challenges whereas motivation was the lowest (a=0.604) but acceptable.

3.3. Comparing the student teachers’ beliefs in the practicum

The elementary school program and Early childhood program was compared by considering the student teachers’ beliefs on the practicum. Main results are shown in table 3 where the mean scores (from 0-5) and standard deviation for each of the questionnaire dimensions are shown.
### Table 3: Mean scores and standard deviation of the student teachers’ responses to the items of the questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Elementary school Education group</th>
<th>Early Childhood school education group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part A- Orientation</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>3.603</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part B- Self-efficacy</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>3.858</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part C- Challenges</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>3.711</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part D- Motivation</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>3.243</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part E- Emotions</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>3.523</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


When comparing the two groups, statistically significant differences (Student’s t) between the two groups were found in motivation ($p=0.039; t=1.359$).

### 4. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Main implications of this study suggest that the translated tool is a reliable instrument to be used in the Spanish speaking contexts.

As for the descriptive statistics, it is worth to know that the vast majority of student teachers were female (almost 90%) whereas just a bit more than 10% were male. This indicates that both elementary and early childhood education is still women oriented. In this regard, parity in traditionally female oriented careers is far to be reached at least in the Spanish context.

Another relevant result highlights that one fourth of the sample chose the teaching career as a second choice, which indicates that it could not still be considered by 25% of the graduate students as an intrinsic way of professional development but as a way of having a permanent steady job. This finding should be considered when selecting the teaching career since, as research suggests, inner motivation appears to be fundamental for maintaining commitment and positive trajectories (Beltman et al., 2001) as teachers. Those choosing teaching as their first choice could benefit from stronger skills when facing challenges at school.

Thirdly, it is also interesting to note that most of the student teachers, regardless the training program, preferred to teach the lower grades of both elementary and early childhood education classrooms but most of them did their practicum in intermediate levels, which could be due to the schools planning when assigning teacher students to mentors more than to own elections. At that exact point, schools have some constraints because of legislative regulations that force mentors to take a previous course in order to accept a student teacher.

It is also interesting their self-perception according to self-efficacy which seems to be even stronger in child education teacher students than in elementary school. As seen above, literature highlights the importance of this aspect (Bandura, 1977; Beltman, Mansfield, & Price, 2011; Chan, 2008; Kaldi, 2009; Poulou, 2007; Yost, 2006) to deal with stressful situations while teaching, to develop resilience and it appears to be an important tool for teachers, and also for student teachers to face the challenges to come in their careers. Programmers could take into consideration this feature to explore some ways to enhance abilities oriented to improve self-efficacy perception.

Finally, regarding the inferential analysis, no statistically differences were found between the two groups (elementary education vs. early childhood education) in the test dimensions. Only for motivation where the Elementary Education group felt more engaged that their Early Childhood counterparts.
REFERENCES


SELF-STUDY BEYOND THE CRISIS: EXPLORING THE MEANINGS OF CRITICAL FRIENDSHIP WITH A GLOBAL PERSPECTIVE

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ABSTRACT This self-study revisits my past critical friendship experience with R, an immigrant student who was conducting action research on creative storytelling. I, a Japanese educator, served as her critical friend while we were in the same program at an Icelandic university. There was some uncertain tension between us, but I was not sure what it was. Almost a decade later, I came to discover the reason. The purpose of the study is to explore the process of my reflection to understand what caused the feelings of tension. My aim is to propose the factors that can influence my future critical friendships in the global context. How did I understand and name the uncertainty that I felt upon the reflection of my critical friendship with R? Critical pedagogy frames my self-study. Literature on critical friendship inspires my reflection. My data are my personal and professional stories in Japan, essays I wrote about the experience with R, and R’s dissertation. Concept mapping supports my analysis. A project in which I recently participated made me realize that the tension I felt in the past critical friendship was derived from Japanese hierarchical values. I felt contradictions inherent in my attitude as an educator in the global context. I was in a professional crisis. The results show how I tried to conquer the tension by acknowledging own weaknesses and strengths for transformation.

KEYWORDS: self-study, critical friendship, immigrant educator, reflection

INTRODUCTION

“Do you have a critical friend?” My new friend T asked me when I first spoke to him about my self-study as a hybrid educator within the global context. I think I answered, “Yes…I do?” with a question mark. My response was unclear. I had a couple of critical friends, but my collaboration with them was not as intense as what I learned from his experience (Schuck & Russell, 2005). T’s question was stuck in my mind until I recently took part in a self-study project. It let me reflect on my personal and professional stories from the past in Japan and that gave me a hint to my research question. In this short self-study, I revisit my past critical friendship with my immigrant friend, R, who was trying to complete her master’s project about storytelling. My research question of how I understood and named the uncertainty that I felt upon the reflection of my critical friendship with R helps me explore the reason for my unclear response about critical friendship.

Context of the study

The study took place at an Icelandic university around 2010. I was educated and trained to work as a teacher in the Japanese education system. My colleague, R, is from South America. We both married Icelanders who then migrated us to Iceland. We met during our master’s studies in education. Throughout university course work, we shared ideas about our personal and professional experiences. R is a creative writer of children’s stories that were inspired by her childhood experiences. She has been writing stories to her own children. On the other hand, my educational value was deeply rooted in hierarchy and structure. I did not know the power of creativity until I met R. Despite the difference between our ages, lives and professional experiences, we fostered our friendship inside and outside of school. When I found that R was planning to conduct action research on her storytelling for her master’s project, I offered my support as her assistant. Because of my past experience of working with Japanese elementary school children, I thought that I could do something for her. I joined her on visits to local elementary schools to tell her stories. I sometimes set up tables, sat with young children while listening, read her stories and commented. Later, R’s supervisor pointed out that my role in her project might be called a critical friend (Costa & Kallick, 1993). This was the very beginning of my exploration of critical friendship.
1. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Critical pedagogy greatly influences educators who strive to make changes to their teaching (Shor, 1992). Critical educators are ready to listen to students’ voices of frustration about the status quo. When teachers understand the context and listen, students show their best performance within their abilities (Shor, 1992; Kincheloe, 2008). Education is supposed to be a mutual process of liberation, and dialogue and praxis are important for developing critical consciousness (Freire, 1993, 2005). Dialogue is “a human phenomenon” (Freire, 1993, p. 68). Words in dialogue have the two dimensions of action and reflection. Through dialogue, people respect each other, show their faith, and find hope to change the world together. Praxis is also essential for taking action to generate new knowledge with collaborative dialogue. It is also the process leading to democracy (Freire, 2005).

Critical friends are “trusted colleagues who seek support and validation of their research to gain new perspectives in understanding and reframing of their interpretations” (Samaras, 2011, p. 5). Critical friends’ provocative inquiries provide new perspectives in understanding data through different lenses (Costa & Kallick, 1993). Not only the self-study researcher receives constructive support, but also the critical friend can learn new ideas through collaborative experiences (Shuck & Russell, 2005). In positive critical friendship, it seems that the community of researchers and critical friends feel comfortable to share their deep thoughts and concerns. Gísladóttir, Lachuck and DeGraff (2016) describe their tensions in teaching with her critical friends in a collaborative self-study. Gísladóttir identifies what tension she experienced from the uncertainty that she felt in her teaching and students’ engagement to critical inquiry. Their narratives show that critical friendship provides mindfulness while developing their dialogue about teaching.

2. METHODOLOGY

Through personal history self-study (Samaras, 2011), I reflected on my actions and thoughts to develop my understanding about the critical friendship with R. The significance of self-study is that it “generally transforms those methods by taking them into a new context and using them in ways that often depart from the traditional” (Tidwell, Heston & Fitzgerald, 2009, p. xiii). My reflection of collaboration with R allowed me to examine how I am as an educator today (Samaras, 2011).

While reflecting, I drew a concept map (Buzan, 2004; Samaras, 2011) to see connections between my acts and thoughts. They extended a big idea into small branches to visually make sense of my data.

3. RESULTS

In this section, my reflection is divided into two phases, past and present.

Reflecting on the past: Collaboration with no name

When R told me that she would visit local elementary schools to collect data for her storytelling action research for her master’s project around 2010, I simply thought that I would come along to assist her. Because of my past experience of teaching elementary school children in Japan, I could imagine that children could be over excited about having a guest in class, and there might be a chance for interruption. When I first came to her storytelling, I was impressed by her creativity and talent in attracting young students. She was wearing her beautiful traditional costume because her purpose in storytelling was to evoke multicultural awareness. That grabbed the attention of the audience and they were engaged visually in the context of the story.

I had never met anyone who could be as creative as R. She taught me that being creative, even in teaching, was allowed. I admired her skill and courage to share her thoughts. While listening to her stories and observing the children, I took notes without any specific intention. It was my old habit from the experience of taking part in lesson studies in Japan. I offered my feedback about her storytelling activities from a technical point of view. One day, I noticed that she always had a piece of paper in her hand when she stood in front of school children. When I was a teacher in Japan, my supervisor gave me a piece of advice that I should memorize the text when telling children stories. It was a simple technique, but I believed that it was effective to help keep eye contact with children. Later, R wrote in her master’s
dissertation that her “satisfaction grew as I am now able to make eye contact with my audience and see
the expressions on their faces.”

R moved to another country soon after the end of this collaboration, but we are still in touch and
meet every time she comes back to Iceland. Nevertheless, I still wonder or not ours was a positive critical
friendship. My action was what I would call critical friendship today, but my attitude was probably not
what critical friends should have been. I thought I was supportive, but there was some tension between
us. I had more practical teaching experience than R, and I had hoped to be helpful in improving her
storytelling technique, but there was some sort of uncertainty inside of me. I did not know what it was at
that time.

**Reflecting on the present: The tension of critical friendship**

After the completion of R’s project, I finished my teacher program in 2014 and became an educator in
the Icelandic education system. At the same time, I decided to explore who I am as an immigrant educator
through my doctoral study. Critical friendship has always been an interest of mine because I had not yet
found the reasons for my uncertainty during my collaboration with R.

My self-study allows me to keep thinking about how I work with other people. In 2015, I had the
opportunity to collaborate with Japanese special needs professionals who travelled to Iceland to study
the Icelandic inclusive education system. My theoretical knowledge of inclusive education was limited to
the university courses I had taken in Iceland, but reflection on this collaborative experience made me
aware that my practice is deeply rooted in the Icelandic inclusive philosophy. Reflection helped me to
identify my hybrid resources. When I found myself balancing between two cultures, I felt empowered. I
decided to explore my collaboration with the professionals who have much more experience and
theoretical knowledge in the Japanese educational context than I do. Our collaboration developed, and
it triggered my research visits to a Japanese teacher education program at a teacher training college to
promote preservice teachers’ understanding of inclusive education. There, I acted as a creative critical
educator to stimulate their critical consciousness.

My collaboration with the Japanese professionals and preservice teachers reminded me of my past
collaboration with R. I positioned myself as a critical friend to the Japanese students. I noticed that there
was some kind of hierarchy between us because we believed that I am a specialist on inclusive education
in Iceland. With R, I felt somehow that I knew what she should do to improve getting the audience’s
attention. I believed that I was more experienced in teaching techniques than she. I gave my dear friend
my comments, but this was not interactive. R always responded to my comments with “wow, thank you!”
Her politeness and positive attitude nurtured my arrogance.

Now I ask myself why I did not try to talk with her instead of only offering written feedback though she
expressed her gratitude when I was critical. We needed to discuss and improve our critical friendship
through dialogue and exchange. When I reflect on this past hierarchical relationship, I feel disappointed.
I was critical as a critical friend, but I wonder if I was really respectful of her creativity. I was involved in
her project, but it was superficial.

4. DISCUSSION

Since this is a revisit of my past experience, my reflection intertwines my past, present and possible future.
My interaction with R began rather coincidentally. My attitude while supporting R’s storytelling action
research was immature and without dialogue. I never assumed that my role had a name. We never sat
down and discussed how we would collaborate and what she expected from my support. R and I
constantly talked as friends, but critical aspects such as listening to R’s voice were insufficient (Shor, 1992;
Kincheloe, 2008). At that point, I was not familiar with the habit of reflection, and I did not even realize
what was missing because of my lack of academic experience.

My written feedback from my observations of R’s storytelling reveals that my critical friendship was
lacking important aspects. Neither of us had enough experience to identify our deficiencies. However, R
inspired me with her creativity. I learned that creativity could be a powerful tool in education. The turning
point was my encounter with the professionals from Japan. I brought creative ideas into their teaching
context which brought our collaboration to a new stage. There was a mutual respect between us and our
critical friendship became genuine. It reminded me that our critical friendships should be mutual processes for developing our critical consciousness through dialogue (Freire, 1993, 2005).

5. CONCLUSIONS
The critical friendship with R brought me so many thoughts and so much passion for exploring what a critical friend really is. The uncertainty that I felt through the collaboration with R was a tension caused by our lack of dialogue. There was no sense of mindfulness, as Gísladóttir and her colleagues (2016) experienced through their dialogue with critical friends. I finally understood what their communication really meant. Although my collaboration with R finished long ago, the experience reminds me of the value of mutual respect through critical dialogue. My hybridity between Japan and Iceland is a great strength in developing my future critical friendships with anyone in the world.

REFERENCES
UNIVERSITY STUDENTS TURNING TO CROSS-AGE TUTORING: EXPLORING ITS INFLUENCE ON PERFORMANCE IN TEACHING SKILLS IN MICROTEACHING EXERCISE

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ABSTRACT The study explores the influence of cross-age tutoring on performance in teaching skills in microteaching exercise. 120 purposively selected third-year student-teachers (tutees) paired with 12 fourth-year student-teachers (tutors) in faculty of education from four randomly selected public universities in south east Nigeria participated in the study. The study adopted an experimental design. Results indicate that there is no significant difference between the mean performances of student-teachers in experimental and control groups (t = 0.77, p = 0.438). However, there is a significant difference in the mean scores of low performing students in teaching skills. The significant difference that exist between the control group and experimental groups of students shows that cross-age tutoring increases low achieving students' performance in presentation of objectives, set induction, teaching strategy, strategies to engage students and reflective practice in microteaching. Cross-age tutoring should be incorporated with other teaching approaches for microteaching exercise.

KEY WORDS: Cross-age, tutoring, microteaching, teaching skills

INTRODUCTION

The most challenging aspect of being a teacher educator is ensuring that student-teachers are well prepared for becoming competent teachers. The initial challenge to the student-teacher is to acquire basic skills needed to present and navigate lessons (Liston, Whitecomb & Borko, 2006). Training involves the development of a repertoire of teaching skills, often acquired through practice teaching in a controlled setting, using activities such as microteaching (Boudersa, 2016). Microteaching is fundamental in building stronger teaching skills for beginners (Popovich & Katz, 2009; Octupius, 2014). Although many teacher education curricula require student-teachers to undertake microteaching exercise in the second semester of the third year, the exercise falls short of developing core teaching skills such as objective presentation, set induction, teaching strategies, strategies to engage students and reflective practice (Remesh, 2013). This is often a result of large class size, high teacher-student ratios, shortage of instructional time and inadequate educational resources in the mainstream classes of most public universities in low income countries (Bloom & Ahmed, 2000; World Education News & Review (WENR) 2017; Asiyai, 2013; Tarekegne & Kedebe, 2017). Consequently, most student-teachers do not have the opportunity to develop core skills that would fulfill the teacher education guideline and outcome until the beginning of their teaching practicum experiences (TPEs). In response to these challenges, students are increasingly turning to their senior peers to learn and improve their academic performance. Literature suggests that the largest effects of learning outcomes can be derived from interventions that tailor teaching to students learning levels (Evans and Popova, 2016; Gleewe & Meralidharam, 2016). Cross-age tutoring (CAT) which is an instruction of a lower year undergraduate (Tutee) by an upper year undergraduate or post graduates as tutor (Toping, 1996; McDonald, 1987; Lee, 2013) is considered as an inexpensive alternative to providing personalized instruction to younger students in that it substitutes a trained instructor (the teacher) with an untrained one (the older student) at the cost of the older student’s time (Craig & Cairo, 2005). Previous studies reveal that Cross-age tutoring enhances students’ learning experiences, development of social skills and behavior, cognitive and non-cognitive aspects of student (Cochran, Feng, Cartledge, Hamilton, 1993; Kalkowski, 1995; Kalkowski, 2001; Basister, 2013; Zhan, Bray, Wang, Lykins & Kwo, 2013; Berberoglu & Tansel, 2014; AbdulRaheem, Yusuf, & Odutayo, 2017). The study aims
at determining whether upper undergraduate students serving as tutors in microteaching exercise would improve lower undergraduate students’ (tutees) competence in presentation of objectives using the Bloom’s taxonomy, construction of a plan to gain the attention of the audience (set induction), develop a teaching strategy to explain the relevance of the topic to the audience, develop strategy to involve students in instruction and prepare a written reflection of the experience (reflective practice). This is necessary because available studies in low and middle income countries investigated efficacy of peer tutoring for improving students’ performance in school subjects among at risk, low performing and disabled children and students at primary, secondary school (Ndirika & Ubani, 2017) and tertiary levels of education but none in microteaching, an element in the teacher preparation process. This will provide university administrators with an effective intervention strategy that can enhance the performance of student-teachers in core skills in teaching. It will also provide teachers with an effective strategy that they may use in the classroom.

1. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The study is located in a social constructionist framework (Vygotsky, 1997) where cross-age tutoring is viewed as socially constructed practice and interactions affected by more experienced personalities resulting to improved cognitive and non-cognitive development. Collaborative dialogue occurs between the tutee (learner) and the tutor who models or provides instruction, guidance and encouragement to navigate through a task of a level of difficulty with the tutees’ zone of proximal development (ZPD). Vygotsky’s theory in the context of this study is relevant because tutors are appointed as senior students who are regarded as more knowledgeable and experienced than the tutee. The zone of proximal development occurs in a tutorial session because the tutor gives guidance and support to the less knowledgeable students.

Research Question: This study investigates the effect of cross age tutoring on students’ performance in microteaching in terms of presentation of objectives, set induction, teaching strategy, strategies to engage students and reflective practice in microteaching?

Research Hypothesis: H0: There is no significant difference in the performance of students taught using cross age tutoring and conventional instructional strategies in microteaching.

2. THE CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

There is a growing interest in quality preparation of student teachers in the field of microteaching exercise in Nigeria. Although many teacher education curricula require students to undertake microteaching exercise in the first semester of the third year, this exercise falls short of achieving individual goals as students do little or nothing as a result of large class size and high teacher-student ratio in most public universities. University lecture sizes are increasingly becoming larger, with a resultant limited faculty contact time, a decreasing small group attention and little or no peer evaluation. Consequently, students club together with peers to learn and improve in the course offered. This arrangement is largely gaining grounds particularly when today students find it difficult to engage in an independent study. Cross age tutoring in microteaching exercise is an effort to improve the quality of teaching and future teachers through performance-based learning model.

3. METHODOLOGY

Research Design: The study used experimental design involving two groups of students, the control and experimental group. The experimental group was composed of both fourth-year students who have gone through the teaching practicum with high performance ability teaching skills and third year that have undergone the microteaching exercise but had low performance ability teaching skills. The Cross-age tutoring program was introduced in the experimental group wherein fourth-year high-performing students tutored third year student teachers. The control group went through their microteaching exercise without any involvement in the cross-age tutoring or any other similar program.

Target Population and Sample: The study made use of a purposively selected sample of 120 undergraduate students (63 males and 56 females) from four randomly selected public universities in the
South East, Nigeria, who have completed their microteaching course during 2016/2017 academic session. University A & B comprised of 60 third-year education students selected based on their low performance in microteaching to serve as tutees in the experimental group, while University B & C 60 is made up of third year education students who participated in the study as a control group. The current teacher educators in the faculty of education identified students with low achievement. In terms of course of study, the participants are made up of 35 from science education, 35 from business education, 17 from social sciences, and 33 from humanities education. There were 12 groups of tutees made up of 5 tutees per group and 12 tutors (1 tutor paired to each group of 5) in the experimental group.

**Data Collection Procedure:** The research involved three main stages, pre-test, treatment, and administration of post-test. The pre-test was administered in the first week of the treatment to the participant tutees before subjecting them to the treatment. After the administration of pre-test, the third year students (tutees) were taught by the fourth year high performing students as tutors using performance based learning model which involves more of doing rather than teaching. At the beginning of the semester, efforts to prompt third year undergraduate students to participate in the program had been established prior to the cross-age tutorial intervention. The fourth year students (Tutors) attended a one-day orientation on how to teach various component skills, components of the lesson plan and deal with the Tutees (3rd year students) academically, psychologically and socially. A schedule and venue were fixed and followed in conducting the tutorials sessions for two hours, three times a week. During the cross age tutoring session, the researchers frequently visited each group and observed the progress, intervened and provided assistance. The tutors developed a ‘component skills’ approach. The activity was broken into small components to simplify the learning process. The skills to be achieved were outlined in a worksheet which was intended to be a guide for presentation. The following skills as outlined by Remesh, (2013) are as follows: (a) development of the objectives of the presentation using Bloom’s taxonomy verbs (presentation objectives) (b) Construction of a plan to gain the attention of the audience (entering behavior/set induction) (c) Development of a strategy to explain the relevance of the topic to one’s audience (teaching strategy) (d) Involvement of the audience in the instruction (strategy to engage the audience) (e) Preparation of a written reflection of the experience (reflective practice).

Tutees were expected to submit completed worksheet the day of their presentation. They also prepared a lesson plan and submitted to the tutors. The tutors reviewed the worksheet and provide suggestions to the students before or after their presentations. The tutors by the use of performance based learning model, also designed a lesson plan in such a way as to ensure discussion, questions and answers to enhance participation from tutees. The intervention lasted for 8 weeks of 12 weeks’ semester. Regular classroom lectures were organized during the first 4 weeks, a pre-test was administered using the microteaching performance assessment developed and validated by one of the participating faculty of education experts for rating students’ competence in the skills. Thereafter, Cross age tutoring was implemented. After 4 weeks of the intervention, a post test was administered using the same guide to determine the effect of CAT on tutees performance. Results of the pre-test and post-test of the two groups were compared using the t-test for two independent samples.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 1 shows that the mean score of pretest of students in the control group is 32.63 with 4.773 SD, while the pretest mean score of students in the experimental group is 23.50 with 5.382 SD. The post test mean score for the control group is 35.25 with 5.297 SD, while the post test mean score for students in the experimental group is 34.47 with 5.733 SD. Hence, there exists a significant difference in pretest and posttest mean scores in teaching skills in both the experimental group and control group. This indicates that cross-age tutoring has an impact on students’ performance in teaching skills.
Table 1: Descriptive Statistics for the test scores (N = 60)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-test mean score (C)</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>32.63</td>
<td>4.773</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-test mean score (C)</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>35.25</td>
<td>5.297</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-test mean score (E)</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>23.50</td>
<td>5.382</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-test mean score (E)</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>34.47</td>
<td>5.733</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. C= Control, E=Experimental groups

Results of the paired sample t-test of the control group for students’ performance in teaching skills (table 2) indicate that the mean score of pretest in presentation of objectives (PO) is statistically significantly different from the mean score of posttest (t = 8.21, p = 0.00). The mean score of pretest in terms of Set Induction (SI) is statistically significantly different from the mean score of posttest (t = 7.07, p = 0.00). Also the mean score of pretest in terms of Teaching Strategy (TS) is statistically significantly different from the mean score of post test (t = 3.26, p = 0.00). Lastly, the mean score of pretest in terms of Reflective Practice (RP) is statistically significantly different from the mean score of posttest (t = 4.28, p = 0.00) (table 2).

Table 2: Paired Samples t-test of Control for students’ performance in teaching skills

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching Skills</th>
<th>Test</th>
<th>Pre</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Presentation Objectives (C)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>9.62</td>
<td>1.93</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>8.83</td>
<td>2.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Set Induction (C)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>9.23</td>
<td>2.11</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>8.67</td>
<td>2.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching Strategy (C)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>8.73</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>8.00</td>
<td>2.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reflective Practice (C)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>7.67</td>
<td>1.83</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>7.13</td>
<td>2.11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p < .05.

Note. M=mean, SD=standard deviation, C=Control

Table 3 reveals result of paired samples t-test of experimental group for students’ performance in teaching skills. Pretest mean score in terms students’ presentation of objectives (PO) is statistically significantly different from the mean of post test score (t = 13.74, p = 0.00). The mean score of pretest in terms of Set Induction (SI) is statistically significantly different from the mean of post test score (t = 10.34, p = 0.00). Also the mean of pretest score in terms of Teaching Strategy (TS) is statistically significantly different from a high mean score of post test scores (t = 11.02, p = 0.00). Lastly, the mean score of pretest in terms of reflective practice (RP) is statistically significantly different from the mean of post test scores (t = 9.59, p = 0.00) (table 3). Hence, Cross age tutoring significantly and positively impact on the students’ performance in teachings skills.

Table 3: Paired Samples t-test of experimental group for students’ performance in teaching skills

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching Skills</th>
<th>Test</th>
<th>Pre</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Presentation Objectives (E)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10.57</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>7.87</td>
<td>2.16</td>
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<tr>
<td>Set Induction (E)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>9.82</td>
<td>2.02</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>7.10</td>
<td>1.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching Strategy (E)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>8.63</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>5.35</td>
<td>1.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reflective Practice (E)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5.45</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>1.46</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p < .05.

Note. M=mean, SD=standard deviation, E=experimental group.

Table 4 below reveals result of independent samples of t-test and descriptive statistics for performance of students taught with cross-age tutoring (CAT) and those with conventional methods. The results indicate that at 5% level, there is no statistically significant difference between the mean performances of students in experimental and control group (t = -0.77, p = 0.438) (table 4). In other words, the mean
performance of students in experimental and control group are the same. However, there exists a significant difference in the posttest and pretest scores of third year low performing students in teaching skills after cross age intervention in the experimental group.

Table 4: Independent samples t-test and descriptive statistics for performance of students taught with different methods

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>CAT</th>
<th></th>
<th>CIS</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students Performance</td>
<td>34.47</td>
<td>5.73</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>35.25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p < .05.

Note. M=mean, SD=standard deviation, CAT= Cross –Age Tutoring, CIS = Conventional Instructional Strategies,

Table 5: Independent samples t-test and descriptive statistics for performance of students taught with CAT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th></th>
<th>Male</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>33.88</td>
<td>5.15</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>35.14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p < .05.

Note. M=mean, SD=standard deviation, CAT= Cross –Age Tutoring,

This result corroborates what previous studies have found in terms of enhancing students’ grade and facilitating skills and competences (Gaustad, 1993; Kalkowski, 1995; Kalkowski, 2001; Zhan, Bray, Wang, Lykins & Kwo, 2013;Basister, 2013; Berberoglu & Tansel, 2014; AbdulRaheem, Yusuf, & Odutayo, 2017). The reason may be attributed to the fact that tutors having gone through the microteaching exercise may be more patient in presenting skills in terms that tutees understand. In this case, tutees can easily ask questions. Tutors can as well pick up on things teachers were not able to because they have experienced similar problems. This explains why the students learn faster in a small group with peers with similar cognitive framework who are willing to offer guidance and support. This can have implications for theories of teacher development and improvement. Teachers can reflect on their teaching strategies.

5. CONCLUSION

Based on the findings of this study, there seems to be evidence to conclude that low performing students (tutees) during the microteaching exercise were positively affected by the implementation of cross-age tutoring. Third year low performing students were found to have improved core skills such as presentation of objectives, set induction, teaching approaches, strategies to involve students in teaching.

Thus, this paper suggests that universities can take practical steps to institutionalize the cross-age tutoring model especially in teaching skill development.

The quantitative study is limited to the effects of cross-age tutoring on tutees. Further qualitative studies should explore its effects on both tutors and tutees in order to have an in-depth view on reasons for the positive effects observed in the study.

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TEACHER EDUCATION- EXPERIENCES AND CHALLENGES

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ABSTRACT Teacher education is fundamental to the attainment of the objectives of education of any nation. In Nigeria for example, research reports indicates that during the past 18 years, the quality of teachers produced from the Nigeria’s various teacher education institutions have dropped significantly. This paper examines the various teaching experiences acquired through training including new skills gained and challenges encountered in the current teacher education programme in Nigeria that have contributed to the decline in teacher quality and experiences. It was discovered that poor quality of candidates admitted, lack of interest to take teaching as career, poor funding, poor public image of the teacher, high incidence of examination malpractice among student-teachers and lack of motivation and good incentives among teacher educators are some of the challenges on teacher education. The paper recommends that Government at all levels and all nations should increase funding of teacher education, high quality students should be admitted, Government should initiate programmes that can enhance the status of the teaching profession etc.

KEYWORDS: Teacher Education, Experiences, Challenges

INTRODUCTION
Education is the bedrock of national and sustainable development. It is an important instrument for social, economic and political transformation and sustainability in the society. Through the various educational system, human beings as raw materials are transformed into finished products and sent to the labour market for society’s development. For this reason, education is an important instrument for national development, environmental sustainability, human capital and capacity development. It is responsible for moulding every individual in the society to work towards earning a livelihood for sustainable and contribution towards national development. The standard and quality of education in any nation does not only depend or count on policy directives but as well as depend and also count on those elements (teachers) who contribute in so many ways to give quality educational inputs and resources that implement educational policies and carryout the teaching activities at the school level. They are the spindle that rotate the educational process and the pivot on which experiences will be gained, skills acquired in order to eliminate the crisis rocking children’s learning in the classroom. Therefore, any attempt made toward better teacher education will help to achieve education beyond the crisis adoption of new skills, enhancement of children’s rights to education, better teaching contexts provided the challenges bedevilling teacher education are eliminated.

Furthermore, the fundamental purpose of teacher education is not only to give teachers skills which will improve their results, but also to equip our trainee-teachers at all levels, with the capability of self-learning, in order to be creators, originators and inventors of information rather than consumers of information. Teacher education is a professional education of teachers towards attainment of better experiences, attitudes, skills and knowledge considered desirable so as to make them efficient and effective in their work in accordance to the needs of the society at any point in time (Osuji, 2009). Olaitan (2002) observed that teacher education is setup to inculcate the right kind of attitudes, relevant to the ever-expanding horizon of knowledge, and personal attitudes such as self-discipline, understanding, sympathy, and a pride in the profession.

Teachers drive educational programmes because they are the actual implementers of educational outcomes. For teachers to survive in a globalized world, there is need for the mastery of some basic
survival skills and experiences in science and technology, agriculture, entrepreneurship, ICT and global competitiveness. This according to Obanya (2004) will enable them to meet global learning needs. In Nigerian universities, for instance, Federal Ministry of Education (2007) observed that adequate preparation is made to improve professional teacher education through the establishment of Institute of Education and Faculties of Education. Similarly, other institutions that offer professional training for teachers include: Colleges of Education, National Teachers Institute, Schools of Education in Polytechnics etc (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2004). The importance of teacher education cannot be overemphasized. Afe (2003) maintained that the focus of any educational programme should be on the teacher who is crucial in translating policy into practice. Equally, Ofojebe (2006) posits that any nation that is serious about manpower development must pay particular attention to the education of teachers than that of any other fields because the teachers are more directly related to the development of manpower through the impartation of knowledge, skill and expertise needed to equip one into useful living in the society. The above mentioned variables will enhance gaining of experience because experience they say is the best teacher.

1. TEACHER EDUCATION
Teachers are the distinct occupational group of people specially equipped by training to undertake the task of educating in institutions socially designed responsibility for education. Teacher education according to Federal Ministry of Education (2007) refers to be the education and training in specialized areas of knowledge known as Education, History of Education, Psychology of Education, some administrative techniques as well as in subject contents and in the actual practice of the work of the teacher. Teacher education is not a one-shot affair that ends when the formal programme of study is completed and a certificate is awarded. A good deal of what constitute teacher’s education is learnt in actual teaching situations after the completion of the formal programme of education. One is however, a teacher when he/she successfully completes a specially designed and organized set of learning experiences for a given teaching certificate. Such learning experiences can be undertaken either within or outside the institution but it is always under the auspices of some institutions.

2. APPROACHES TO TEACHER EDUCATION
Approaches to teacher education refer to the pattern or mode by which the assignment of educating teachers is undertaken. One can take pattern or mode of teacher education to refer to one or the other of pre-service or inservice teacher education. Pre-service teacher education according to Kanu (2008) refers to the education for teaching undertaken prior to first appointment into teaching. Kanu further stated inservice teacher education on the other hand refers to teacher education received while already in the teaching service. Preservice education provides the initial and foundational knowledge for teaching as well as the basic certification that earns the individual the title “teacher”. Inservice education on the other hand, serves to provide basis for upgrading the teacher.

3. TEACHER EXPERIENCES
Experience is the knowledge or mastery of an event or subject gained through involvement in or exposure to it. It is familiarity with a skill or field of knowledge acquired over months or years of actual practice. Experience is knowledge or skill in a particular job or activity which one gains because he has done that job or activity for a long-time. Therefore, adequate experience will enable the teacher to perform the following roles:
(a) Sound subject matter mastery
(b) Curriculum development
(c) Instructional management
(d) Curriculum/learning evaluation
(e) Interpersonal collaboration
(f) Student counselling
(g) Professional self development
As a result of experience that enable the teacher to perform these roles, crisis in the classroom learning due to poor method of teaching will be eliminated, new skills will be enhanced and children’s right to education will be assured.

4. POSITION OF EDUCATION IN NIGERIA

How things are with Education in developed countries may have sharp contrast with that of the developing countries which Nigeria our country is a case study. For instance, in Nigeria, the number of applicants vying for teaching vacancies is always in astronomical progression. Prospective teachers who pass out from teacher education institutions are not employed due to Government attitude to education. This has created unemployment among trained teachers. As a result of this Government action, schools have fewer teachers serving in the system. Even when the applicants are later recruited into teaching service, they are paid mega salary. These poor remunerations makes them to live below poverty level thereby resulting to low standard of living. More so, in Nigeria, teacher education institutions have been turning out teachers in their numbers while Government on her part, has not been able to engage them into service. This has led prospective teachers not to take teaching job seriously therefore, the position of education in Nigeria as one of the developing nations has not been receiving the needed attention.

5. CHALLENGES OF TEACHER EDUCATION

The following are some of the challenges confronting teacher education in some of the third world countries. They include:

1. Quality of Students Admitted for the Programme: One of the basic challenges of the present day teacher education particularly in Nigeria is the gross inadequacy of the entry qualifications of the candidates admitted into the programme especially at the NCE levels.

2. Complete Lack of Genuine Interest in Teaching as a Career: Most of the entrants into teacher education programme in some nations of the world do not have any significant interest in the teaching profession. They just see it as a stepping-stone to more lucrative professions or as a matter of last resort. This observation is in line with Akinbote (2007) who reported that 87% of all the students enrolled in Colleges of Education in Nigeria either use the college as a stepping-stone or could not be offered admission by any institution.

3. Poor Funding of Education in African Countries: Education in general and teacher education in particular has not received the necessary attention it requires in some of the African countries and Nigeria inclusive as it affects funding. For instance, UNESCO has recommended that 26% of the total budget of a nation should be allocated to education. But Longe Commission of 1991 observed that the percentage of recurrent budgetary allocation to education in Nigeria has never exceeded 10%.

4. Poor Public Image of the Teachers: The poor public perception of teachers and the teaching profession in some countries is one of the greatest challenges of teachers-education in the 21st century. This poor public perception of the teaching profession is as a result of combination of several factors including poor entry qualification, politicization of education, gross starvation of education with funds and shabby treatment of teachers of all cadres.

5. High Incidence of Examination Malpractice: As a result of the academically weak students enrolled in most teacher education institutions, coupled with congested examination halls, low morale of teacher-educators and so on, there is an observed high incidence of examination malpractice among the student-teachers.

6. CONCLUSION

Teacher education is very crucial in the nations educational system because it is through the instrumentality of the teachers that the curriculum finds its actualization. Teachers are the major agents through which knowledge is passed from generation to another and therefore, they are very fundamental in any human resource development effort. However, it has been observed that the quality of the products of our current teacher education programmes is on a serious decline. Teachers who are academically weak and ill-motivated are being produced as a result of a combination of several factors including poor quality of candidates admitted, lack of genuine interests to taking teaching as a career,
poor funding of teacher education institutions, poor public perception of teachers and teaching as a profession, high incidence of examination malpractices among student-teachers and so on.

7. RECOMMENDATIONS
Considering the importance and the critical position of the teaching profession in national development, government at all levels of every nations, should as a matter of urgency take immediate steps to address some if not all the challenges identified to safeguard the future of teacher education in all nations. This if done, could help teachers to acquire relevant experience, make education crisis free, develop new skills in teachers, offer children the right to education and teaching context.

REFERENCES
PHOTOVOICE IN TEACHER EDUCATION: A SYSTEMATIC REVIEW

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ABSTRACT In spite of considerable attention drawn to the use of Photovoice in human and public organization studies, its effectiveness often remains unknown. No study has comprehensively investigated the application of Photovoice as a qualitative participatory action research methodology. Very few studies have specifically examined the possibility of Photovoice in supporting teacher development. The aim of this study was to examine systematically the literature to identify the potentiality of using Photovoice in the facilitation of teacher learning.

Methods: The websites of SSCI journals specialized in teacher education were searched using specific key words, and published peer-reviewed articles from 2009 to 2018 were scanned for inclusion criteria. Implications of the findings of the study are discussed at the end of the paper.

KEYWORDS: Photovoice, systematic review, teacher development, teacher education, teacher learning

INTRODUCTION
Photovoice (Wang & Burris, 1994), as a qualitative method used for community-based participatory research (CBPR), was developed by Caroline C. Wang and Mary Ann Burris in 1992 (formerly, Photovoice is called ‘Photo Novella’). This research method provides chances to take photographs which address a salient community concern. Then, the participants present the photos in group discussion(s). Through the discussions, critical dialogue and community identities will be formed so the aim of empowerment and consciousness-raising will be achieved. Wang and Burris identified there are three conceptual roots of Photovoice: Freire’s critical dialogue, feminist theories and documentary photography.

Wang and Burris mentioned there are three main goals of Photovoice: (1) to enable people to record and reflect community’s strengths and concerns, (2) to promote critical dialogue through large and small groups of discussions and (3) to reach the process of policy-making. Although Wang & Burris clearly addressed the concepts and method of Photovoice, there is no unified method. Researchers adopted and reformed the design of the plan to satisfy the needs, for example, the aim of research and the details of implementation. Researchers in the field of education also rearranged the purposes, procedures and implementation of Photovoice to satisfy their own needs: Researchers used Photovoice to generate the critical awareness of students and teachers while teachers implemented Photovoice as a pedagogical tool. Besides, not all studies mentioned they could achieve the goal of processing policy-making. This essay will introduce the use of Photovoice in educational studies and illustrate the limitations and further development in the use of Photovoice in educational studies.

1. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK
Systematic review has received much attention in scientific and academic fields for its great power in providing ‘high level of evidence’ to inform recommendations and contribute to the development of new knowledge (Higgins & Green, 2011). Recently, systematic reviews have been done to find out the effectiveness of applications of different research methods, for example, survey (VanGeest, Johnson, & Welch, 2007). However, very few systematic review studies were conducted in studying the application of qualitative research methodology in the field of education (Dixon-Woods, Fitzpatrick, & Roberts, 2001).
2. METHODOLOGY
The systematic literature review process involves data collection and synthesis (Figure 1). First, the researchers identified relevant Social Science Citation Index (SSCI) journals for journal paper search. SSCI journals were selected because these journals were of high quality in the field of educational research. To understand the recent trend of using Photovoice, journals with publication dates falling between 2009 to 2018 are included in the search. After delineating the time frame of the literature search, the keyword search was done in the SSCI journal websites. The keyword used was “Photovoice”/“Photovoice” to turn in more related results. However, not all articles that appeared in the search were used for the literature review. Only those were written in English, and full-text available empirical papers are counted and reviewed. A preliminary review was firstly conducted to ensure that these articles are relevant to the educational research using Photovoice. Some of the articles that contained the key terms “Photovoice” but they were not related to the research, such as stating “Photovoice” as one of the examples for teaching and learning activities, were discarded and not reviewed. Those articles were relevant to educational researches were analysed quantitatively and qualitatively by organizing the contents of these paper based on the location of study, year of publication, data collection methods, targeted groups in the research, advantages and limitations of using Photovoice. Data analysis included descriptive analysis, i.e., counting the number of published papers, year of publication, the origin of papers and target groups, using Microsoft Office Excel tables. Also, using coding strategies with the use of NVivo (version 11.0) software, content analysis was done to generate and search for patterns as emerged from the contents of paper (i.e. limitations of the study, future research directions) (Bazeley, 2013; Clarke & Braun, 2013). A preset coding system was initially used to identify and construct themes. Examples of codes included a generalization of the study, data collection methods, targeted participants, advantages and limitations of using Photovoice.

3. RESULTS
After conducting the literature search, a total of six articles were identified (Table 1). Among the six relevant articles, two articles related to “Photovoice” appeared in the South African Journal of Education, one is found in the Journal of Teacher Education, while three are published in the Teaching and Teacher Education. It is discovered that these six articles are scattered from 2012 to 2016. There was around one to two relevant articles per year.
Photovoice as one of the “optional way” (Seobi & Wood, 2016) and difficulty in facilitating students’ (1997) and Moran & Tegano (2005) were stated in details. Meanwhile, most of teacher education is valuable and important. On one hand, Photovoice helps "expose insights into mechanisms by which teachers engage in new practices" (Hamilton, 2016, p. 36), “move[s] beyond traditional forms and shapes of knowledge” (Bailey & Van Harken, 2014, p. 243) “tr[ies] to understand teachers own learning trajectories holistically within the school arena” (Wolffenden & Buckler, 2013, p. 195), and “represent their [teachers’] ideas in meaningful and potentially innovative ways” (Hamilton, 2016, p. 36). Although the advantages and values of the application of Photovoice were certainly assured, there still existed limitations when conducting Photovoice. Disappointingly, very few identified papers explicitly stated the limitations of the use of Photovoice, which included the insufficient time for teachers to work together in “a relational way” (Seobi & Wood, 2016) and difficulty in facilitating students’ transmediation processes when engaging students in thinking (Bailey & Van Harken, 2014). Remarkably, despite that Photovoice can be used for informing policy, only one of these studies proposed that the findings could assist in policy formulation about developing democratic citizenship (i.e. Joubert, 2012). This implies that the results of the “original” purpose of Photovoice may have been “marginalized” and limited to practical purpose (e.g. helping teacher reflection) in the field of education. This may require further inquiry about the nature of Photovoice and its relation with educational policies.

### 4. IMPLICATIONS/DISCUSSION

This study demonstrated that the use of Photovoice was not a widely-used research methodology in the field of education in the past decade. Only six studies applied Photovoice in studying the experiences and/or views of students or teachers. Four of the identified studies used Photovoice as one of the research methods in data collection. Only three of the Photovoice studies described how Photovoice was used as a research methodology in the paper, whereas the procedures with reference to the original works such as Wang & Burris (1997) and Moran & Tegano (2005) were stated in details. Meanwhile, most of the studies described the benefits and rationale behind the choice of Photovoice. Photovoice was commonly regarded as an innovative self-reflection tool that “begins to offer us a glimpse of the mechanisms by which teachers engage in new practices” (Hamilton, 2016, p. 36), “move[s] beyond traditional forms and shapes of knowledge” (Bailey & Van Harken, 2014, p. 243) “tr[ies] to understand teachers own learning trajectories holistically within the school arena” (Wolffenden & Buckler, 2013, p. 195), and “represent their [teachers’] ideas in meaningful and potentially innovative ways” (Hamilton, 2016, p. 36). Although the advantages and values of the application of Photovoice were certainly assured, there still existed limitations when conducting Photovoice. Disappointingly, very few identified papers explicitly stated the limitations of the use of Photovoice, which included the insufficient time for teachers to work together in “a relational way” (Seobi & Wood, 2016) and difficulty in facilitating students’ transmediation processes when engaging students in thinking (Bailey & Van Harken, 2014).

Remarkably, despite that Photovoice can be used for informing policy, only one of these studies proposed that the findings could assist in policy formulation about developing democratic citizenship (i.e. Joubert, 2012). This implies that the results of the “original” purpose of Photovoice may have been “marginalized” and limited to practical purpose (e.g. helping teacher reflection) in the field of education. This may require further inquiry about the nature of Photovoice and its relation with educational policies.

### 5. CONCLUSIONS

This systematic review explored the potentiality of using Photovoice as a research methodology. Photovoice was scarcely used in the educational field. Although there is imbalance in its application in different levels of education (i.e. primary education vs. teacher education), Photovoice in supporting student learning and teacher education is valuable and important. On one hand, Photovoice helps students to co-construct meanings and develop (deep) thinking. On the other hand, Photovoice has high potentials in promoting reflective practice of teachers, where it can help “expose insights into mechanisms of change in teachers’ practices and thinking that may not easily be visible through other methods” (Wolffenden & Buckler, 2013, p. 19). This study leads us to get better prepared for applying Photovoice taking the “identified” limitations into consideration, where time and getting students and/or teachers ready for its application should be addressed in future Photovoice studies. Further inquiries should be addressed regarding how Photovoice can play a possible role in influencing and facilitating educational policies.

### REFERENCES (*IDENTIFIED PAPERS IN THE SYSTEMATIC REVIEW STUDY*)


SECTION 5

EDUCATION IN A MULTICULTURAL WORLD
BLACK YOUTH AND HIGH SCHOOL IN THE BRAZILIAN CONTEXT: REFLECTIONS ON AFRO-BRAZILIAN AND AFRICAN HISTORY AND CULTURE

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ABSTRACT
This paper presents results of a doctoral research developed in the Postgraduation Program in Education of the State University of Campinas (Brazil). The goal is identify what the young students know on Afro-Brazilian history and culture and if the schools include this as a theme in their curriculum. As a theoretical reference, we considered the sociological studies on race and youth. It is an ethnographic research and we collection data through semi-structured interview with teachers and students from both schools. The results are that they have a superficial view on Africa and most teachers do not know the content and can not be addressed in their lessons. We conclude that the lack of continued education, lack of working conditions for teachers and the “myth of racial democracy” that makes racism invisible in Brazil, and do not allow teachers to seek knowledge about Africa.

KEYWORDS: High School; Youth; Afro-Brazilian Studies; Everyday School

INTRODUCTION
In her book “The black educator movement: reignifying and politicizing the race” Gomes (20012; 2017) shows that through a process of politicization of the idea of race as a structuring structure, the black movement came to occupy a sine qua non place in the constitution of the education of ethnic-racial relationship in Brazil as a form of emancipation, contributing strongly both to the structuring of the State and to the construction of daily relationship.

As a result of the effective participation in social structure, the black movement acted directly in educational policies, in order to be the main responsible for the elaboration of several antiracist laws in states and cities in the 1990s, such as Bahia, Belém, Aracaju, São Paulo, Teresina and Distrito Federal (Santos, 2005). According to Monteiro (2010) the process of elaboration of the Law of Directives and Basis of National Education (LDB) was intense, but in this process, the Black Movement lost space and the importance of a law that established the teaching of Afro-Brazilian History and Culture was considered secondary.

After the adoption of the law, the article 26º §4, established that the treatment of history should consider the three main foundations founders of Brazilian society (African, European and Indigenous). It seems that the law was not specific enough to guarantee the treatment of an Afro-Brazilian history and culture. The final document did not contemplate everything that provided for the initial project, also for the reason that the last draftsman of the law was Senator Darcy Ribeiro, who adopted a Freyrean perspective, the most accepted between the 30s and 50s, both in the national and international academic environment, and in the main intergovernmental bodies such as the United Nations Organization (UNO) and the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), which affirmed that Brazil was privileged to be a racial democracy, a vision which still exists both in the academy and in everyday practices and discourses (Gomes, 2005).

As a result of a broad process of political and social struggles led by Black Educator Movement and academic intellectuals and activists interested in the subject of anti-racism, appeared the law number 10.639/03, which amends the LDB 9.394/96 and provides that the contents referring to Afro-Brazilian History and Culture will be taught within the scope of the entire school curriculum, especially in the areas of Art Education and Brazilian Literature and History. Published as an affirmative action law, signed by former president Luís Inácio Lula da Silva, in order to promote the reduction of racial inequalities and social quality in the educational field.

The law 10.639/03 (Brazil, 2004), emerges as an attempt to repair racism and seeks to deconstruct the myth of racial democracy, responsible for silencing everyday racial damage and conflicts, as well as the deconstruction of the whitening ideology, which is responsible for constructing prejudiced identities that
are inferior blacks people in Brazil. The law aims at implementing an anti-racist pedagogy that is capable of promoting an egalitarian education, in order words, providing an education that values and recognizes the importance of black culture in building an egalitarian society. However, it is a fact that, despite the precarious scenario of initial and continuous teachers formation, the publication of the law has influenced the formation offered by some public education networks, for example, even though with some timidity and resistance (Corsino, 2015). In this sense, through qualitative ethnographic research, using semi-structured interviews, the present work aims to identify what young students know about Afro-Brazilian and African History and culture and whether schools include this theme in their curriculum.

1. YOUNG HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS: KNOWLEDGE ABOUT AFRICA

During the interviews, it was evidenced that even with Law 10.639/03, the school is still a place where learning about African and Afro-Brazilian History and Culture are almost nil. In answering if there was any matter that addressed racism in High School, Cah and Mano Brown said yes, while Bela said that already, but was very little, Nando and Ruiva said no. Cah, Mano Brown and Téeh said that they studied Africa in Geography and Bela in Sociology, a fact that shows how the Teaching of Afro-Brazilian and African History and Culture has been neglected in High School, even after Law 10.639/03.

In answering the question "what do you know about Africa? ", Cah affirms that it is a country, she indicates that she learned this on the internet and that Africa is a place of suffering, but she exalts its beauty

Researcher: What do you know about Africa?
Cah: That he is a country, very (...) to me he is a very beautiful country. Because, like, despite everything he goes through, the lack of water, the lack of (thoughtful), these things, it's a very beautiful country, do you understand?

Researcher: You said it's a very beautiful place. Where did you learn this?
Cah: On the internet, I saw some photos that I also saw on the internet. (Excerpt from interview with Cah).

After saying that Afro-Brazilian and African History and Culture was practically non-existent during classes in High School, Bela indicates that she knows only that this place was the scene of the traffic of enslaved people and that it has many animals, presenting a romantic view, seen in most cases, in cartoons and movies:

Researcher: And what do you know about Africa?
Bela: Africa? I know a lot (laughs). There are some animals there, which are big animals, there are a lot of black people, that before, when, whites took the black people to serve as slaves, I know these things.

Researcher: And where did you learn?
Bela: At school, at school. (Excerpt from the interview with Bela).

Like Bela and Cah, Nando says that Africa is a place where there is a lot of hunger, misery and stress that everything he learned about Africa was out of school. Ruiva says she knows absolutely nothing about Africa

Researcher: Do you know anything about Africa?
Nando: I know a little about Africa, for ... the newspapers, right? That appears there, some 'thin' children, starving, who has nothing to eat.

Researcher: So everything you know about Africa was out of school that you learned?
Nando: It was out of school that I learned.

Researcher: And do you know something good about Africa?
Nando: No.

Téeh says that she does not know anything about Africa, but that in the old school, when she attended Primary School in a school in the City Hall of São Paulo, she heard about it, but that she does not listen
anymore and that everything she knows about Africa is that there is hunger and suffering, and that was learned in school and on television.

Researcher: What do you know about Africa?
Téhh: Today I think I do not know anything else because I forgot (laughs).
Researcher: Anything have in Africa, where is it, anything you know?
Téhh: I only know that there are very hungry people, these things.
Researcher: Where did you learn what you said?
Téhh: Well, I learned in my old school and at home, on television you see a lot.
Researcher: Have you learned anything good about Africa yet?
Téhh: No.
Researcher: Nothing?
Téhh: No. (Excerpt from interview with Téhh)

In corroborating with the other students, Mano Brown highlights the suffering and lack of structure of the African continent and indicates that he learned this in geography, having learned nothing good about the History and Culture of this place.

Researcher: What do you know about Africa?
Mano Brown: That there are poor people, who do not have much structure.
Researcher: Where did you learn this?
Mano Brown: In geography.
Researcher: Have you learned anything good about Africa in school?
Mano Brown: About Africa (...) If I’m not mistaken, I do not think so. (Excerpt from the interview with Mano Brown).

The data corroborate with the research carried out in the city of Campinas and published in the Brazilian Journal of Black Researchers by Ângela Soligo and other researchers (Soligo, et al, 2018), the authors show that despite the teaching of Afro-Brazilian and African History and Culture appear in formal curriculum and other official documents due to educational policies such as Law 10.639/03, their actual teaching has not yet entered the school space as it should. The study of Afro-Brazilian and African History and Culture, according to the interviewed students, still occurs precariously, reproducing an imagery of misery and suffering, a typical scenario of what is shown in the vast majority of films and medias in general. It is no wonder that the school still treated the study of African and African History and Culture in a precarious way, the data of the interviews corroborate with what Munanga (2015) draws attention, noting that the teaching of history still disregards Africa as a place with a positive history.

The critical analysis of the Brazilian historiography still shows that this history was taught in a distorted, falsified and prejudiced way, compared to the history of other continents, mainly of the European continent and Brazilians of European descent (Munanga, 2015, p.25).

In addition, this subject has been addressed only in specific disciplines of the human sciences, such as sociology and geography and superficially, contrary to what is provided in the National Curricular Guidelines for the Education of Ethnic-Racial Relations and Teaching Afro-Brazilian and African History and Culture, which indicates that “§ 2º The contents referring to Afro-Brazilian History and Culture will be taught within the scope of the entire school curriculum, especially in the areas of Art Education and Brazilian Literature and History” (Brazil, 2004, p. 35), emphasizes those of Arts, Literature and History, but does not exempt the other curricular components.

2. TEACHERS AND KNOWLEDGE ABOUT THE TEACHING OF AFRO-BRAZILIAN AND AFRICAN HISTORY AND CULTURE

Joana, a 22-year-old teacher, has been working for a little less than one year, started school in August, graduated in Portuguese/English Literature in 2015, does not have a postgraduate degree, but specializes in Psychopedagogy. Heterosexual, is a member of the Jehovah's Witness religion and was chosen to participate in the survey by the comments of the students, who always made a point of exalting their
classes and pointing out that they liked the way it happened. Joana has the white phenotype, but she identifies herself as black because she realizes that she has African offspring. If I were to characterize myself I would not be white, I would characterize myself as black, my grandfather is black, my grandfather is Afrodescendant (....).

Joana reports that she was know the Law 10.639/03 in a very superficial way, since she was able to study it during her undergraduate course, which is still in progress, and has also shown that she knows Law 11.645/08, which provides for the teaching of indigenous culture, who would work the laws with the students during their classes.

Joana reports that she knows African literature because she did it on her own initiative, but did not have anything to deepen the study about this subject during her undergraduate classes and it was not she offered by the institution where she works as a continuing education course. In addition, Joana supports the law, stating that all teachers should work on Afro-Brazilian and African History and Culture, pointing out that knowledge on this subject is of central importance for the elimination of everyday discrimination, a fact that she relates to learning of the knowledges to the daily oppressions inside and outside the school.

Ana is an effective teacher of Geography in School, 40 years old, Catholic, heterosexual, who identifies herself as white. Graduated in Geography in the year of 2004, Ana also has formation in Pedagogy and a lato sensu specialization in Geography Teaching. She has been teaching for about 10 years and she is trying to update herself through specific courses and readings. According to the teacher, the educational system offers courses for updating, some in the Distance Learning mode and others in the classroom, but in daily life there is no formation the formative meetings are used only for general reports and specific conversations about some students.

When asked if she knows the law 10.639/03, Ana affirms that yes, it is a law that falls in contests and that it knew it in a preparatory course for the contest, but initially it does not respond to the questioning of adequate form and demonstrates not knowing the content of the legislation indeed. In addition, Ana never saw anything about the law during graduation, which ended in the year 2004, a year after the law publication.

The Geography teacher reports addressing the law in her classes and understands that the content is diluted, however, does not explain how this is diluted or even how it appears in class, only reports addressing the formation of the Brazilian population asking students to portray the diversity of the Brazilian population in comics.

The report of teacher Ana is representative of what is called racial democracy in Brazil and that for a long time was considered the national identity. In saying that it addresses the formation of the Brazilian population and demands that its students represent it through the diversity of our country, the teacher demonstrates a romantic vision of society, which was treated by Gilberto Freyre and all the adherents of the miscegenation as something representative diversity and racial democracy in Brazil (Munanga, 2015).

In addition, Ana refers to high school students as lazier than those in elementary school, without explaining what in fact makes her think that way, but which indicates a biological view about adolescence, which generalizes and naturalizes the behavior of young students, considering what Bourdieu (1983) calls attention in his text "Youth is just a word" when questioning the youth as a biological category and problematizes it as a social time.

Wilson is a teacher of twenty-eight years old, has been working for three years as an substitute teacher at school, graduated in History in 2013, does not have a postgraduate degree, but intends to take a Masters in Religion Sciences. He says he follows the Adventist religion and was chosen to participate in the survey because of his proximity to the students and the large number of classes he applied to all classes because the number of missing teachers was very high. He declares himself a black person because of the phenotype and its cultural approximations.

When asked about Law 10.639/03, Wilson says that he knows it, but does not know much about it, according to the teacher, he learned about it on the internet and during graduation, there was a superficial passage about the law and lacking in depth about its content, it does not apply as it should in its classrooms.

For Wilson, the rush of everyday life and the lack of time does not allow him to delve into the law and enable its application in class. In addition, he understands that the curriculum of the state network does
not offer subsidies for law enforcement, although he affirms that it approach is extremely important because he sees that African history and culture are related to the formation of Brazil.

Researcher: Do you think the state network curriculum offers law enforcement grants?
Wilson: Yeah, no, I do not think so.
Researcher: Do you think that teaching of Afro-Brazilian and African History and Culture is important?
Wilson: Certainly, totally important, because the black people, they are part of, as I can say, the formation of Brazil, right? So it is, so it has to be addressed, because we all have black blood, right? Both black and indigenous right? Indigenous, so it is, it has to be approached yes, totally addressed, in the lessons, right? And it has to be approached yes, totally, every day to approach and talk about the African poles, their origin, is, where it came from, where it was and such, and tackling, it has to be approached, totally. (Excerpt from interview with Wilson)

As seen, the possibility of training offered is restricted for certain categories of teachers, their omission incurs less possibilities for courses and formative activities and may be related to the lesser opportunity of access to reflection on the processes of daily oppression within the school, so as to contribute strongly to the potentialization of racism, sexism, homophobia and elitism within the relations between students and teachers. In addition, even effective teachers do not have an adequate continuing formation, which allows a greater reflection on the teaching of Afro-Brazilian and African History and Culture, for example.

3. FINAL CONSIDERATIONS
Both oppressor and oppressed are subject to a reproduction of racist, sexist, homophobic, and elitist values, insofar as they are likely to see the processes that are omitted. In the public educational system in São Paulo, teachers are categorized in letters, the teacher who is classified as O category is hired for a limited time and has less privileges, unlike the effective one, who is the one with the greatest privileges for having entered by public tender - as greater possibilities of access to the formation offered by the public educacional system.

The lack of knowledge of the law, as well as the lack of offer of formation on teaching and Afro-Brazilian and African History and Culture potentializing racism, and institutionalizes everyday racism in school, not only through jokes between students and/or even teachers, but because of the lack of reflection on the set of knowledge produced in Africa which crosses, influences and builds the economy, culture, arts, manifestations of body culture and many other areas in Brazil. In this way, racism reaches both students and teachers in the school institution, and often do not even know its concept.

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TEACHER PROFESSIONAL COOPERATION: A SELF-DIRECTED, SCHOOL-BASED TEAM

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ABSTRACT This presentation focuses on a school-based research in progress, about the formation and function of a learning community in a suburban school near Athens, Greece. In times of economic crisis for all Greek citizens, the hierarchically structured, centralized educational system is faced with challenges that teachers are called to confront without any former training. Facing the risk of de-professionalization, the participants of this qualitative study decided to form a self-directed team, following the participative inquiry paradigm, in order to improve their students' learning and to act as informed agents. On average ten teachers per year (23 in total) met regularly every 15 days for approximately one and a half hour. The team's life span lasted for almost six years. Rich data from the meetings' discussions were collected and analyzed using the grounded theory methodology. The findings show that the cooperative teacher team of this study managed to address the challenges faced in the school context, discuss alternative instructional methods and negotiate their own educational theories and emotions through critical and reflective dialogue. The importance of this study lies mostly on two facts. First, it was neither imposed by any educational policy nor was it a result of a university-school alliance. Second, this teacher team grew as the result of the teachers' will to discover their hidden intellectual capital, their social capital and their limits in order to develop as collaborative professionals and face successfully the challenges that arise in difficult working conditions.

KEYWORDS: teacher cooperation, professional development, school-based team

INTRODUCTION

This presentation, as part of a Ph.D. dissertation in progress, attempts to complement the lack of longitudinal educational research which document and present the authentic school life, with a special focus on the Greek educational system. For almost six years the actual work of a self-initiated, self-directed teacher team has been recorded and then analyzed. The purpose of the analysis is to shed light on whether a teacher team can be transformed into a professional learning community that will change the malfunctions of their workplace, supported only by their intellectual, cultural, emotional and social capital. The way this team has operated is actually the way that a co-operative inquiry is conducted (Heron 1996 Heron & Reason 1997, 2006). The gathered data is analyzed under the prism of Grounded Theory Methodology (Corbin & Strauss, 2015 Charmaz, 2014) and, thus, the research belongs to qualitative social research, at the subcategory of educational and lifelong learning research. It, also, lies between the constructivist and participatory paradigm (Denzin & Lincoln 2000) since Grounded Theory Methodology is a method used by researchers of the first paradigm while co-operative inquiry is featured in the second.

1. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Heron and Reason (2006:144) define cooperative inquiry as the way that people who have similar interests and concerns, collaborate with each other. The purpose of their collaboration is to make them understand the world, to give meaning to their personal life, to develop new and creative ways of viewing things and to learn how to act in order to change what needs to be improved. It is a form of participative, person-centered research, which is conducted with other people rather than "on" or "about" other people, which is its main difference from "classical" qualitative research. Here, the participants are co-inquirers and decide together the subject and the procedures of their research (Heron, 1996:9-11) Co-operative inquiry accepts that:

- there is a subjective-objective reality
- there are four forms of knowing (experiential, presentational, propositional and practical)
- the co-inquirers should participate in collaborative action inquiry
- human flourishing is an end in itself (Heron and Reason, 1997).
As a research methodology, it is a cycle of four phases which includes action and reflection, mostly oriented in the action which transforms the being and the world of the participants (Heron 1996:104). It is closely linked to other forms of participatory research, such as the action research stemming from Kurt Lewin's work, some forms of feminist research, the emancipatory action research, and the appreciative inquiry (Heron and Reason, 1997:282).

In the case presented here, the teachers of a suburban primary school in Greece, jointly took the decision to explore their practice and to improve what they perceived as a problem, reducing at the same time isolation and the egg-crated effect in their school. Their purpose was to provide better quality teaching to their students for their well-being and to create a safe environment for their exchanges within their workplace. The team managed to create an inter-subjective place where the co-inquirers developed a common culture, a common language and vision of schooling. Although the four phases of cooperative inquiry are visible in their work, there are also flaws, inconsistencies and other challenges the team must face. One of its main features was the participative decision making in every aspect of school life. This gave all voices the opportunity to be heard and respected by each other, creating a safe and trustworthy environment for implementing innovations.

2.METHODOLOGY.

The team met regularly every second week, approximately 90 minutes, after school lessons. Sometimes they followed a discussion protocol and a prepared agenda, while other times the discussions were spontaneous and unplanned, but they concerned subjects of great interest among members or challenging incidents (in diagram 1, one can see the discussed subjects). All these discussions were recorded by the researcher, with the permission of all participants, providing rich and authentic data for the analysis, a rare and particularly precious feature for a qualitative research in school context in general.

Grounded theory was selected as a suitable method for the analysis of these data especially due to the fact that it provides the means to build a theory well-grounded on data. Originated in Pragmatism, Symbolic Interactionism and Constructivism, it offers a nonlinear coding procedure during which the researcher is immersed in the data and at the same time he/she tries to view the big picture, the patterns that the data dictate. After the initial coding and the first memo writing, tentative categories appear and they are compared with the data in order to replace them or to find out what gaps in meaning still exist. In a successively abstractive way, focused codes and categories, with the help of theoretical sampling, are integrated into a theory. The suggested theory is interpretive, it has its roots to the specific data and it represents them in a more generic way without losing its situational feature. This kind of theorization indicates the researcher’s involvement in theory construction and it denotes its fluid and tentative essence (Corbin & Strauss, 2015; Charmaz, 2014)
Due to the volume of the data (almost 70 discussions) Dedoose (2018) software was used to help data organization and categorization.

3. FOCUSED CODING – TENTATIVE CATEGORIES

Since this research is still in the analysis process, we cannot present the integrated theory yet, but only interesting tentative categories. One very interesting aspect that has come up through the discussion analysis is the teacher emotions and successively the emotional capital the team revealed. Teacher’s emotions, although they perform a caring profession which entails human interaction, is under-researched. Teachers develop emotions for people, educational structures, institutions, values, and ideals. Since they invest a great deal of their identity in their profession they experience intense emotional reactions in their workplace (Nias, 1996:293-4; Hargreaves, 2001:505; Zembylas, 2007).

Considering emotions form a post-structural perspective, they can be associated with discourses and discursive practices which tend to control the way teachers feel in school contexts. For instance, the rational management of emotions is a technique that power discourses use to define which emotions are typical and can be the norm of teacher’s emotional behavior in the workplace. Particularly, when these norms are turned into desirable skills, according to which teachers will be evaluated, it’s time teachers developed their resistance strategy. Crucial for this development is the cultivation of critical emotional literacy which will help them think about themselves and author them in a new manner that will allow them to create new discourses. One of the suggested strategies for emotional awareness is the creation of teacher teams as a forum for emotional and professional bonds and the teacher encouragement to conduct action research about their practices and their emotions associated with these practices (Zembylas, 2003:214, 231).

Owen (2016), considering teacher’s communities from a Positive Psychology perspective, concludes that they contribute in the flourishing of their members, through the experience of positive emotions, the finding of meaning and the awaking of the passion to teach. All these constitute the notion of wellbeing (Owen, 2016:416).

In our analysis, after the initial coding, categories concerning emotions emerged. They were clustered under the more generic category of “Collaborative Climate”, which accumulates, so far, the most codes (1732 of a total of 9703) comparing to codes forming other categories. Among “Collaborative Climate’s” subcategories are the sense of belonging, trust, commitment and constructive criticism, which entails the acceptance of being vulnerable in front of a group of colleagues (699 codes assigned). In other excerpts, team members expressed the emotion of joy that motivates them to be part of the school-based team. Studying these emotions in the context they were created and originally expressed, one can understand how they motivate participants to act in different ways in their effort to formulate and interact with their working environment.

In the case discussed here, they are clear indicators that the team members prefer to be part of a collectivity than to return into the isolation of their classroom. In their own words:

[A]: “I exposed the problems I face without fear of criticism, I liked the climate of confidence that has been developed between us and the monitoring system we have adopted”.

[L]: “Now we are a team, we have a common goal”.

[P]: “I don’t know how to handle this problem and I want the team to help me, to take me by the hand and guide me”.

[M]: “We can tell each other what we consider wrong about what one of us does or says without hurting his/her feelings, because we are a team and the other part won’t feel offended if we disagree”.

Emotions teachers feel at workplace are crucial for the team to become a community. Servage (2008:64) points out that professional learning communities apart from aiming and serve teacher development, they serve at the same time the ideal of democratic school and that of the community with emotional bonds. Members are not placed in this community hierarchically, but they are connected with common goals and obligations. For Sergiovanni (1994) communities are defined by their values, emotions and beliefs all of which are necessary in order to create a collectivity, a sense of “we” instead of “I” (In Thomas et al, 1998:23).
4. IMPLICATIONS/DISCUSSION.

With our analysis still in progress, there is strong evidence that our theory building will contribute to the discussion of how teacher teams can form professional learning communities. This form of teachers’ professional development should seriously be taken into consideration the authorities of the Greek educational system. The economic crisis disrupted the strategic plan for teacher training implementation (Bagakis & Skia, 2015) and school based teacher communities can play a vital role in school renewal for both students’ and teachers’ learning. That will not be an easy enterprise.

Diagram 2: Obstacles

The obstacles for a self-initiated and self-directed teacher community to perform as an agent of change in their workplace can be seen in the diagram 2. Taking them into account, along with the advantages a community like this offers, can help policy makers, head teachers and teachers themselves realize what steps should be taken in order this model of professional development to be implemented and take the necessary decisions towards this direction.

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CALLING FOR RESPECT: AN AUTOETHNOGRAPHY OF PRIVATE PIANO TEACHER IN HONG KONG

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ABSTRACT Autoethnography is an innovative research writing genre that has considerably drawn attention on its effectiveness in reflecting the relationships between the researchers and their native community which they are investigating. The form of writing enables the researchers to reflect on their feelings towards the community as both a native and a researcher, constructing the cultural interpretation of the community. While today’s teacher development emphasizes on growing teacher’s individuality, there is little investigation on how writing genre such as autoethnography enable better teacher reflection on the teaching experience and teaching community. This essay illustrates the use of autoethnography, reflecting on private piano teacher’s identity in Hong Kong. There are two concerns in this paper: (1) what key concerns or issues faced by private piano teachers in Hong Kong? (2) how are the roles of teacher negotiated between teachers, parents and students? Findings are derived from the four-year class observation, individual interviews with the private piano teachers, students and parents. The implications of autoethnography for developing teacher reflection are also discussed.

KEYWORDS autoethnography, reflective dialogue, informal education, Asian education

INTRODUCTION
In Hong Kong, there are frequent discourses on teaching ideal and teaching reality faced by teachers (Hargeaves and Fullan, 1992). In 2000, the Reform Proposals for the Education System in Hong Kong stressed the importance of holistic growth in the schooling curriculum (Education Commission, 2000). In 2004, the introduction of New Secondary Academic Structure changed the assessment on the senior secondary students by increasing valuation on student’s other learning experiences beyond language and academic subjects (Education and Manpower Bureau, 2004). As most of the public schools only provide basic academic subject courses, learning piano at private piano studio is becoming one of the common other learning experiences among Hong Kong students. The private piano teachers in these private piano studios become the pragmatic mechanism facilitating the children to fulfill the holistic learning expectation under the educational reform.

Autoethnography is an innovative research writing genre that has considerably drawn attention on its effectiveness in reflecting the relationships between the researchers and their native community which they are investigating. The form of writing enables the researchers to reflect on their feelings towards the community as both a native and a researcher, constructing the cultural interpretation of the community (Ellis, 2004). This essay proposes using autoethnography as tool to restore the subjectivity of teachers, through the critical reflection on the teaching experience and teaching ideal. With illustration on the use of autoethnography, the essay reflects on private piano teacher’s identity in Hong Kong in two directions: (1) what key concerns or issues faced by private piano teachers in Hong Kong? (2) how are the roles of teacher negotiated between teachers, parents and students?

1. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK
Autoethnography is first suggested as critical reflection with the researcher moving inward and outward the community to extend one’s perception towards the ethnographic site (Ellis, 2004), in order to connect the personal, cultural, social and political meanings (Behar, 1996; Sidoti, 2015). The genre of writing was used in exploring subjectivity of depowered community by previous researchers such as women facing gender violence (Silba, 2017), grown up Korean Adoptee in the United States (Pearson, 2010), and raped victims (Campbell, 2002). Throughout the personal disclosures, self-probing, and exploration of other’s feelings and stories, a holistic reflection on subjectivity can be formed (Ellis, 2004).

While there is no absolute methodological format in autoethnography, scholars postulated autoethnography should be (1) include personal representation when conducting fieldwork, writing up
data, injection of theories; (2) highlight the significance of “thinking about the feelings” and “researching the researchers” during the research. Both the relationship happened inside and outside the social sphere of the researchers should be investigated to form a holistic picture on the subjectivity the researcher (Campbell, 2002).

2. METHODOLOGY
The research started from the impersonal teaching experience of “myself”, the researcher, with reflection in two directions: (1) me as the researcher, reflecting as an outsider to describe the piano teaching profession in Hong Kong; (2) me as a private piano teacher, first-hand describing the piano class in an empowered position and the depowered confrontation with parents.

Seven pairs of my piano students, who have been learning piano for four year, and their parents are selected for individual interviews. Aside of interviews, I conducted class observation on the student reactions, learning behaviours for one year; The interaction between the parents and me, the piano teacher, would also be put as part of the observation for later discussion on the role of teacher.

The research also observes piano teaching in Hong Kong in a bigger context- breaking out from the physical sphere with the use of online ethnography. The observation on online social interaction among the piano teachers can further reflect the real-life teaching environment out from the piano classroom.

In Hong Kong, most of the private piano teachers communicate through three facebook pages, “音樂導師協會” (The association of music tutors), “樂人谷” (Music Valley), and “樂器導師 secrets” (Secrets of Music Tutors), which are all managed by private piano teachers in Hong Kong. Hence, posts of the three pages were observed for 6 months. Moreover, face-to-face interviews were conducted with the administrators of the three pages were conducted, in order to understand their perceptions towards private piano education in Hong Kong and the constraints faced by private piano teachers.

3. RESULTS
To the interviewed parents, letting children learn piano was due to pragmatic orientation - gaining one instrumental playing skills. However, as most of the parents did not have any musical knowledge towards piano playing, they needed to rely on the teaching of the private piano teachers. Their attitude to the piano teachers is bipolar: some of them try to maintain good relationship with the teachers such as giving gifts during festive time; on the other hand, private teacher-parent conflicts sometimes happen. The parents believed they were superior than the private piano teachers in deciding the learning methods and piano pedagogy of the students. Such conflicts happened more frequently when the parents are also from teaching profession.

The students were mostly silent within the triangular teacher-parent-student relationship, but their attitude vary depending on their parent’s attitude. If the parents are in positive attitude, they would treat the private piano teachers with greater courtesy; if the parents are in hostile struggle with the piano teachers, they would be less disciplined. Some of the students even ignore the private teachers, destroyed the piano books, put garbage on the piano during lesson time.

Most of the interviewed private piano teachers had misconceptions towards private piano teaching profession before entering the industry- socially respected, high income, and flexible working environment. After becoming piano teachers, they realized their profession was unexpectedly insecure and weak in bargaining power on salary and rights, as there were no professional credits on the piano teaching profession in Hong Kong.

In face of tense competition, some piano teachers abandoned their dignity by setting their lesson fee lower in order to attract more students. In turn, some angry piano teachers sent fake students to these low-price tutors and wrote criticism online about the low-price tutors. When the current salary and respect mismatched with the training they received, some disappointed piano tutors asked for dignity in piano teaching profession. They formed cooperative linkage among the private piano teachers, in order to search for redressive action over the suppressive and unstable condition in the private piano teaching industry such as organizing different workshops and helping the piano tutors to bargain for respect from parents and students.
4. IMPLICATIONS/DISCUsSsION
Autoethnography is generally effective to unveil the power confrontation among private piano teachers, parents and students, and provide critical reflection on the subjectivity and dignity of the private piano teachers. It provides a wider angled observation on private piano teaching industry, zooming in and out to reveal the meanings of piano learning under the blurred personal and cultural context (Ellis, 2004). In Hong Kong, there is no official requirement on the qualifications and teaching experience of the piano teachers. According to the Education Ordinance in Hong Kong, all public-school teachers are required to receive tertiary education and have obtained professional teaching degree or diploma (Education Bureau, n.d.). The prerequisite for obtaining any teaching professional degree requires two rounds of teaching practices in regular schools. However, among the private piano teachers interviewed, their qualifications varied: some of them had bachelor or master degree concentrating in piano performance; while some of them were only performance diploma achievers without university degree. When compared to the public-school teaching requirement, the private piano teaching profession is blurred in qualifications. Despite the varied qualifications, all of the private piano teachers claimed they chose piano teaching profession due to their passion in music. However, their passion is hardly to be quantitatively measured for public recognition.

In Chinese cultural context, teachers are empowered and highly respected (Yin, Huang & Lee, 2017). However, it does not apply to private piano teachers who rely on students for income, when there is competition among teachers. In service-oriented industry, including education, the intense competition leads to emotional suppression for high quality service (Duignan, 2001). The teachers, in turn, are commodified as knowledge labors satisfying the educational needs of the students and parents. Within the private piano teaching industry, there are many piano teachers teaching using the same series of textbooks and preparing students for the same competitions and examinations. Since the parents and students have choices on piano teachers, if they are not satisfied with the teacher’s teaching performance, they could change the piano teachers. To the private piano teachers, the teaching relationship is unstable—they can be easily replaced by other teachers using the same textbooks and teaching content. In face of fierce competition, on one hand, the teachers try to reduce their dignity in teaching to maintain good relationship with the students and parents. Still, many private piano teachers are dreaming of respect to their music professionalism, as they have been investing great efforts and time in gaining piano playing skills and teaching experience.

However, the respect that the private piano teachers are dreaming is unattainable, as piano teaching is not standardized in requirement on qualifications, teaching experience and prices. The teachers were easily misunderstood as tutors who only had skills on playing piano, regardless their musical training and professional background (HK01, 2018). Moreover, as piano teaching is a dependent relationship between piano tutors and the piano students and parents, of which the piano teacher needs long term students to maintain the living, the respect and dominated role of teachers do not ever exist in private piano teaching education in Hong Kong.

5. CONCLUSION
Autoethnography is generally effective to provide critical reflection on the efforts of searching for dignity among the private piano teachers in Hong Kong. However, the dignity and respect that the private piano teachers are searching is unmeasurable. As piano teaching is not standardized in employment nature, qualifications, teaching experience and prices. They were easily misunderstood as tutors who only had skills on playing piano, regardless their musical training and professional background (HK01, 2018). Moreover, as piano teaching is a dependent relationship between piano tutors and the piano students and parents, of which the piano teacher needs long term students to maintain the living, the respect and dominated role of teachers do not exist in piano teaching.

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DEVELOPMENT OF PRESERVICE TEACHER STUDENTS’ ATTITUDES TOWARDS ETHNIC-CULTURAL DIVERSITY OF STUDENTS: THE IMPACT OF TEACHER EDUCATION COURSES

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ABSTRACT. Multicultural teacher education programs, broadly speaking, aim to impact positive changes of negative attitudes towards minority students and multicultural education practices. On the other hand, research on novice teachers’ ‘practice shock’ reports decreases of positive attitudes towards teaching and innovative practices in a process of disillusionment. Social psychological theories of attitude formation as a result of information processing and persuasion predict changes in both directions depending on multiple factors. To analyze preservice teacher students’ attitude development, 588 participants of 56 teacher education courses filled in a questionnaire assessing their explicit attitudes concerning general value and utility, and costs of ethnic-cultural student diversity at the beginning and end of the courses. Ten of these courses strongly focussed on ethnic-cultural student diversity. Descriptive analyses showed rather positive attitudes at the outset. Hierarchical two-level analyses yielded substantial negative attitude changes in courses strongly focusing on ethnic-cultural student diversity and small but significant negative attitude changes in courses without ethnic-cultural diversity focus. The results can be interpreted as preponed disillusionment induced by knowledge growth about and personal experiences with professional challenges of ethnic-cultural student diversity. Presupposing that most of the teacher students have little personal experience and rely more on professional norms of multi-culturally inclusive education, adjusting unrealistic positive attitudes to more realistic views of the challenges would serve professional learning and personal growth.

KEYWORDS: teacher education, ethnic-cultural diversity, attitude change, teacher students

INTRODUCTION
Educational challenges posed by students’ ethnic-cultural backgrounds are a long standing issue in some countries (cf. Barry & Lechner, 1995) and increasingly concern teachers and educational systems around the world (cf. Kaldi, Govaris, & Filippatou, 2018). There seems to be no doubt that more positive attitudes towards (ethnic-) cultural diversity of students are associated with more “culturally responsive teaching” (Castro, 2010, p. 198). Consequently, culturally sensitive teacher education aims to foster positive attitudes towards (ethnic-) cultural student diversity. In line with this objective, some research has shown positive attitude changes during teacher education (cf. Grottkau & Nickolai-May, 1989; Kumar & Hamer, 2017; Wasonga, 2005). But in general, teacher students’ attitudes are attested to have high stability (e.g. Kumar & Hamer, 2013; Wasonga, 2005).

1. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK
Following basic attitude research, we conceive of an attitude as “a summary evaluation of an object of thought” (Bohner & Wänke, 2006, p. 5). However, in research on the impact of multicultural education curricula (MEC), the term attitude is used in a variety of meanings, interchangeably denoting views, perspectives, and understandings of diversity, prejudicial beliefs, and minority stereotypes (cf. Barry & Lechner, 1995; Castro, 2010; Dharan, 2015). Some studies employ instruments of basic attitude research. For example, Grottkau and Nickolai-May (1989) administered the Bogardus social distance scale to compare the attitude development of two cohorts of education majors (freshmen vs. seniors) with control groups (business and ministry majors) in a longitudinal design across one semester. They found no significant change of education freshmen’s attitudes enrolled in a human relations class when compared to control groups, but less minority distance (i.e. positive attitudes) of the education seniors at the end of a broad-based ‘infused’ MEC when compared to education freshmen. They interpret these results in terms of “limited exposure” vs. “sustained and controlled” (p. 32) contact to enhance intergroup relationships. Facilitating such intergroup relationships is one of the major concerns stated throughout research on the impacts of MEC in preservice teacher education, since most (White) teacher students
have had no or only trivial contact to other cultures than their own, due their often mono-cultural socialisation (cf. Castro, 2010; Barry & Lechner, 1995; Grottkauf & Nickolai-May, 1989; Kumar & Hamer, 2013; Wasonga, 2005). Effects of only one MEC course on knowledge, attitudes, and feelings of preparedness were reported by Wasonga (2005), who studied a larger sample but did not include control groups. Kumar and Hamer (2013) reported a general positive shift of teacher students’ attitudes, beliefs, proposed instructional practices, and teacher efficacy from first to final year of a general teacher education program incorporating MEC. However, students’ gains from first year through midway regarding proposed instructional practices, promoting respect, and teaching efficacy declined towards the program final year in their cross-sectional and their longitudinal sample.

On the other hand, research on novice teachers’ professional development at the transition from preservice learning to in-service training revealed negative shifts of positively valued attitudes, e.g. towards innovative practices (cf. Dann, Müller-Fohrbrodt, & Cloetta, 1981) or culturally responsive teaching (Dharan, 2015). Such negatively valued developments have been interpreted as “practice shock”, i.e. disillusionment in the face of real-life challenges and adaptation to long-held practices in the schools, for example, narrowing culturally responsive teaching and diversity to ability grouping (cf. Dharan, 2015). Theories of attitude formation predict changes in both directions depending on multiple and interacting factors, e.g. prior experiences and attitude strength (cf. Bohner & Wänke, 2006, chap. 7). For example, negative as well as positive attitudes based on social norms may alter in opposite directions when confronted with contradicting information from personal experiences or professional knowledge during teacher education. From this theoretical background, we derived the following research questions:

(1) Do teacher education courses which strongly focus ethnic-cultural student diversity influence preservice teacher students’ attitudes towards ethnic-cultural student diversity?

(2) Do teacher students’ attitudes towards ethnic-cultural student diversity also change in courses not explicitly focussing ethnic-cultural diversity?

(3) If attitudes change, are there any differential patterns with respect to different attitude facets?

2. METHODOLOGY

Design and sample: The study was conducted as quasi-experimental pre-post testing with control condition (strong focus vs. no/marginal focus on ethnic-cultural diversity) with altogether 56 courses, 10 of which strongly focussed on ethnic-cultural student diversity (self-report of lecturers), e.g. strategies to adapt classroom management and instruction to account for cultural differences of social interaction and learning. Control courses covered basic subject matter and other diversity aspects (e.g. capabilities). Participation in the study was voluntary for students. The final sample with completed pre and post measures comprised 588 students (strong focus N=123), with average age of 22.7 years; 77 % were female; 21 % had a migration background (self, father, mother, and/or home language non-German); 46 % were enrolled in primary school studies; 48 % were enrolled in secondary school studies; 3 % were enrolled in other bachelor studies; the average study length was 4.4th (2.3) semester.

Instrument: Students’ attitudes were assessed with a questionnaire measuring three facets: (1) General Value of ethnic-cultural student diversity (three items), (2) Utility for Students’ learning and development (four items), (3) Teachers’ Costs concerning preparation and instruction (three items). All items were verbalized as opposing statements to be rated on a six-point scale with reference to teaching a certain school subject: “For teaching my subject matter <e.g. biology> I consider student diversity in terms of migration backgrounds as … <bad vs. good> … <hindering vs. fostering students’ learning> … <not stressful vs. stressful for the teacher>.” The structure has been validated in a pilot study with confirmatory factor analyses. Internal consistencies for overall attitudes and facets were also good in the present study (α = .79 up to α = .92).

Analyses: Missing data (< 1 %) were imputed by estimates of the expectation maximisation (EM) algorithm provided by SPSS. Hierarchical two-level analyses were conducted with HLM (6.08) using z-standardized values of students’ ratings grand-mean centred on the first measurement point; consequently post-test values directly represent standardized differences. The course focus on ethnic-cultural student diversity was entered as predictor at the second level (0 = no/marginal focus, 1 = strong focus).
3. RESULTS

Descriptive analyses showed rather positive attitudes at the outset with highest values for General Value of ethnic-cultural student diversity (4.5 in courses with strong focus; scale centre was 3.5). Values for Teachers’ Costs (low values indicating low costs, i.e. positive attitudes) were 3.2 in courses with strong focus (scale centre was 3.5). The hierarchical two-level analyses yielded medium stability of students’ attitudes and attitude facets (Table 1, Level 1; scores of teachers’ costs reversed for calculating overall attitudes).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethnic-cultural student diversity</th>
<th>Overall Attitudes</th>
<th>Post-test attitudes</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>General Value</td>
<td>Utility for Students</td>
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<td><strong>Level 1</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Pre-test attitudes</td>
<td>.51* (.04)</td>
<td>.46* (.04)</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Level 2</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Strong focus</td>
<td>-.19* (.09)</td>
<td>-.16 (.09)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>-.10* (.05)</td>
<td>-.11 (.04)</td>
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<td><strong>R² within</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>R² between</strong></td>
<td>.63</td>
<td>.68</td>
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Table 1: Hierarchical two-level analyses of the predictors of attitude change in teacher education courses - coefficients and robust standard errors (in brackets). * p < .05.

Substantial negative shifts of Overall Attitudes were found for courses strongly focussing on ethnic-cultural diversity (Level 2). Small, but significant negative changes of students’ Overall Attitudes were also found for courses not or only marginally focussing on ethnic-cultural student diversity (Intercept on Level 2). The differentiated analyses of the three attitude facets revealed that Overall Attitude change mostly resulted from more negative evaluation of (future) Teachers’ Costs concerning preparation and instruction, again with stronger changes in courses strongly focussing on ethnic-cultural student diversity.

4. DISCUSSION

The analyses revealed (1) rather positive attitudes at the outset and (2) substantial negative attitude change in specific courses. Both results stand in contrast to studies evaluating MEC in preservice teacher education which aim to impact positive shifts of negatively valued beliefs and attitudes (cf. Castro, 2010). Both results correspond to studies tracing negative shifts of positively valued attitudes and views (e.g. Dann et al., 1981; Dharan, 2015) at transitions from preservice to in-service learning, labelled as practice shock. We assume that most teacher students had little prior experience with persons of other cultures, let alone intercultural relations. Their explicitly stated attitudes presumably reflect an unrealistic optimism nourished by professional norms to value students’ cultural backgrounds. Confronted with professional knowledge and personal insights into real-life challenges of ethnic-cultural diversity of students, they may have experienced disillusionment and adjusted their attitudes. The analyses of the attitude facets support this interpretation, in that descriptively, teacher students’ ratings of Teachers’ Costs showed the strongest shift towards expecting higher costs (i.e. more negative attitudes).

Teacher students’ attitudes in courses not or marginally focussing on ethnic-cultural diversity shifted in the same direction, but to a lesser extent. These students were also offered professional knowledge, often linked to insights into real classrooms. Although curricula in these courses were focussed on other aspects of teaching, including other diversity aspects, students in these courses may have adjusted their unrealistic optimistic attitudes towards ethnic-cultural student diversity in the face of general challenges and demands of future teaching and other diversity aspects.

5. CONCLUSIONS

One semester long courses strongly focussing on ethnic-cultural diversity of students may induce experiences of disillusionment and negative shifts of teacher students’ attitudes. Such experiences of disillusionment may set off personal growth and professional development, if followed by talking to relevant others and reflecting on one’s learning and becoming a teacher, as Meijer, Graff, & Meirink.
(2011) reported from interviews with first year induction teachers. But novice teachers may also experience more ease with diversity responsive teaching by narrowing their views and conforming to practices at their schools (cf. Dharan, 2015). Against this backdrop, conclusions from our study are limited: We did not assess students’ personal experiences and views of their own development, nor their knowledge and intentions for future teaching. Barry and Lechner (1995) caution MEC research about teacher students’ professional knowledge and skills to adapt classroom instruction to cultural diversity apart from their attitudes. Thus, we conclude that preponed disillusionment and attitude adjustment need to be followed by well organised opportunities to build up research informed knowledge and practices of multicultural responsive teaching and facilitate well-informed attitudes to effectively impact students’ learning and development.

REFERENCES


ACKNOWLEDGMENT

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FREIRE AS AN INTERNATIONAL AUTHOR

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ABSTRACT The book Pedagogy of the Oppressed (PO) is one of the major books of the 20th century according to the American Association for the Advancement of Curriculum Studies (AAACS). To better understand Pedagogy of the Oppressed, that had its first edition in English language in 1970, we cannot avoid to read Pedagogy of Hope (1992), the book in which Freire made a reflective narrative about his own life. Our research questions are: Why is Paulo Freire considered an international author? How he influenced the international context of curriculum studies, initially with the publication of Pedagogy of the Oppressed in English language fifty years ago. Our research findings show that the international experience of exile imposed on Freire brings a new dimension to his work. His stay in Chile, having made contact with unions and workers, redefined his thesis Educação e Atualidade Brasileira, published in a book edition in English as Education and the Practice of Freedom. Freire amplifies his reflection and conclusions to finish the original text of Pedagogy of the Oppressed in Chile. Freire’s stay in Chile working with workers and intellectuals, such as his experience in United States at Harvard University, as in Europe at the World Council of Churches made possible to him to be in contact with people from other countries and different realities. In his travels Freire is influenced by the international context as influencing many intellectuals among them, several critical educators of curriculum studies field.

KEYWORDS: Paulo Freire, international influence, teaching experience.

INTRODUCTION This paper is part of a symposium regarding Paulo Freire and his relevance on the educational field, and it has the purpose of describing Freire’s international path. Our research questions are: Why is Paulo Freire considered an international author? How did he influence the international context of curricular studies initially with the publication of the Pedagogy of the Oppressed (PO)?

Freire’s international experience began with his political exile after the military coup in Brazil in 1964, when many intellectuals and teachers of the Left were arrested and exiled because of censorship and political persecution. For a man who had never left Brazil, the experience of living in exile was particularly difficult, especially at the beginning. Initially Freire lived in Bolivia and later in Chile. Exile opened up new opportunities for him. The experience of Paulo Freire in Chile in adult literacy from 1964 to 1969 represented a very fruitful period in his life. This experience was as important as the previous period in Brazil, for it was during his exile in Chile that he became an important figure in Latin America.

In Chile Freire worked at the Institute for Training and Research in Agrarian Reform (ICIRA) in his third year of stay in the country. At that time he decided to write and discuss the texts on the topics that would be addressed in the training meetings. Freire explains that his visit to ICIRA made it possible, through his interaction with the technical teams, to have a wealth of experience with a large number of peasant communities throughout the country, as well as to live the historical-political atmosphere of the time. This led him to deepen hypotheses, clarify his positions, and thus reshape his work. Freire spent a year or more talking about the book, PO, with friends and arguing about courses he gave. During this orally speaking period, he received the first invitation to visit the United States in 1967. He was invited to visit New York by Father Joseph Fitzpatrick and Monsignor Robert Fox. This visit was proposed by the important pedagogue Ivan Illich, who knew the two and thought it would be important for them to contact Freire. Freire found this visit extremely important, since he can observe the work that these religious played with the Puerto Rican immigrants and with the Afro-Americans, who were discriminated groups. He saw that there was much similarity between his work in Brazil and the work that the religious held in New York. When he returned to Chile, Freire continued what he called the gestation phase of the PO. He began to write ideas in chips to develop more elaborate reflections. After a while, the "idea cards" ended up becoming tokens for other ideas, other themes. From this artisanal work, in July of 1967, Freire writes the first three chapters of the PO. Having finished typing the text with three chapters delivers to his great friend who was also in Chile, Ernani Maria Fiori to write his preface. On the same day that Fiori...
handed back his own text with his preface, Freire decides to let the text "rest" for another two months. After this period he decides to write an additional chapter, the fourth chapter. Even though the book could not be edited in Brazil, Freire sends the typewritten text to Fernando Gasparian, director of the publishing house Paz e Terra (Peace and Earth). At that time, in 1969, when the situation in Chile was becoming uncomfortable, Freire received almost at the same time an offer to teach at Harvard University and at the World Council of Churches. Freire, years later, described his decision to accept going to the United States (for a shorter time than he was offered) and then accepting the work on the Council. Thus, he skillfully took advantage of the two opportunities that opened up.

During his stay in Harvard, Freire became an international author mainly from the publication of three documents: (1) His lectures at Harvard were published in two articles in the Harvard Educational Review in the May and August 1970 issues. (2) These two articles were published as a monograph by the Center for the Study of Development and Social Change and later turned into a book entitled Cultural Action for Freedom in Cambridge, Massachusetts, September 1970; (3) Pedagogy of the Oppressed was first published in English in 1970 by Herder and Herder in New York (Freire, 1992, p.120) and only later in Portuguese, in Brazil, given the censorship. These publications, in English, brought enormous repercussion to his work and his figure as an intellectual in the international academic world. Pedagogy of the Oppressed, his main work, has its roots in Paulo Freire's life experiences. The themes addressed in the work were: banking and liberating education and the dialogic method.

1. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The book Pedagogy of the Oppressed exerted a great influence in the theoretical and practical fields of curriculum studies. We can argue that the work of Paulo Freire is an example of the critical curricular paradigm that is proposed to surpass a technical vision of curricular theory. The concepts of dialogue, power, and transformation are essential in the constitution of a critical pedagogy. This pedagogy challenges teachers and students to empower themselves for social change. His critical methods ask teachers and students to question existing knowledge. In critical classrooms, teachers reject which make students passive. Freirean educators pose critical problems to students, treat them as complicated, substantial human beings, and encourage curiosity and activism about knowledge and the world.

When he lived in the United States, Freire came into contact with authors of the so-called critical pedagogy such as Giroux (1988), McLaren (1989), Ira Shor (1980), among others, who later incorporated in their political writing the concepts of Freire and always recognized the importance of the Brazilian educator in their thinking.

2. METHODOLOGY.

Document analysis (according to Denzin and Lincoln, 2008) based on his autobiographical books (Freire, 1992) and personal interviews.

This document analysis indicated the importance of the prefaces of Pedagogy of the Oppressed, discussing the relevance of the book in relation to the North American educational context and the concepts of critical pedagogy, dialogue and education for transformation. These concepts were analysed and discussed.

3. RESULTS.

To understand the theoretical framework of how Freire’s concepts influenced critical pedagogy is important to analyse the different prefaces and structure of Pedagogy of the Oppressed.

In the editions in English language, published in the United States, there is a Foreword, written by Richard Shaull. What in Brazil appears as First Words, written by Paulo Freire, in the United States was called Preface. In the publication commemorating the 30th edition of the English-language work, in addition to Foreword and Preface, there is an Introduction to the Anniversary Edition written by Donaldo Macedo on the occasion of the thirty years of publication. In 2018 the book commemorated fifty years of publication.

It is interesting to note the different approaches given in the introductions in English. In the first edition in English (published before the Portuguese edition), Richard Shaull introduces the work of Freire emphasizing that the author brings important contributions to Latin America that are also essential for American education.
In this country, we are gradually becoming aware of the work of Paulo Freire, but thus far we have thought of it primarily in terms of its contribution to the education of illiterate adults in the Third World. If, however, we have a closer look, we may discover that his methodology as well as his educational philosophy are as important for us as for the dispossessed in Latin America… (SHAULL, 1970, Introduction, p. 29)

Another important preface is by Donaldo Macedo, written in 2000. Thirty years after the publication of the first edition, Paulo Freire has already become internationally known, and his work and proposals had already been appropriated and used in different places. It is in this context that Macedo’s reflections are based on commenting on several misinterpretations of Freire’s philosophy and proposal that transform the proposal of dialogic education into just one method of literacy and rebut the criticisms made of Freire’s work:

Unfortunately, in the United States, many educators who claim to be Freirean in their pedagogical orientation mistakenly transform Freire’s notion of dialogue in a method, (…) By overindulging in the legacy and importance of their respective voices and experiences, these educators often fail to move beyond a notion of difference structured in polarizing binaries and uncritical appeals to the discourse of experience. (…) At the same time, educators who misinterpret Freire’s notion of dialogical teaching into a method also refuse to link experiences to the politics of culture and critical democracy, thus reducing their pedagogy to a form of middle-class narcissism. (MACEDO, 2000, p.17).

The impact of Pedagogy of the Oppressed in the North American context was great. Freire became an international author when Pedagogy of the Oppressed was read widely in education and specifically by theorists in the field of curriculum studies in the United States and England and later translated into many languages around the world. These foreign authors found in Freire’s work theoretical and practical subsidies to reconceptualize the field of curriculum (1970-1979) according to Pinar (1995), who was being considered, at that moment, a traditional, technicalist with specific organization of pedagogical work in schools without questioning the knowledge that was taught, how it was taught and why it was taught. Several North American, Canadian, and other national intellectuals began to incorporate into their analysis some concepts developed by Freire: the political aspect inherent in the education process, critical pedagogy and the dialogic method are among the main ones.

4. IMPLICATIONS/DISCUSSION.
From professional experiences in international contexts as Chile, United States and Switzerland, Paulo Freire broadens his theoretical reflection on the problems of education and the perspective of oppression and is invited to publish in English language and from there his influence expands from his contexts of professional activity, being read by authors who had a critical perspective, in the area of the curriculum, especially in the United States. The publication in English of his works, linked to the relevance and originality of the form and content of his reflections, contributed to his becoming an international author. In Brazil, Paulo Freire is regarded as one of the representatives of the reflective perspective by looking at reflection as a means to conscientisation (Freire 1970). To this author, conscientisation is not restricted to a mere awareness, rather it aims at a critical development in awareness that involves going beyond the spontaneous apprehension of reality. Teacher education based on the strategy of conscientisation leads to reflection with the student teachers on their actions, activities and positions in classroom. It helps them to learn how to respect and get to know the pedagogical choices and world views of the school teachers they are dealing with in their practicum, by facing them and accepting the fact that these teachers may have a very distinct view from the one held by their teacher educators (which does not mean that one is better or worse than the other). It also helps them to be aware of what they do, by developing and inquiring, reflexive, critical and collaborative approach. (MARCONDES, M. I. et al. 2017. p.331)

5. CONCLUSIONS
We can conclude by stating that Freire drew up a project, but his life was modifying this project and he managed to take advantage even of the adversities as the period of exile. Thus, he not only acquired an international perspective with his experience in foreign countries through a rich exchange of experiences as well as becoming an international author who, having received criticism, was able to incorporate
aspects that gave his work international prestige and visibility. Exile was a painful experience, but Freire managed to turn it into an opening of new possibilities for learning. His cultural capital has grown from other experiences in other contexts. In this way, it deepened its international experience and could conceive itself as a "citizen of the world", allowing to establish relations between the Brazilian reality and that of other countries, such as Chile, with similar problems, finding other intellectuals and social agents whose worries were approaching and expanding his experience as a social thinker that influenced the field of curriculum studies. Paulo Freire then becomes one of the most important references in education not only with his work, but also with his way of seeing the world and facing life.

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THE DOCTOR OF EDUCATION: WHAT’S SO SPECIAL ABOUT IT?

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ABSTRACT Where does the Doctor of Education degree fit in? In the context of Canada and more specifically Ontario, the creation of the Ed.D program is subject to some confusion—what is it? And how does it contribute to academia or to the workplace? More specifically, does it help practitioners who are already working in the field? We believe these confusions are justified especially given the multitude of programs with the same title and yet vastly different offerings. This longitudinal study aims to reveal the expectations, deliverables, and limitations of the University of Toronto Ed.D cohort program in Educational leadership and policy. There is very little known about this degree especially in the Canadian context. We hope to add to the existing literature by examining student satisfaction of the program structure, student/school engagement, and the finances. We’ve chosen these three segments due to the nature of the students as working professionals who hope to accomplish and receive their worth, both in terms of social engagement opportunities and professional knowledge, for the money that is spent. Using interviews and our own experiences as students in the program, we intend to determine what makes the Ed.D so unique. Essentially, our research seeks to understand the Ed.D’s place in the University of Toronto’s spread of distinguished education programs.

KEYWORDS: Ed.D, Education Practitioners, Educational Leadership, Theory of Change, Professional Development

INTRODUCTION

The Ed.D, while misunderstood, offers educational professionals an incredible opportunity. However, standing in the way are quite a few barriers which prevent prospective students from considering this degree as an option, such as a very expensive tuition with limited funding packages, the difficult balance between professional responsibilities, personal responsibilities and academic work, and the uncertainty that undertaking this degree is actually worth it given that all the students will already be in professional careers. Drawing on ethnographic field notes and interviews with students in a cohort program at the University of Toronto, this study aims to shed light on the strengths and weaknesses of the Ed.D program and allow prospective students to see if this is the right choice for them. Furthermore, by focusing on the roles the program structure, social engagement, and finances play, we intend to differentiate the Ed.D as a unique opportunity for students to excel in the field and in academia. The span of this study will be over three years. However, this paper includes our findings from the preliminary data analysis of the interviews which were conducted earlier this year.

1. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

We situated this study in the theoretical framework of “Theory of Change (ToC). ToC defines the pathways through which end objectives or long-term goals of any program could be achieved. The components of ToC could be detailed or very simple however, researchers agree that Assumption, Monitoring, Evaluation, and Outcome are the basic modules of this framework. Amundsen and D’Amico (2019) note that ToC is a specific type of methodology for planning, participation, and evaluation used to examine the connection between “the design of the program and the changes it is meant to stimulate”. They further identify that contextual to higher education, ToC recommends a model that comprises of four components, which essentially help to monitor and evaluate the outcomes of any program. These are described as to:

1. articulate the overarching purpose of what a program is trying to accomplish, articulate why the design of a program or process should link purpose to outcomes (reasoning from theory and professional experience)
2. identify and tap ongoing sources of evidence that will provide an understanding of whether the link between purpose, design and outcomes is apparent

3. look across sources of evidence, reflect on whether Change adequately explains the evidence collected (p. 197).

Following this model, we intend to use ToC for this study as this cohort program has been redesigned to meet the needs of the job market and the professionals – to bridge the gap between the practitioners and the academia. Also, as researchers, we wish to conduct our study based on empirical evidence. Through this framework, we hope to determine the underpinning of strategies adopted to develop this cohort program as well as the conditions that can stimulate the change. We will identify the outputs, evaluate the outcomes of this cohort program using this theoretical framework.

2. METHODOLOGY.

As researcher-practitioners, we are part of the OISE, University of Toronto’s Ed.D cohort program in Educational Leadership and Policy stream. Our observations and experiences will also contribute to this study. We believe this is justified as we are in an opportunistic position to use our own observations as students to add to the current body of research. To conduct the research, we will use the following data collection methods:

1. Literature review
2. Semi-Structured interviews with 6 students
3. Ethnographic field notes

Using these methods, we hope to identify the following:

1. The level of student participation or engagement in their school communities (which can be measured by involvement with clubs, social events or societies)
2. The professional opportunities which resulted from these Ed.D programs
3. Students’ perspectives on whether or not the program is worth the amount of tuition paid

Firstly, we plan to conduct a systematic literature review on the topic to collect secondary data and to assess and synthesize research critically. The protocols for conducting this review are adopted from Rogers et al. (2005). When the secondary data is collected, we intend to begin an ethnographic study. We consider that the Ed.D. cohort students represent a group of professionals who wish to excel in their academic qualification through a doctorate degree in Education. As highlighted by Creswell (2012), as ethnographers, we will explore their expectations and challenges, and try to give a voice to their experiences as they advance in their program.

To carry out the research, we will conduct semi-structured interviews with current Ed.D practitioners who are also working in the field in Ontario. While structured interviews are ideal at capturing focused answers, we wish to obtain a more authentic flow of conversation.

From the findings of the study, we aim to conduct a SWOT analysis of the Ed.D cohort in Educational Policy and Leadership offered by OISE, University of Toronto. A SWOT analysis is a management tool typically used to analyze the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats of any model or models. Andrew (1987) notes that SWOT is a successful design in planning, designing or redesigning. Dyson (2004) underscores that SWOT analysis is an established strategy formulation method. He explains that SWOT analysis “aims to identify the strengths and weaknesses of an organization and the opportunities and threats in the environment” (P. 2). He elaborates that SWOT analysis is often described as a way of moving rapidly towards an agreed strategy. We wish to test the existing Ed.D cohort program by conducting a SWOT analysis to delve into promising strategies. SWOT analysis will also help us to identify the roles of various actors and stakeholders including graduate students.
3. RESULTS.

As the study is still in progress, the findings are preliminary. From the interviews that were so far conducted, there are three emerging themes: professional development, the balance between personal life, professional life and academic life, and the fee structure and funding for the program.

Professional development:
The interviews reveal that the students’ undertaking another degree despite already having a career in the field is a step into the future and for the upgrading of skills for future opportunities. One of the interviewees remarked in these words:

“I was at a career crossroads and decided to go back to school to further my education, but I’ve always had a dream to pursue doctoral level studies. I’m a lifelong learner. I choose this program because its geared towards educators with a wide range of experiences.

Another interviewee said:

“I am hoping that I will be able to work in any university. I also feel that this degree will add credibility to my existing career role and academic writing”.

The balance between personal, professional, and academic life:

Since five of the six interviewed students have a full-time career and all six of the interviewed students mentioned that they have family obligations, the role that they play within the academic sphere must be molded to fit into an already full schedule. We asked one of our interviewees about the challenges of working and studying full-time and striking a balance between work and life. We were told:

“Sometimes, completing two courses in a semester is challenging. Being working and studying two courses makes me anxious”.

Because of this, the academic social engagements, while offered, are often difficult to access. Students, who do not live in downtown Toronto, find it difficult to commute and attend such events. One of the interviewees answered:

“It’s a challenge to access them because most of the time they happen during the day and we work 9-5 or live far”.

The fee structure and funding for the program:

It is pertinent to note that funding packages are not offered for Ed.D students in this cohort and all six of the students mention that the heavy tuition fees are worth it for what it affords them in the future, although each mentions a ‘you get back what you put in’ response. One interviewee remarked:

“It is a lot of money and I struggle with the equity in that. However, I do believe you get out the efforts you put into it”.

Another interviewee said:

“If you use the services then yes. Because people aren’t always on campus or because of their schedule it’s difficult to access a lot of the services and opportunities that our tuition covers”.

Since this is a longitudinal study, we hope to gather more in-depth data regarding the strengths and limitations of the program as perceived by the enrolled students in order to understand what exactly makes the Ed.D a unique program.

4. IMPLICATIONS/DISCUSSION.

Research on students pursuing a Ph.D is plentiful however, the research is limited when it comes to Ed.D cohort students. One of the implications of this study is to create awareness of the effectiveness of this program. We hope to add to the existing literature by examining student satisfaction with the program structure, student/school engagement, and finances.

With this study, we also aim to explore the possibilities of collaboration with other universities nationally and internationally. We believe that academic practitioners possess enormous potential to bridge the gap
between theory and practice and can mobilize knowledge to generate more awareness in the multitudes and generate more prospects.

5. CONCLUSIONS

The Ed.D Educational Leadership and Policy cohort program offers educational professionals an incredible opportunity. With the space to engage in social events and a carefully supported program, there is an opportunistic niche here to rigorously attend to gaps in the educational field. The results of the study reveal three main trends: the balance between work and personal life along with the pressure to produce substantial academic work is so far the biggest challenge, school engagement is not a priority, and lastly, the value of the financial burden students take on is only valued by what students make of the opportunities provided to them. The uncertainty of what this program is or what kind of students it attracts still requires analysis however, we look forward to a positive relationship with the students as we continue to examine the student experience of the Educational Leadership and Policy cohort at University of Toronto’s Ontario Institute for Studies in Education.

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ACKNOWLEDGMENT.

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WHAT DOES IT MEAN TO LOVE STUDENTS? A HYBRID EDUCATOR’S SELF-STUDY IN A GLOBAL CONTEXT

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ABSTRACT Love is situated in the center of Freire’s work. The concept of love in education is viewed differently in different cultures. My childhood memories in Japan hardly remind me of a moment of love in school. Contrarily, Icelandic educators show their love to students. Being a hybrid educator between Japan and Iceland, these opposing perceptions confused me. The purpose of the study is to explore the transformation of my attitude towards my students while reflecting on how I perceive the sense of love in my surroundings. My aim is to propose the factors that enhance my practice. Self-study is the main methodology. Main data are life stories of my past experience in Japan and the reflective short stories based on my teaching journal from my work in preschools in Iceland. Concept mapping supports my analysis. Results reveal that I tend to keep young children under control in the Icelandic preschool. In my collaboration with colleagues at work, I learned that loving children is showing them respect. I began to express my positive attitude towards the children and our surroundings by demonstrating my work as a professional educator, not a coddling mother. The conclusion suggests how my transformation through the process of critical consciousness empowers myself as a hybrid educator in the global context.

KEYWORDS: self-study, life story, hybrid educator, love, critical consciousness

INTRODUCTION
In his letters to teachers, Paulo Freire (2005b) says that, “teaching is not coddling” (p.27). This made me wonder why we have to coddle students. In his description, love is an essential and fundamental part of teaching. I began to wonder what he meant by love. Through this self-study, I try to understand what love means in my Icelandic preschool teaching context. Through my life story of my past experiences in Japan, current reflective journals and short stories retrieved from my journal, I explore answers for the following research questions: How do I understand the meaning of love and explore it in my praxis? What does it mean for me, as a hybrid educator, to love my students in the global context?

Context of the study
The study takes place in an Icelandic preschool where I worked as substitute staff at the time of the study. Being a Japanese immigrant educator, my personal, professional experience in Japan influences my educational values. My experience of being a high school exchange student to the US influences my understanding of some aspects of western culture. But, taking the teacher education program in Iceland began to make me question my old values. This bicultural teaching experience makes me believe that I am a hybrid educator who tries to keep a balance between two teaching cultures, but I am unsure if my understanding of love to students is also balanced. I am not sure the difference between love and coddling. This was the very beginning of my self-study as a hybrid educator.

1. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK
According to Freire (2005b), “it is impossible to teach without the courage to love” (p. 5). Teaching requires courage for many things, such as educating people to be literate and to acquire the skills to express their opinion through writing and dialogue to liberate themselves from oppression (Freire, 1993; McLaren, 2007). Freire trusts that teachers can create a space for students to enhance their dignity and sense of respect towards others. It is Freire’s belief that teachers are also learners because no one is perfect and we are always learning (2005b). From the Japanese perspective, a concept of love is difficult to identify in the educational context. One study conducted by Tobin, Hsueh and Karasawa (2009) explored the term “amae (a dependency wish)” (p. 107) to describe a Japanese preschool child’s behavior to draw attention from older peers. Upon observing the video of children’s social interaction, Tobin and his colleagues point out the girl’s behavior.
It could be explained as *amae* to “appeal for attention and inclusion that is presented awkwardly, but in a form that the older girls understand and respond to it” (Doi, 1967, cited in Tobin et al., 2009, p. 107-108). However, her classroom teacher did not see the girl’s crying as weakness. The child was new to the class when the moment was captured. The girl was acting “*kodomo rashii* (childlike)” (p. 242), and this teacher’s analysis may be considered to be “*mimamori* (watching and waiting)” (p. 111) that is respectful to the girl’s autonomy without the teacher’s intervention.

2. METHODOLOGY.
Self-study is a qualitative research methodology that provokes my reflection of thoughts and experience about love to children. Teaching journals and reflective short stories which are written based on my teaching journals are my main data. Self-study does not specify a method to use, rather the method should be chosen to define the focus of the study (Loughran, 2004). My life story serves as part of the data to unpack my past (Samaras, 2002, 2004, 2011). Freire’s concept of critical consciousness (1993, 2005a) enhances the development of my reflections as reading the world (Freire, 2005b). While analyzing, I used concept mapping (Buzan, 2004; Samaras, 2011) to help me visually understand how my reflections from the past and present generate new themes. These themes were branched into smaller points. Throughout the process, I took notes that I explored in detail. All the names in my stories are pseudonyms.

3. RESULTS.
Reflecting on my life story and reflective short stories through concept mapping, I found that there are two major themes associated with love in my educational experiences, substantial and spiritual.

**Substantial love: My life experiences in Japan, the US and Iceland**

Looking back on my personal life experience as an elementary school pupil in Japan in the early 1980’s, I was known as being clumsy. I could never count, and my mind was often floating somewhere during class. I was never responsive to my teachers’ inquiries. My academic results were miserable, and my mother was summoned to school and told that I was helpless, especially in mathematics. I hardly remember receiving any form of affection or respect from teachers and parents, only slaps on my head with harsh words. I was yelled at to stop if I was crying. This was called *ai no muchi* (a whip of love). For some reason, it seemed that this was the way to express love to children. Adults seemed to have believed that children could perform better if they were put under pressure. I did not know the concept of hugging at that time.

The first time I experienced hugging was when I lived in the US as a high school exchange student. I was almost overwhelmed with hugs from my teachers, friends and host families, but never felt negatively towards them. Unfortunately, I could not bring my new habit back to Japan because I was afraid of being called weird.

The feeling of a hug was almost forgotten until I began working at a preschool in Iceland two decades later. When the children arrive at preschool in the morning, they spend such a long time parting from their parents. Even if I tried to stop them, they would run to their parents. I was afraid that I was losing control of the children. Having almost no memory of being hugged by my own parents, it was such a culture shock to see the children being hugged by parents, already missing each other, when they were leaving their children at preschool. They would be picked up later the day, but these moments felt as though the parents and children would not be seeing each other again for a month. One of my reflective short stories expresses my confusion when I observed how the children acted.

*Children always went to their group leader or other preschool staff to ask for a hug without any reason. Of course, no one would reject the children. I did not understand why children had to come to hug so often.*

*(My reflective short stories)*
Despite my shock, it did not take much time for me to recall my memories from the US. Yes, they hugged all the time and I could do so, too. It was a little awkward to step out of my comfort zone, but I began to challenge myself to hug the children when they came close to me.

Spiritual love: My Icelandic reflective short stories

Being educated and trained as a teacher in Japan, my understanding of love to my students was definitely not about hugging. I assumed that students should understand that my strict discipline would be the way to show my affection. But, Iceland is a completely different country with different values about love. My senior colleague, Maria, had been working at my preschool for over 25 years and greeted me with “good morning, my dear!” and a big hug. It made me feel like every morning was special. As an immigrant educator, language is a great challenge. Maria and my other colleagues always showed their positive attitudes to understand what I was trying to express. Maria once said that she would not have enough time to support new colleagues. But for me, her morning greeting showed her great support. It was not easy to work with people without having enough language skills and understanding of their cultural context, but I felt that I was always accepted. This experience helped my confidence grow to continue my teaching in the Icelandic preschool.

One day, another senior colleague, Inga, asked me where I was assigned to assist as substitute staff. Our dialogue:

*Inga:* Where are you going today?
*Author:* I am going to the Pink, then Gold class in the end.
*Inga:* Wow, what a job! Isn’t it difficult?
*Author:* Yes, it takes energy.
*Inga:* I bet. You have to share your love to all children equally.
*Author:* ?

I wondered if I misunderstood what Inga meant. At the end of the conversation, I realized that what Inga meant with her question about difficulty was not how I interpreted the word. It made me wonder why I had to be exhausted if I would give my love to children. I believed that hugging was a form of love, and I was no longer shy. It had been my question, but I did not have time to stop and reflect. I tried to gain more experience with my practice at preschool. Close to the end of that school year, 3-year-old Soffia gave me the answer. She came to me as always, asked for a hug and said in my arms: “It is so good to hug. I think it is great to hug.” It made me speechless. Her innocent behavior made me realize that we do not need a reason for hugging. They just need that feeling of security, and so do I.

4. DISCUSSION.

The two forms of love that I described in my findings generated my critical consciousness to face to my research questions. While reflecting on the substantial love I had experienced in my past, my experience with spiritual love let me realize that children need to feel secure. Hugging is just a bridge between substantial and spiritual love. Freire (1993, 2005b) argues that teachers love their students, and I understand that in a spiritual way. Their way of showing love is to educate students to be able to be literate to read the world (Freire, 2005b). It implies his belief of trust in students’ potential. Love is dialogical, and it emerges from an “act of daring, of courage, of critical reflection” (McLaren, 2007, p 304). Because of my insufficient Icelandic vocabulary, I tend to hesitate in developing dialogue with children or sometimes even with colleagues. Teachers’ love fosters students’ sense of security and builds trust in their relationship. It empowers students to become independent learners (1993). My courage to hug children supplements my language insufficiency.

On the other hand, I categorize that Japanese *amae* (a dependency wish) and *mimamori* (watching and waiting) are substantial and represent teachers’ reactions to and behavior towards children’s being *kodomo rashisa* (childlike). In doing so, I see my struggle to transform my understanding of love. I recognized that children hugging was *amae*, which I thought I should avert in the beginning of my teaching in Iceland. Corresponding to the finding by Tobin and his colleagues (2009), it was my belief that *mimamori* is respectful to children’s learning. But three-year-old Soffia showed me that I need to become responsive.
to children’s spiritual love. Freire (2005b) says that teachers should listen to their students. Lack of language comprehension is my amae to not develop dialogue with children. Little Sofía showed me that loving someone does not need verbal language. A teacher’s love is to accept children and respect their potential to express their love so that they feel secure and that they belong to the environment. I understand that it is not easy to transform my old values. As a hybrid educator between Japan and Iceland, I want to challenge myself to find a good balance between substantial and spiritual love.

5. CONCLUSION

Responding to Freire’s argument of not being a coddling mother (2005b), my critical consciousness is generated through reflection of meanings of love. I am now aware of the balance of love. I learned to keep a good distance from children to respect their autonomy but do not hesitate to hug my children to help them feel secure to continue their play. Love is substantial and spiritual, and my hybridity expands the spectrum of love. My future as a hybrid educator in the global context is to be courageous and respectful of my students with love.

REFERENCES.


ABSTRACT Teacher entitlement has remained an unaddressed topic in Teacher Education, needing urgent attention. When teachers feel excessively entitled, their thinking and actions can be counterproductive to the goals of promoting learner development and learning in the classroom. In this paper, we have attempted to characterize what teacher/faculty entitlement means and the climate which provokes it using five case studies from diverse cultural and geographic contexts. We examine how oppositional behavior gets constructed within the situated dynamics of the sociocultural and institutional milieu leading to undesired work behavior that can vitiate institutional environment; how it hinders teachers/faculty from taking responsibility for their own actions, learning and change. This qualitative comparative study uses thematic analysis to relate the primary data drawn from five independent case studies. The findings point to the presence of excessive teacher/faculty entitlement in schools and universities as a significant issue and its adverse impact on the health of the institution and teacher and student learning and development.

KEYWORDS: excessive teacher entitlement; unreasonable expectation; undesired work behavior; situated dynamics; constraints to learning

INTRODUCTION
This symposium paper is the result of the felt need to uncover and name the sources of oppression that teachers/faculty experience in the field of education, sometimes as victims and at other times, as perpetrators of it, though often unaware of their impact on others.

The following is a narrative by English as Second Language (ESL) teacher, Rani (a pseudonym) in the first author’s (A1) educational context. This note-to-file was recorded in the course of an ongoing project for English teachers that both are engaged in along with a group of other ESL teachers:

**After teaching, explaining both in English and Kannada [Students’ vernacular], I ask questions, make them repeat answers. I make them write in class and ask them to write again at home. After all this, I ask them to answer the test, I don’t know what happens. They don’t remember the answers. I don’t know what else I can do. I think I’ll have to open their heads and pour it in.**

Rani seemed to think that her efforts are not eliciting the reciprocal returns to which she feels entitled. A1 senses a complex mix of self-pity, victimization, impatience, superiority, frustration, helplessness, self-righteousness and rage in the teacher’s tone that seemed to block her self-awareness, empathy for her students and the self-evaluative power to see that perhaps it was she, more than her students, who needed remedy. Rani’s ‘me-centred’ view of reality, which seems to focus on the ‘self’ without regard to the others’ (e.g., students’) perspectives, reflects a sense of entitlement that can be identified among many
teachers/faculty members. However, the term ‘academic entitlement’ is largely used as emblematic of students (Gotschall, 2015; Heffernan & Gates, 2018; Jeffres et al, 2014; Sohr-Preston & Boswell, 2015) and hardly any research examines this notion with reference to teachers/faculty. There is an unvoiced need, however, to explore teacher/faculty entitled mentality as it seems to have great significance for not only teacher learning, student academic achievement and their self-identities as learners, but also for the undesirable work behavior it begets such as competitiveness, selfishness and aggression (Reidly et al., 2008), hampering relationships in the workplace and the health of the institution. The more we understand this notion and articulate it, the more possibilities open up to improve faculty/teacher work and work relationships in an environment of emotional well-being.

When the notion of teacher entitlement attitude was floated as an ISATT symposium topic, it immediately resonated with participants from different countries as the following excerpts illustrate:

*I am very excited about your ISATT proposal topic. You have an unaddressed topic—that is for certain. I would like to graduate the topic to professor privilege if you think that would add to the symposium.* (Author 2)

*I checked 'entitlement' in the French educational research and found that it is not on the agenda. Your symposium idea is innovative and I think it will be great to have viewpoints from different contexts on the issue you are raising. I would be very happy to participate and will send you a proposition.* (Author 4)

Researchers working in the area of academic entitlement (which, as mentioned earlier, almost always refers to student entitlement) also seem to recognize the need to focus on the hitherto unattended faculty/teacher entitlement:

*I share your assumption that faculty/teacher entitlement is detrimental to student learning. My favorite paragraph of that manuscript (Jeffres et al., 2014) is:*

Further research should focus on faculty and staff members’ sense of academic entitlement… I think it is super interesting and rare when faculty recognizes that their expectations on students are a form of entitlement. A classic case is class attendance. A lot of faculties expect students to be in class regardless of class quality (personal communication A1 had with Meghan Jeffres, March 28, 2019).

The samples of responses above affirm that the idea of teacher entitlement is worthy of attention carrying with it the potential to reveal professional knowledge from experiences across contexts.

1. **TOWARDS A DEFINITION OF EXCESSIVE TEACHER ENTITLEMENT**

Entitlement refers to the preferred status one has due to the way he/she is positioned by his/her age/position/academic background/gender. It can have both positive and negative connotations. It is seen as a positive value when associated with issues of equity and social justice where it refers to what one deserves, what is fair and just (Lerner, 1987). Negatively, the conceptualization of psychological entitlement is featured as a “…stable and pervasive sense that one deserves more and is entitled to more than others” (Campbell et al., 2004, p. 31). We use Levin’s (1970) term, “excessive entitlement”, to indicate the harmful side of the entitlement continuum. It reflects the unquestioned belief that one “possesses a legitimate right to receive special privileges, mode of treatment, and/or designation when, in fact, one does not” (Kerr, 1985, p. 8). Excessive entitlement depends upon whether a person deserves the beneficial outcome of his/her action; whether the person’s investment or action is commensurate with the outcome expectation (Feather, 2003). For example, when a teacher assumes that students’ good performance reflects his/her merit even when he/she did not work enough to earn it legitimately, this can be seen as a symptom of excessive entitlement. Our understanding of excessive entitlement aligns in principle with the definition proposed by Fisk (2010) according to which “excessive entitlement describes employees who perceive themselves as deserving of organizational rewards that exceed what would be considered normative in light of their contributions” (p.109). We find it comprehensive because it accounts for individual’s contribution in relation to his/her expectations of outcomes within a justifiable norm.
2. THEORETICAL ORIENTATION

Although excessive entitlement manifests itself as an individual trait, in gaining an understanding of its sources, it needs to be seen in context; how institutional practices and policy interact with personal dispositions to provoke or mitigate feelings of entitlement. Research literature points to socio economic and political factors that influence the manifestation of academic entitlement (Cain, Romanelli & Smith, 2012). For example, there are studies that attribute academic entitlement to the consumer mentality of the marketplace that pervades educational institutions eager to cater to students to boost enrollment figures (Finney & Finney, 2010; Lippmann et al., 2009). Investigations in the area of employee entitlement using an interactionist perspective suggest how environmental cues such as permissive management practices trigger feelings of excessive entitlement (Fisk, 2010; Wellner, 2004). Since teachers’ work is also highly situated, a comprehensive understanding of what encourages feelings of excessive entitlement in them requires an examination of the cues in the socio cultural and institutional contexts in which they negotiate their work. Our study is informed by a Vygotsky (1978) inspired sociocultural perspective that sees individual development as a mutually constitutive dialogic relationship between individual and social processes. This relational ontology helps us eschew a facile causal link between teacher/faculty entitlement mentality and student self-concept, learning and development. Ignoring the situational factors which mediate the construction of teacher/faculty entitlement mentality would defeat the very purpose of the study which seeks to understand and address the problem of teacher/faculty entitled attitude in its socio cultural and historical embeddedness, and not perpetuate the problem by seeing it narrowly as an individual failure to end up with ineffectual means to curtail it.

3. QUESTIONS FOR THE STUDY

This study places teacher/faculty entitlement in its social context to investigate the following questions:

1. How does excessive teacher entitled mentality get constructed within the situated dynamics of faculty/ teachers’ sociocultural and institutional milieu?
2. What adverse effects does it lead to?
3. How can the tendency to feel excessively entitled be deterred to promote more collegial relationship and improved practice?

4. METHODOLOGY

This symposium brings together a collection of five studies (C1-5) from diverse geographical contexts undertaken by authors (A2-9). Each case examines the notion of teacher/faculty entitlement as it was enacted in its particular context and its implications. The largely microethnographically oriented studies (Bloome et al.2009; Erickson, 1992; Garcez, 2017; Gumperz, 1982; Jaspers, 2012) from diverse contexts pointed to the active dimension of social interaction involved in the construction of the self; how university professors’ (C1), teacher educator’s (C3,C5), academic leader’s (C5) and teacher’s (C2,C4) definitions of ‘ability’, based on tacit assumptions, condition their interactions with the students affecting the latter’s learning and performance. These micro level analyses reveal how entitlement mentality gains legitimacy by the “arbitrary power” (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1990) subsumed under the tendency to maintain rather than dislodge the traditional hierarchical relationships.

The five case studies form the data source for this paper. This qualitative (Denzin& Lincoln, 2005) and comparative study (Kelly et al., 2014; McNess, 2004), is broadly located in the interpretive paradigm (Gephart, 1999; Khakpour, 2012). We have used thematic analyses (Boyatzis, 1998) of our primary data to relate the diverse contexts. We distilled the salient themes and then discussed them in the light of the associated socio cultural, contextual and relational nuances and reflected on them to gather the insights emerging from this comparative study that could be shared more generally.
Major Categories and Subthemes

1. Provocations for teacher/faculty entitled behavior
   - Hierarchy in position
   - Mismatch between supply and demand
   - Mismatch between curricular expectation and reality
   - Culturally embedded deficit views
   - Lenient teacher assessment

2. Effects of teacher/faculty entitlement
   - Blocking the learners’ paths to learning and change
   - Blind to one’s own perpetuation of oppressive behaviors
   - Negative impact on workplace relationship

Figure 1. Major Categories and Subthemes

The data are analyzed under two broad categories that pertain to questions 1 and 2 raised by the study. They are: 1. Provocations for teacher/faculty entitled behavior and 2. Effects of teacher/faculty entitlement. These categories encompass several subthemes that emerged from the five contextually diverse cases, some convergent and others divergent (see Figure 1 below).

Based on the findings from data analysis, we respond to question 3 by speculating on how situations arising from excessive teacher/faculty entitlement can be ameliorated to promote more collegial relationship in the workplace and improve practice.

5. FINDINGS

PROVOCATIONS FOR TEACHER/FACULTY ENTITLED BEHAVIOR

Hierarchy in position: Faculty invokes the age-old hierarchy of position that their terminal degrees bestow on them and speak in elevated ways to graduate students and sometimes to other colleagues as well. The following excerpt exemplifies this:

One behavior I have witnessed is the firing off of a never-ending barrage of questions that inevitably draws graduate students to tears during their defenses. Because they cannot answer the clipped queries quickly enough or as effectively as they would like, the students become emotionally distraught. In such scenarios, speed becomes erroneously equated with rigor and near-bullying passes off as critique. (C1)

In the hierarchical institutional set up described in C5, the dynamics is different. Here, teacher educators are both victims and perpetrators of entitled behavior. The teacher educators are often at the receiving end of the unreasonable expectations of the academic leadership and find themselves devastated in both body and mind. The following excerpt from Ayşe (a pseudonym) reveals how the trauma of such experience made her decide to resign from work:

No matter how hard I worked and how much extra time I devoted to my work, the academic leader always found mistakes … There were times I felt insulted in front of my colleagues. When I explained that this was not acceptable, he said he was entitled to be authoritative in his position as an academic leader. I was aware of his responsibility as an academic leader but his entitled behavior was insufferable … This has happened more than 3 times in the last 6 months. Eventually I decided to leave my job … I feel guilty for student teachers, because I promised to lead them until the end of their graduation. However, I started to observe signs of stress on my body …

The entitlement mentality is often transferred to the teacher educators from their higher authorities and student teachers become victimized in turn. Ali, a student teacher, speaks of the oppression they experience when teacher educators show signs of the entitled behavior:

Sometimes we see that the faculty members are very stress[ed] and do not show any tolerance to us…. I think they also have bad days in the faculty. They are overloaded; this may be because of bad administrators. They also have personal problems in their private lives. They sometimes bring these to the classroom environment. Actually, I know that they are not robots. They are human beings. They need to be understood by their administrators. If they receive empathy, they will show us
empathy and will respect us. We are not robots, either. They can show more tolerance, with the deadlines of the homework assignments, for example.

Mismatch between supply and demand: There are limited goods in the academy, but these goods are important because they determine the material and emotional well-being of faculty members. These include who gets tenured, who gets promoted, who leads search committees, who has access to department resources, who represents the department at college and university meetings, whose voices are most heard in the department, etc. The mismatch between supply and demand can encourage those members of faculty who are ‘outcome oriented’ (Fisk, 2010) vie for what is not their due or bid for rewards without exerting the effort to deserve it. They reap the benefit of those around them who put forth the required effort for institutional grants: “Those with big grants feel entitled--and despite often not being in the context (because they are at meetings related to the grants), they still feel they have the right to all the best goods of the academy--despite lack of presence.” (C1)

Entitled feelings could also drive professors to behave unscrupulously: “Those in charge often use new people or young people without tenure to gather information for those with power and/or leadership positions. Right now, I know of an international faculty member who will not receive tenure. Her case was just decided. When she arrived, she was used to gather information and to respond negatively to others on faculty.” (C1)

Mismatch between curricular expectation and reality:
Curriculum is usually shaped in keeping with educational policies that envision the ideal with expectations of teaching and learning to fulfill it. However, these aspirational goals are often remote from the reality of the cultural context in which the curriculum is transacted thus creating dilemmatic situations that spur feelings of entitlement.

This is illustrated in C3 which is about challenges encountered while training Masters Students studying to become elementary school language teachers. The policy rules that every language teacher has to teach a modern language in elementary schools. For most trainee teachers it is English in which they themselves have very low proficiency. They find it a struggle to learn to teach it. There is a lot of resentment among language trainee teachers as they are forced to comply with training objectives and rules in order to obtain the teaching qualification (Leroy, 2018). For trainee teachers, feeling of entitlement involves a self-centred disposition, coupled with a consumer mentality (Lippmann et al., 2009) that makes them unable to relate to the broader humanistic goals and purposes of language education envisioned in the education policy. They expect that they receive high grades regardless of their actual performance level in teaching English.

Culturally embedded deficit views:
The standard curriculum that is legitimized in formal education occupies a largely unquestioned universal space. It fails to acknowledge other knowledge and languages that the culturally diverse students bring to class. This has led to the common cultural belief that difference is deficiency (Ratnam, 2015). This implicit belief makes teachers blame students and the student’s home environment without taking responsibility for their learning or trying to understand the learning needs of the pupil as the following excerpt from a teachers’ meeting (C4) illustrates:

Language teacher: Her [pupil] performance is very low; her family situation is also complicated which decreases her chances of making any progress. Her parents are divorced and blame each other for the girl's poor performance.

Science teacher: She [The pupil] tends to physically hide behind her classmates; she wants to disappear behind their backs...She does not misbehave but has a tendency to escape from any instructional interaction which, at the end, results in poor understanding of basic concepts and, she ends up getting poor marks in exams.

The supervisor: Maybe you should make her sit in the front row. That would help her to be more engaged in the learning activities.

Language teacher: It is not going to make any difference. Any improvement in her school performance depends on her parents, not us. If her parents do not get involved, we can’t do anything.

The sense of self-righteousness among teachers who hold unexamined assumptions about the putative cognitive deficiency of students who perform poorly on standard tests is also reported in C2. In the quantitative data collected from a sample of 110 teachers, a question that revealed the entitled thinking
of teachers was one about their assumption regarding the reason for student failure, and the results were alarming: 28% of primary school teachers and 45% of low secondary school teachers considered that the student is the sole cause and teachers were not responsible for it. Teacher overload and lack of sustained support for teacher change also seem to contribute to nurturing teacher entitlement behavior.

**Lenient teacher assessment:**
In C2, the children enrolled in well rated schools located in privileged neighborhood get a lot of support from parents who are highly ambitious for their children. This is a significant contributing factor to their meritorious performance on district and national tests. However, a majority of the teachers assumed full credit for their student success in response to a question about the reasons for student success. The district and national student evaluation are undertaken for languages, science and math, valorizing these subjects and the teachers who teach them. These teachers also receive good performance ratings as teacher assessment is based on student performance rather than their professional competence. So, they tend to overestimate the quality of their teaching and feel very superior.

**Effects of teacher/faculty entitlement**

**Blocking the path to learning and change:**
Entitled feeling is accompanied by a sense of superiority and arrogance that one knows and knows more than others. They do not seem to feel the need to question or rethink their beliefs and assumptions and develop professionally. Research has found overly lenient performance feedback contributes to feelings of entitlement (Fisk, 2010). When teachers receive high ratings as in C2 and areas of improvement are not addressed, they assume that they are entitled to it. Lenient assessment promotes a sense of complacency. Teachers fail to see the need for improvement. They come to believe that they deserve more for doing the same. This unprogressive effect could be true of all cases of teacher/faculty entitlement regardless of the dynamics that bolsters it.

Teacher entitled behavior is detrimental to student learning also. As Ali pointed out, "When they are hard on us, we lose our motivation" (C5). Entitlement destroys individual’s motivation and lowers productivity (Hams, 2012). With no progress in their own learning, teachers (C2, C4)/faculty (C1,C3,C5) are unable to cater to the changing learning needs of the students.

**Blind to one’s own perpetuation of oppressive behaviors:**
Teachers’ entitled attitude that makes them shun their responsibility towards their students, is very likely to lead to secure prejudices and subjective norms that can be harming to the students (Biesta, Priestley & Robinson, 2015; Zhu & Anagondahalli,2018; Hoy & Weinstein, 2006). The sometimes simplified analysis of the complex teaching situations may lead to mistaken frames for action. In the case of the diverse student in C4, the teachers seemed to be totally unaware of the larger historical and socio-economic processes at work in putting the student at a disadvantage in class. It blocked the teachers’ understanding of the inclusive attention the pupil needed. It blinded them to the harmful demotivating effect their insensitivity could have on the pupil. For example, the teachers’ dismissive attitude of the pupil denied her the opportunity to sit in front and perhaps be better engaged in classroom activities in close proximity to the teacher.

In C1, the professor’s volley of questions unleashed what critical theorists describe as “symbolic violence” (Bourdieu and Passeron, 1990) on the poor students who felt overwhelmed by it and unable to respond quickly enough. In C5, the story narrated by Ayşe was another example of the damaging effect on her that symbolic violence can have. In this case the entitled academic leader’s behavior had a cascading effect. It transferred to the teacher educator from the higher authority and student teachers became victimized in turn. Excessive entitlement creates an insecure and uncomfortable setting in which faculty members feel threatened. They feel compelled to use similar authoritarian behavior in relation to their student teachers very often unintentionally and unaware to themselves.
Negative impact on workplace relationship:

Entitlement mentality plays havoc on workplace relationship. In C1, when a student was bullied by the senior professor, a fresh colleague intervened and said something about emotional despair not being synonymous with rigor. The professor took it as a personal insult and retaliated. From then on he hated this junior colleague. Research also indicates that aggressive retaliatory behavior is likely when entitled individuals are vindictive and unforgiving of others (Bies & Tripp, 2005; Exline et al., 2004).

In C2, the group of teachers who felt entitled formed an aristocratic clique and other teachers developed low self-esteem vis-à-vis these teachers. They also had the tendency to do the minimum required of them. Unlike the other teachers who were obliging, the privileged teachers refused to share the considerable amount of contingent work that arose in school. The contract's provisions were very clear, and the teachers conformed to them. They exercised their legal right to refuse extra work. The principal of the school found it difficult to have conversation with these teachers. Students were also scared to approach them.

The teacher educators in C3 go through a lot of ‘emotional labour’ (Steinberg, 2013; Winograd, 2003) in resolving the conflicts triggered by the trainee teachers’ entitled behaviour that made them expect inflated grades and rebelled when they did not get it. This was in spite of an institutional context anchored in tradition and hierarchy where faculty was in control and set the boundaries.

C5 shows how the interrelated chain of entitlement and excessive use of it upsets the collegial relationship among faculty and student teachers. Therefore, not only teacher educators’ perception of entitlement but also academic leaders’ entitlement mentality impacts the nature of social relationships within the faculty.

Deconstructing excessive teacher/faculty entitlement

Teachers/faculty who feel entitled to being respected and rewarded for the work they do, seem justified in their expectations. There are others who feel excessively entitled and believe that they are superior to others and expect rewards that is incommensurate with the work they do thinking that they deserve it. They are mindless of the consequence that their self-serving, aristocratic outlook and entitled behavior might have on their colleagues, students and the democratic ethos of the institution as a whole. Viewing this problem of excessive teacher entitlement from a sociocultural perspective has helped us unravel the cultural and institutional precursors of what seems to be simply an individual’s nature or intentional act.

The study has shown the interacting dynamics of the individual and the social in the construction of assumptions, beliefs and expectations that lead to feelings of excessive entitlement using illustrative examples from five diverse contexts.

Literatures on academic (student) entitlement and employee entitlement (dealing with organizational contexts) have provided a basis for defining excessive teacher/faculty entitlement and in gaining some preliminary understanding of the phenomenon. However, recommendations to address the problem in literature on employee entitlement (e.g., Naumann et al., 2002; Klimchak et al., 2015) and academic entitlement (Burke & Hughey, 2014; Gotschall, 2015; Lippmann et al., 2009; Price-Mitchell, 2012) are largely strategic in nature. While the focus in employee entitlement is on contractual relationship, compensation systems, in academic entitlement it’s about clarifying expectations, guiding teacher-student interactions, role modeling, giving time and penalties for breaking rules. All these strategies make it seem that the problem of entitlement behavior is a function of individual’s intentional reconstruction of behavior. This seems to miss the interaction of the larger social and institutional structures (Portes & Vadeboncoeur, 2003) in the development of individual’s self-concept that mediate personal experience without the awareness of the individual. It is this tacit working of the sociocultural and institutional processes that create teacher blind spots, the gap between their espousals/intentions and their implicit beliefs that are beyond their immediate experience and awareness. It is this lack of self-awareness that makes them feel self-righteous about their action, which, in the eye of a beholder, might seem unjust. The professor who retaliated (C1), the academic administrator who was arrogant (C5) and the teachers’ unsympathetic attitude towards the pupil (C4) can all be seen to reflect excessive entitlement behavior nurtured by their blind spots.
This means addressing excessive teacher/faculty entitlement requires becoming aware of the self in its
entire tacit dimension. The better teachers/faculty understand the extent to which they are constrained
externally, the closer they will come to understanding and exercising real freedom (Bakhtin, 1986). The
question for teacher/faculty education is, ‘How can teachers be supported to identify their blind spots,
so they can change who they are as persons?’ This transformative change involves questioning who they
are and what values they hold. It marks a journey towards ‘self-authorship’ (Baxter Magolda, 2004). It’s
a process by which they become aware of themselves, hearing their voice (Belenky et al., 1986) regarding
questions about, ‘How do I act?’, ‘What is the basis of my action?’, and ‘What are the personal and social
constraints to my action?’ Understanding the self is a deeply reflective process of moral and intellectual
meaning making (Ratnam, 2016).

6. CONCLUSION
In this paper, we have attempted to characterize what teacher/faculty entitlement means and the climate
which enables it using five case studies from diverse cultural and geographic locales. Based on the
findings of the study and supported by literature, it seeks to draw attention to the presence of excessive
teacher/faculty entitlement in schools and universities and its adverse impact on the health of the
institution, of students and teachers’ learning and change. The phenomenon of excessive teacher/faculty
entitlement needs to be acknowledged by educational administrators as a significant issue with which
they need to contend.

While the studies here capture some facets of teacher entitlement mentality, there is much more scope
for investigation to increase our understanding of it both conceptually and empirically. In our effort to
help teachers move from entitled to empowered teachers, there seems to be an urgent need to promote a
culture of collegial relationship and well-being. As Lugones’ (1990) travel metaphor informs us, there is
a need to draw both victims and perpetrators of oppression into an enlightening dialogue and healing
embrace in order to counter the potential harm ensuing from teachers’ entitled mentalities.

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