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**Teacher Education,
Facing the Intercultural Dialogue**

Proceedings

Prof. N.Engels & Prof.A.Libotton, eds.

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Note from the editors

Dear colleagues,

It was our privilege to welcome you at the Vrije Universiteit Brussel for the 33rd annual conference of the ATEE. We worked hard to make these five days both productive and enjoyable.

ATEE 2008 was again an opportunity to present the results of our work, undertake in depth discussions with other scholars in the field, socialise and create professional networks.

The theme of the conference was ‘Teacher education, facing the intercultural dialogue’.

The enlargement of the European Union and the increased mobility and migratory flows between countries, results in more exchanges and interactions between citizens of Europe and beyond, people with various and different cultures, languages, ethnicities, etc.

The challenge is to deal with these new and complex data in our societies and to live in coexistence with different cultural identities and beliefs.

An intercultural dialogue can contribute to that coexistence, promoting mutual respect and understanding, recognition of values and identities, but also discovering common and shared belongings.

Therefore, institutions providing initial and/or inservice teacher education should consider that they themselves become more and more embedded in this intercultural context, and that the personal development of their student teachers as well as their employability and professional functioning should be reconsidered consequently. Building multilinguism into the curriculum, organizing staff and student exchange and participating in learning community based projects are only a few examples of approaches that could stimulate the intercultural dialogue.

This conference initiated the discussion on theoretical as well as practical perspectives about the realization of intercultural dialogue throughout educational settings. The conference presented 'examples of good practice', mobility initiatives in teacher education programs, studies on curriculum adaptations, innovations towards inclusion, research based implementation and evaluation of intercultural initiatives as well as policy oriented cases and philosophical considerations.

We are particularly pleased that the conference participants were able to address the challenge of this topic in a creative way. The large number of presentations and the number of interactive sessions such as symposia and workshops realised an intellectually stimulating conference. A number of contributions is presented in these proceedings.

We also hope that the conference was a socially agreeable experience as well. Brussels is a cosmopolitan city where many different cultures live together and where different languages can be heard on each street. Its liveliness and international flair is, of course, intimately related to its role as a crossroads for all of Europe. Brussels has an important international vocation: as the 'European capital', the city is home to the European Commission and to the Council of ministers of the European Union (EU) and hosts the Nato Headquarters and lots of International Business companies. We hope our participants could enjoy the visit of the city, taking some intercultural memories back home...

Organizing a conference like this would not have been possible without the help of a number of people. We would like to express our gratitude to all university staff members - academic, administrative and technical - who donated their services.

We also thank the chairs and co-chairs of ATEE's research and development centres for taking up their roles as chairs of the parallel sessions and business meetings, as well as the ATEE president and secretariat for the logistic and administrative support.

Our special thanks to our sponsors: The Brussels-Capital Government, The Vrije Universiteit Brussel, SN Brussels Airlines and Qudit.

Prof. Dr. Nadine Engels,
Prof. Dr. Arno Libotton,
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Working with Local Authorities to Lead and Manage Master's Level Continuing Professional Development (CPD) for School teachers.

Ada Adeghe – University of Wolverhampton, United Kingdom

Abstract

Major changes nationally mean that engaging teachers in Master's level teaching and learning is top of the government's agenda. This has meant that supporting teachers to engage with Master's level teaching and learning has become a high priority for Higher Education institutions and Local Authorities alike. This paper examines ongoing work carried out by the University of Wolverhampton School of Education in collaboration with CPD co-ordinators in the four 'Black Country' local authorities in the West Midlands region of the United Kingdom to lead and manage Master's level professional development for school teachers. Leadership represents a theme that has become increasingly important in professional development. Previously, much professional development activity had been focused through individuals. The recent focus on networks and knowledge creating educational communities establishes the importance of more collective approaches to school improvement. A series of consultation events have been held with local authority co-ordinators to elicit their views on opportunities and challenges involved in leading Master's level professional development. CPD co-ordinators are acting as mentors and critical friends who are enabling teachers to identify and constructively utilise key concepts and general principles based upon evidence and the use of academic and other literature and to critically reflect on the professional gains resulting from masters level CPD. Early indications point to the need for local authorities CPD co-ordinators to work closely with University staff to

increase their involvement in scholarly and research related activities to ensure that they are well equipped to offer the necessary support to school teachers. This collaborative endeavour to lead and manage Master's level CPD for school teachers continues to enhance the professional learning of CPD co-ordinators and university staff alike and enable them to make an informed contribution to school evaluation and improvement.

Introduction

In December 2007, the Children's Plan outlined the government's ambition to make teaching a Master's level profession. (DCSF, December 2007). The rationale relates to further improving teacher quality to raise standards and narrow the achievement gap, giving children better life chances and to further advance the status of the profession. Recent international results underline the need for England to strengthen focus on pupil outcomes. World-class systems have a strong ethos of continual development and professional support. Subsequently publications such as "Being the Best for Our Children" (DCSF, March, 2008) introduced the new qualification, the 'Masters for Teaching and Learning' (MTL) to take effect from September 2009 by working with 'social partnership to introduce a new qualification building on the recently agreed performance management measures.' (DCSF, 2008). This new qualification would be targeted at teachers in the first 5 years of their careers in the first instance, although the expectation is that it will eventually cover the whole profession. The Master's in Teaching and Learning, it is expected, would be delivered jointly by schools and Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) by trained tutors and school-based coaches. It would be a modular award and based upon practice. It is

also expected that the MTL would build upon Initial Teacher Education (ITE) and induction programmes.

These major developments nationally mean that supporting teachers to engage with Master's level teaching and learning has become a high priority for Higher Education Institutions and Local Authorities alike. At the University of Wolverhampton the Master's level professional development on offer aims to build upon teachers' existing skills, experience or qualifications and also enable them to develop skills, knowledge and understanding which are practical, relevant and applicable to their current roles, responsibilities or career aspirations. The learning experiences are collaborative and enquiry based, with a clear vision of the effective or improved practice being sought by all parties involved. Critical to the success of this collaborative and enquiry based model is the partnership that the University of Wolverhampton's School of Education currently has with the four 'Black Country' Local Authorities in the West Midlands region of the United Kingdom. These are Wolverhampton, Dudley, Sandwell and Walsall local authorities. The School of Education has recently revised its CPD strategy and one key priority is to continue to work towards improved partnership arrangements with these four Local Authorities. The current development in making the teaching profession a Master's level profession has meant increased activity between the University of Wolverhampton and the Local Authorities to explore effective ways of supporting school teachers in making this vision a reality by reviewing current Master's professional development on offer and developing strategies for improved professional development at Master's level.

The Study:

This paper will focus on ongoing work by the School of Education CPD department incorporating Professional and Postgraduate Development Studies in collaboration

with CPD co-ordinators in the local authorities to support Master's level accredited professional development. CPD co-ordinators have also been offered opportunity through accreditation to reflect upon and evaluate the nature of professional learning and the policy context in which education reform currently takes place. The accredited opportunity will enable new, established and aspiring CPD co-ordinators to develop their capacity to create meaningful CPD experiences. Leadership represents a theme that has become increasingly important in professional development. Jackson and Street (2005) highlight the importance for leaders of the concept of reciprocal accountability. 'The system is asking more from schools and from school leaders in terms of raising the bar and closing the gap of achievement. School leaders in their turn are increasing their expectations of their staff. It is the leaders who have the responsibility to create the enabling conditions for collaborative enquiry and sustained learning to take place in our schools' (Jackson and Street, 2005, p. 51). Previously, much professional development activity had been focused through individuals. The recent focus on networks and knowledge creating educational communities establishes the importance of more collective approaches to school improvement (Bartlett, 2002).

One of the goals of this investigation is to seek best ways of assuring improved and increased participation by all university partners in the planning, implementation and evaluation of Master's level professional development. All genuine partnerships and collaboration mean active involvement and participation by all parties involved. This must be underpinned by shared ownership, values and mutual trust. The university's work with partners has for a long time been informed by principles such as, the ability to get along with one another, having a shared philosophical base, professional respect, and atmosphere where constructive criticism

can flourish and a commitment to spend time planning, evaluating, reflecting and speculating together (Lloyd & Beard, 1995).

The School of Education CPD collaborative work with the Local Authorities relate mainly to training programmes offered by the local authorities and quality assured and accredited by the University of Wolverhampton. Some bespoke programmes are also developed and delivered by the department to meet local authority priorities. Training and development needs are generally identified by the local authority co-ordinators who work with university staff to develop appropriate training opportunities. Activities carried out at this stage include agreeing outcomes for the training programme as well as relevant tasks to support participating teachers gain accreditation. The department also offers support in identifying possible progression routes via progression charts to show teachers how they will progress depending on their career aspirations and development needs. These are customised to reflect training opportunities offered by each Local Authority.

Workshop sessions on writing at Master's level are also offered by the university staff mainly once a term. These are designed to enhance training programmes as they offer participants the opportunity for guided reflection on the processes of the training, and the impact it has made on their practice and on their own professional development. The workshops also provide an opportunity to study and engage with the process of critical reflection at a deeper level. Evidenced based portfolios, supported by well informed critical reflection is useful for supporting accreditation claims at Master's level.

The demands placed upon leaders of learning communities are diverse and numerous (Bubb and Earley, 2004). Leadership in Educational organisations create certain

expectations and requires specific skills and characteristics, more so as the educational environment continues to change at an ever alarming rate. Teachers have differing levels of experience and are at different stages of their careers and there are sets of qualities and functions pertinent to different responsibilities in education. Harris and Lambert (2003) emphasise the importance for schools to build leadership capacity: 'If schools are to be real learning communities this cannot be achieved by operating with outdated models of change and improvement dependent upon individual leadership. Developing and sustaining school improvement will require schools to invest in and nurture the leadership capabilities of all those within their school community' (Harris and Lambert, 2003, p.121).

CPD co-ordinators are charged with the responsibility of supporting and challenging schools to actively engage teachers in CPD related activities in a supportive way. Currently, there seems to be insufficient support from schools for teacher's CPD. Research findings indicate that secondary school teachers currently spend only 3% of their time on CPD related activities (Teachers' workload Diary survey, 2006). 45% of teachers do not feel that CPD is a highly valued activity in their school (McKinsey, 2007). Only 15% of teachers frequently received CPD support from a mentor or coach (GTC survey, 2006). Together with school based mentors, CPD co-ordinators support teachers to focus on the outcomes of their teaching on pupils' learning rather than the teaching process itself. They are expected to facilitate the sharing of best practices and innovation and assure more efficient dissemination of expertise and experience. Planned CPD activities are expected to build the capacity of schools to respond positively to the need for continuous development and change. There is also the increasing demand for accountability, rising tide of regulations, new technologies and the need for diversification, all factors with strong implications for the

employability of staff and the professional development of school teachers, CPD co-ordinators and university staff alike.

Methodology:

A qualitative study was carried out with a structured sample of participants to seek out CPD co-ordinators' perceptions of leading and managing Master's level professional development for school teachers as well as the role of the University of Wolverhampton, a Higher Education Institution, in supporting Local Authorities to progress that agenda. The paradigm chosen to carry out this investigation is congruent with the nature of the phenomena under investigation (see Flick, 2000). This methodology used a focus group approach to explore CPD co-ordinators' perceptions of leading Master's level professional development for school teachers. The researcher was also keen to generate a discussion forum about CPD co-ordinators' perceptions of HEI support needs hence this chosen method. The process provided a permissive, non-threatening environment that generated rich discussions about leading and managing Master's level professional development and perceptions on of how the University of Wolverhampton can support Local Authority co-ordinators to progress this agenda (Kreuger, 1999; Munday, 2006).

A focus group was held with 12 Local Authority co-ordinators. In addition, four interviews were carried out with the lead co-ordinator in each of the four local authorities. The purpose of this was to explore the opinions of participants which afforded one the opportunity to gain understanding of the meaning and attitudes of the participants' experience of leading Master's level CPD (Van Manen, 2001). The

researcher also sought to find out not only challenges faced by CPD co-ordinators in supporting master's level study but also their perceptions of teachers' challenges based on their interactions and discussions with participants engaging in master's level accredited studies.

Findings:

The research has generated seven main findings:

1. Lack of confidence on the part of some Local Authority co-ordinators to support Master's level professional development.
2. Local Authority co-ordinators would welcome increased opportunities to be more involved in relevant staff development activities held by the University as well as marking and internal moderation processes.
3. Lack of confidence on the part of CPD co-ordinators to identify staff training and development needs.
4. Tensions often resulting from teachers' conflicting interests, development needs and priorities.
5. Tension between the time needed to support Master's level work and time possible in the light of teachers' workload.
6. Need for increased involvement of the University in planning and delivery of Local Authority Training programmes.
7. The taught module being offered by the University of Wolverhampton is a welcome development which will afford CPD co-ordinators a supportive network to critically reflect on the requirements of Master's' level professional development.

Discussion and Conclusion:

What has become evident from this study is that some Local Authority co-ordinators see their role in progressing the government's agenda to make the teaching profession a Master's level profession as somewhat daunting. Some Local Authority co-ordinators themselves are not working at master's level. This obviously poses challenges with regard to their ability to support colleagues to gain Master's level accreditation. Master's level credits are now integrated in many initial teacher training courses. Many Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) programmes offer students around 60 Master's Level credits, meaning that participants who complete will already be well on their way to securing a full Master's award on achieving QTS. Newly Qualified Teachers will be more informed about the Master's level criteria than they previously were and that places demands on the knowledge and skills of more experienced teaching staff who will be in a mentoring, supporting and coaching role.

Some CPD co-ordinators openly admit their lack of understanding of what constitutes Master's level work. This is a significant cause for concern. Critical reflection and literature engagement pose particular difficulties for some teachers. Master's programmes are underpinned by the integration of theory and practice. Critical analysis of theory, research, policy and practice must be undertaken with the explicit intention of improving practice. Some school teachers' use of literature is sometimes limited due to pressures of time and access to university libraries and resources. To be successful however, reflection must employ insights gained from literature and teachers must demonstrate an awareness of the limitations of the professional development undertaken. The benefits of critically reflective educational practice with

a view to improving learning outcomes for students can never be over-emphasised (O'Halon, 1996; Schon, 1993). This is no easy programme if those leading Master's level professional development are not qualified to do so.

Local Authority co-ordinators feel that they will benefit immensely from an even more improved collaborative partnership with the University if they are to succeed in their role of supporting Master's level professional development for school teachers. This will mean increased involvement in curriculum development, planning and joint delivery of training programmes. In the present collaborative partnership, marking is strictly carried out at present only by university staff due to quality assurance issues. There needs to be an increased trust and confidence in the knowledge and expertise of those Local Authority co-ordinators who feel they are sufficiently well qualified to engage in marking and moderation responsibilities. Those who do not feel confident to do so need to be supported and enabled to assess at Master's level. CPD co-ordinators are acting as mentors and critical friends who are enabling teachers to identify key concepts and general principles based upon evidence and the use of academic and other literature. They also challenge teachers to progress from simply outlining the views or statements of authors to gaining insight into their professional context through the use of academic and other relevant literature and using their professional experience to challenge such literature as appropriate.

One way of enabling this is through joint research and scholarly activities. An all too common shortfall in work submitted by some teachers at master's level is insufficient evidence of a professional development and academic experience informed by in depth theoretical literature and more critical reflection. Engaging in research related

activities will ensure that CPD co-ordinators are well equipped to offer the necessary support to school teachers. Teachers need support in identifying relevant literature which may include regulatory, official and inspection literature e.g. national standards, inspection frameworks, professional literature e.g. school policy, documents and academic and other literature. This will increase the knowledge and expertise of both University staff, CPD co-ordinators and teachers alike.

There is a need for increased University involvement in planning and delivery of Local Authority training programmes for teachers. For e.g., two local authorities co-ordinators lead residential training events for their school teachers. At present university staff are not invited to these events. An opportunity to offer an extended support workshop on writing at Master's level is being missed here. There is the perception that teachers will be 'put off' training opportunities if accreditation is introduced too soon. There is strong evidence however that teachers are better able to reflect critically on their professional development activities when the requirements for success at master's level are introduced at the start of the training programme. In order to gain maximum value from the accreditation programme or postgraduate professional development, it is best to have clarity as early as possible as to the use of academic and theoretical insights to inform teachers' reflection in their professional context.

The accredited training programme being offered by the University of Wolverhampton will support CPD co-ordinators to identify staff training and development needs. While CPD should reflect priorities of teachers, schools, local authorities and national priorities, co-ordinators often note tensions and conflicting interests, development needs and priorities, especially if teachers have Master's

awards already. The team of co-ordinators will benefit from discussions as to how best to manage these tensions. The new teachers' standards can be used by schools and local authorities as a framework to support the process of professional review and development. Teachers would be enabled to identify where they are in their professional development, what their strengths might be and identify areas where they might require further support and development.

The tension that exists between time needed to support Master's level work and the time possible in the light of teachers' workload also needs to be well considered and managed. The accredited programme will afford CPD co-ordinators the opportunity to engage in professional dialogue, plan actions, review evidence and reflect on outcomes. Already there are signs that CPD co-ordinators value the rich professional learning that collaboration and inquiry can afford.

.The collaboration between the University of Wolverhampton and four Local Authorities creates a supportive learning partnership, one which enables all parties involved to explore the tensions involved in developing appropriate CPD priorities for schools and individuals and the leadership and management implications of these. Through the partnership relationship and the accredited opportunity in particular, CPD co-ordinators and University staff continue to reflect upon the development of their own knowledge and critical awareness with regard to Master's level CPD. All parties continue to enhance their own professional learning with a view to making informed contributions to school evaluation and improvement.

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Towards a European Teacher Education curriculum: the emett project.

Francesca Caena, University of Venice

Introduction

The paper aims at raising some issues concerning expected outcomes of Initial Secondary Teacher Education, following up recent Council of Europe indications and studies.

Comparative sketches of TE features in some EU countries allow to outline possible developments, towards a shared EU TE curriculum.

Against this background, the European project **emett** (European Master for European Teacher Training), within the Erasmus Life Long Learning programme, is outlined in its objectives and development, aiming at an agreed common curriculum for European Secondary Teacher Education, by means of a joint degree at master's level. The project involves eight EU university institutions, providers of initial and in-service secondary teacher education, representing main European geographical areas. The University of Venice is responsible for project management.

1. Education, Teacher Education and EHEA: the European background

Improvements in education and training have often been pinpointed as essential, political priorities on the European agenda – almost a leitmotiv:

- *Lisbon agenda* (2000): invitation to reflection on concrete future education and training goals, for EU as most competitive knowledge economy
- *Quality indicators Life Long Learning* (2002): need for overarching strategy enabling citizens to update high-level knowledge, skills and competences as pre-requisites for personal development and social participation
- *Life Long Learning programme 2007-2013* (2006): encourages use and exchange of innovative products and processes to improve the quality of education and training, as well as cooperation in quality assurance.

At the same time, EU recommendations and studies about the European Higher Education Area and Teacher Education have resounded with similar messages:

- *Bologna Declaration* (1999): EHEA involving 29 EU countries
- *Tuning project I/II* (2000-2006)
- *European Profile of Language Teacher Education* (2004)

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- *Common European principles for teacher competences and qualifications* (2005)
 - *European Qualifications Framework for Higher Education* (2005)
 - *EPOSTL: European Portfolio student teachers of languages* (2006)
 - *European Qualifications Framework for lifelong learning* (2008)
 - *Improving the Quality of Teacher Education* (2007).

The latter document highlights a series of issues concerning secondary teacher education in Europe:

- the complex role of teachers as mediators between pupils and a rapidly evolving world
- the importance of competences for employment and need to adapt education and training to new competence requirements
- the need for a reform of education systems as efficient and equitable
- the necessity of ensuring attractiveness and high quality standards of education and training
- the quality of teaching (motivation, skills and competences) as key factor for pupil performance
- the need for a culture of reflective practice and research within the teaching profession, viewed within a lifelong learning perspective
- a EU commission's framework strategy for multilingualism, identifying the quality of language teachers and their training as important challenges
- the professional mobility of teachers within a EU legal framework, with recognition of professional qualifications
- a lack of continuity and consistency between different elements of teacher education in EU member states, with low budgets allotted for the training and professional development of teachers, and the need for incentives for teacher motivation and retention.

2. The 'emett' project focus

The current situation of TE in quite a number of EU member states underlines similar common concerns and developments. There are ongoing processes of reform and revision of Teacher Education curricula within higher education institutions, according to Bologna process indications, towards Masters' level qualifications (second cycle). This entails tensions between indications and prompts on international, global level and needs, constraints, cultures on national or local level. Furthermore, a growing awareness is felt about the need for research-based decisions concerning national Teacher Education curricula in Europe, so far

often developed according to beliefs, traditions, assumptions rather than scientific judgements.

As a consequence, the emett project has the following aims:

- ensuring a European approach to secondary teacher education
- promoting the mobility of trainees and faculty staff
- promoting language learning and linguistic diversity in multicultural contexts
- contributing to greater transparency and comparability between higher education institutions and professional qualifications of teachers and trainers by outcome/workload-based modules;
- awarding a joint master's degree.

The project main activities include as necessary steps:

- an analysis of current secondary teacher education curricula and related national systems/requirements in EU partner institutions
- the design of a jointly agreed European secondary teacher education curriculum of studies for the joint degree
- the approval of a mutually agreed procedure leading to the framework for the joint degree
- the development of ECTS and output-related course components in module form.

Preliminary questions are to be asked so as to compare secondary teacher education curricula frameworks in Europe.

- What is a European quality teacher like?
- Which overall architecture of a common TE curriculum can be devised, against the background of the different structures in partner countries?

OECD and EU documents suggest the relevance of four domains as components of the teaching profession. They can be described as knowledge, teaching, personal and world citizenship domains.

In particular, the EU document *Common Principles for Teacher Competences and Qualifications* (2005) underlines some key features in teaching as a well-qualified, mobile, research-based, lifelong developing profession:

- Knowledge of subject matter
- Knowledge of pedagogy
- Skills/competences for supporting learning
- Understanding the social-cultural dimension of education.

The emett project approach fits into such perspective. In fact, the professional profile of teachers is viewed as concerned with strategies and skills, reflective action research, knowledge and understanding, values. Developing this profile into a TE core curriculum entails considering the interplay of three key processes within teacher education (Margiotta 2006, 2007). A mapping process, concerned with subject studies foundations, turns out to be

interwoven with a procedural process referring to subject teaching methodologies, and an imaginative process triggered by practicum teaching in schools.

An hologram can thus describe the professional features of a teacher:

- A reflective professional (reflection on practices, research for innovation of perspectives/tools)
- An educational guide (support of pupil personal development, promoting positive social relationships)
- A social actor (cooperative work with colleagues and partnerships)
- A technical expert (activating teaching situations, using techniques and tools)
- An expert teacher (mastering pedagogical, psychological, subject/interdisciplinary and epistemological knowledge)
- A skilled craftsman (using strategies and action patterns for specific objectives).

As a consequence, teaching becomes a value strategy, implying the interaction of deontological awareness, practice analysis, social project building, experience production, and subject status.

Moreover, TE curriculum development demands cannot help considering the indications of the EU study *European Profile for Language Teacher Education* (2004), as for aims, objectives and key features of TE:

- an integration of theory and practice
- a flexible and modular delivery
- an intercultural and multicultural environment
- a framework for teaching practice
- the value of mentoring
- transnational links with HEI partners and school institutions
- observing and participating in teaching in more than one country
- an international evaluation framework
- in-service continuous improvement of teaching skills
- the ongoing education for teacher educators
- a training for school-based mentors
- close links between trainees teaching different target groups.

The TE Master course reference principles aim at an integrated, intercultural, multilinguistic, competitive training profile, concerned with mobility, as well as generative of knowledge and values. The hypothesis of a modular, flexible common curriculum of Secondary Teacher Education is being discussed (120 ECTS):

- Subject studies and epistemologies
- Educational Sciences
- Action research and practice
- Multilingual/ICT Mastery (at least two languages)

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- Intercultural and diversity education
 - Final thesis.

Multilingual and intercultural components turn out to be of peculiar significance in the curriculum, given the limited importance attributed to “international” competences in Tuning questionnaire results among HEIs faculty and graduates (*Tuning II, 2005*).

3. Comparative overview TE

One of the first stages of the project has entailed the comparative overview of Secondary Teacher Education systems in the eight EU HEI partners. Carried out within the first year of the project, it highlights convergencies, as well as significant differences. Its aim is not just to know how teachers are trained, but to single out recurring elements that reveal cross-cultural features, or differences that underline questions and tensions regarding teacher education.

The agreed protocol includes a questionnaire on TE key features to be filled out by all HEIs involved, observation protocols of TE in all HEIs, as well as questionnaires to TE trainers and trainees in all HEIs.

In order to facilitate a common, shared understanding of the comparative analysis by all partners, a preliminary issue ought to be considered - agreement on the meaning of key words about teacher education, employed by each partner in the description of national systems and local practices. This issue is highlighted as key requirement for any international comparative research process or activity by Crossley and Watson (2003). A process of adjustment of such descriptions ought to minimize possible interpretation mistakes, due to different cultural and educational contexts and situations.

As Tuning project report in the Education subject area points out, similarities concern deeper level structure, differences appear at a surface level.

3.1. Similarities

Convergencies mainly regard outcoming professional profile and competences, concern with theory-practice integration, and individualisation of training – aiming at effectiveness.

Some key phrases run through all TE programmes’ objectives of teacher education. The first highlights the integration of cultural and professional teaching expertise, theoretical knowledge and practical teaching skills. The second underlines the relevance of promoting reflective attitudes, thus developing such integration.

As for training models, most models may be defined as simultaneous, for the delivery of theoretical modules/courses and teaching practice, allowing for effective cycles of planning, action and reflection. The current TE curricula in the EU partner HEIs aim at developing professional skills into actions and professional knowledge. Some features are recurrent in the descriptions of professional competences for teaching, which can be broadly summarised as pedagogical, methodological, organisational, evaluating, interpersonal, reflective. Some countries do have a national teacher competences framework as a reference point (France, Hungary, Lithuania). The professional development processes during TE seem to be viewed as mainly individual, personal, by means of knowledge, practical experience, methods and techniques, which are reviewed with reflection on teaching action. Research activities and knowledge stemming from research should possibly be worth mentioning more often.

As for curriculum implementation, theoretical courses seem to play a significant role, delivered by means of lectures and seminars; however, teaching observation, analysis and practice are always present, although with different degrees of importance. Moreover, project work and research activities are clearly pinpointed as relevant in some cases. University-school partnerships are in place in order to promote theory-practice integration in practical contexts, within different frameworks of duties and responsibilities to be shared for trainers' guidance of trainees. Class observation and feedback by trainers and trainees, whether systematic or optional, is often mentioned as relevant for advice and reflection, towards professional competence development.

Practical training key features see the key role of the school-based mentor, for scaffolding professional identity and competence development in context, and providing formative assessment.

This should allow achievement of the main aims of the practical training experience: connecting in-context practice with theoretical or experiential knowledge, within a professional learning community. However, this time-consuming, vital role of the mentor is not always adequately rewarded or acknowledged; sometimes the effectiveness of mentoring seems to be left to the individual trainer's perceptions.

Activities and tasks of the practical teaching experience can give different degrees of autonomy and responsibility to the trainee, according to national perspectives and regulations. The highest degree of autonomy in teaching practice, for Denmark and France, involves individual responsibility for classes, counted as 1st-yr employment; it is then integrated by university-based training seminars and tutorials(alternance model), meant to boost reflection.

In accordance with Tuning report about the current situation in the Education subject area (*Tuning II*, 2005), TE curricula of the HEIs involved include thematic contents covering three broad areas:

- Educational studies
- Subject-related studies

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- Empirically based studies and activities.

The role of theoretical subject studies varies; it is currently predominant in the first year of TE courses in France.

Assessment and evaluation of competence building process include several, often combined processes of formative and summative assessment, related to the different areas of TE programmes.

Assessment of teaching practice is often a shared responsibility of school and university tutors; also, self-assessment mostly seems to play a significant role, usually by means of a portfolio with evidence of professional competences. An analysis and reflection on the practices used with this evaluation mode might be of interest within the project. Summative evaluation of academic/theoretical knowledge usually consists in written/oral tests.

The individualisation of training is viewed as a key concern in all HEIs involved, and implemented in several processes and ways. On-line courses seem to have reached a relevant degree of success in meeting trainees' needs, with delivery and content flexibility, individualised tutoring, and small groups' interaction (e.g. France, Hungary, Italy, Lithuania). As for references to research-based training (educational research, action research), professional knowledge provided refers to research results supporting trainers' and trainees' discourse and activities, trainees' practicum experimentations, project work and thesis.

Research methodology courses are compulsory in some instances (e.g. Cyprus, Denmark, Hungary), in order to provide sound foundations for research activities, usually linked with a final dissertation or thesis.

In order to ensure consistency of training against possible fragmentation within TE programmes, several devices are usually introduced:

- promoting systematic communication and liaising between different categories of trainers for course planning and trainees' assessment (e.g. France)
- TE curriculum structure links different modules within and across courses, promoting interplay between theoretical and practical modules (e.g. Italy)

Trainers' profiles display different professional backgrounds and experiences, reflecting the dialectical tension underpinning the development of professional knowledge and competences suitable for the complexities of teaching:

- university lecturers are usually concerned with educational studies, pedagogy, subject studies and didactics
- excellent teachers selected with university examinations usually take care of practicum supervision, and possibly of teaching workshops (e.g. Italy)
- experienced teachers act as school mentors for tutorship and guidance of practicum teaching activities.

3.2. Differences

Most differences in TE systems stem from national laws and regulations about the official recognition of professional qualifications for teaching, the teacher's status and career development options, as well as educational system and school/university management in the countries involved.

The level of academic requirements for access to teacher education varies according to countries and school level teaching qualification.

BA studies suffice for some countries (Cyprus, France, Hungary, Lithuania), even if secondary education may already give access to lower secondary teaching in some cases (Austria, Denmark, Poland). Italy currently requires MA level qualifications. Selection processes are in place in some cases, related to national decisions about required teaching posts (Cyprus, Italy, France). Some countries set at least two subjects of teaching specialization as compulsory (Austria, Denmark, Hungary, Italy).

Quality assurance processes are diversified.

External quality assurance mechanisms are present in Cyprus, Denmark, Hungary and Lithuania: regular reviews of study programmes by stakeholders' committees, quality assurance audits, final exams evaluations. Internal quality assurance processes are in place in all partners' programmes: students' feedback questionnaires about courses and overall programme, with training observatories as well in some cases (France, Italy).

The number of credits given for validation of courses and modules varies. Written/oral exams, projects, assignments, final dissertation/thesis, practicum experience are usually awarded credits. The practical experience is acknowledged with no less than 16 ECTS.

As for the number of ECTS awarded for current or prospective teacher education in each country, however, official recognition of ECTS credits is not always present yet.

The range of acknowledged ECTS sees the average of 120 ECTS in most cases, with 48 ECTS (Cyprus) and 150 (Hungary) at the ends of the scale. Denmark and Austria embed the 120 ECTS course in longer HE degree programmes.

Requirements for secondary teacher recruitment also vary according to national regulations and demands. Passing a national written/oral examination is compulsory only in some countries (France, Italy, Poland). It is worth noting that such modes of certifying professional qualification ought to consider the relevance of practical teaching skills and knowledge; theoretical and academic knowledge seem to play a highly significant role in some cases.

Professional BA or MA is required according to lower/upper secondary school level in Austria, Denmark, Lithuania, and Poland. MA level is always necessary in France, Hungary and Italy.

As for the professional status of teachers, it is interesting to note that in some countries, qualified teachers access a permanent post soon after TE (France, Hungary, Lithuania);

usually, however, teachers achieve tenure after a certain number of years' experience, sometimes according to a prescribed career development framework (e.g. in Poland). Teachers have the status of civil servants in most countries of the comparative overview – Cyprus and Denmark represent exceptions.

As regards induction and in-service training, which are singled out as weak points by EU studies and reports (*Improving the Quality of Teacher Education, 2007*), there seems to be the need for a systematic, official approach. Induction is usually concerned with familiarisation with school contexts by expert colleagues or heads. However, some countries have acknowledged the key role of induction for teacher quality and retention, taking steps for more effective implementation (France, Hungary).

4.Challenges

The comparative overview allows outlining a few challenges to be tackled in order to finalise a flexible, modular TE curriculum which ought to be compatible with current and prospective TE models and reform trends in the HEIs involved. The issues to be faced might be summed up as follows:

- TE module model and description
- ECTS awarded per module/TE area
- exploitation/adjustment of suitable existing modules in national TEs
- lifelong learning aspects in TE curriculum
- assessment procedures
- ODL: management/delivery
- ICT role: contents/processes

As far as module models and descriptions, Tuning results and indications in the Education subject area will be of valuable help, highlighting the necessary link between generic and subject specific competences, expected outcomes, validation, TLA good practices and quality assurance.

Conclusion

As Stewart points out (2008), the internationalisation of TE is challenging and changing the way we think about education and the impact on curriculum and student experience. It is the responsibility of teacher education providers, as academics, to harness out understanding and enthusiasm for education that is outward looking, democratic and cognisant of diversity.

Even more, from several voices (see Fisher et al, 2006; Loveless, 2008) there is the call not only for TE as a retooling – refreshing the educational process as if retooling an industrial production line – but for a renaissance, a cultural change in the teaching profession, which enables intelligent action in fast changing contexts, according to the principles of postmodern professionalism (Hargreaves and Goodson, 1996; Loveless, 2008).

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Dealing with Diversity in Teaching.
How to manage cross-cultural situations with minority students
on the university campus

Chen-Li Yao

Ching Yun University, Taiwan
chenliyao.ncu@gmail.com

Abstract

Diversity in teaching and leadership includes many factors, such as race, gender, religion, ability and interest. International students especially face many language and cultural barriers, as well as problems of racial discrimination and sexual harassment.

Over the past four decades, diversity has taken on a variety of very different meanings. The earliest conception, a product of the 1960s, refers to representation in, or admission to college. Diversity today refers to the emerging concepts of pluralism or multiculturalism.

This article inquires into diversity of heredity and background, interests and needs, values differences. After raising the questions, it works to define the role of mentor and sympathetic listener and share strategies in developing diversity.

This methodology employs both American theory and Chinese classical canons. At the same time, it uses practical Chinese examples to achieve the goal of cross-cultural acceptance and help the minority students on the campus. This is helpful not only for teachers, but also for education administrators.

Key words

diversity, leadership, multiculturalism

Before discussing “dealing with diversity”, I would like to illustrate the problem by introducing an allegory derived from a wise and humorous philosopher of ancient China – Zhuang Zi (4th cent. B.C.)

The emperor of the South Sea was called Shu [Brief], the emperor of the North Sea was called Hu [Sudden], and the emperor of the central region was called hun-tun [Chaos]. From time to time, Shu and Hu came together for a meeting in the territory of Hun-tun, and Hun-tun treated them very generously. Shu and Hu discussed how they could repay his kindness. “All men,” they said, “have seven openings so they can see, hear, eat, and breathe. But Hun-tun alone doesn’t have any. Let’s try boring him some!”

Every day they bored another hole, and on the seventh day Hun-tun died.¹

People often find it easy to think about everything from their own standpoint. Even if they have the best intentions, it is similar to the emperors of the South and North Seas. From their point of view, “We both have seven openings. On the contrary, Hun-tun has none. How terrible and pitiable he is!” Consequently, because of their enthusiasm and sympathy, it resulted in Hun-tun passing away! If people cannot understand, respect, and accept others’ diversity, or if people are not broadminded, to talk about diversity will be similar to “climbing a tree to catch fish” – a fruitless approach. It will remain an insoluble problem.

While studying in America, I audited an American History class. In our class the professor lectured to over one hundred students. It was a very impressive experience for me to observe that there was a sign-language interpreter, even though there was only one deaf student. They still had a lady who stood by the professor and interpreted in sign-language for the disabled student. I was deeply touched. It was an example of how diversity is emphasized and opportunity is afforded to everyone in the country.

Diversity in leadership includes many factors, such as – (1) race, (2) gender, (3) religion, (4) ability, and (5) interest. My experience in education provides a similar example. There are many barriers for an international student: (1) language barriers, (2) cultural barriers, as well as problems of (3) racial and (4) sexual discrimination. I would like to discuss the first two.

Language and Cultural Diversity

As an international student, I encountered language and cultural barriers. There were numerous language barriers. For example, when Americans use the colloquial expression, saying something is “Mickey Mouse,” I know it does not just refer to a cartoon, but can also be an idiomatic expression. I asked a Chinese woman who has been in America over ten years and has taught in elementary school to explain it, but she did not know what the term meant. Finally, I learned from an American that if something is “Mickey Mouse,” it means that it is not sophisticated, that it is silly and

¹ Watson, Burton (1968). Translator. The Complete Works of Chuang Tzu. “Seven: Fit for Emperors and Kings”. New York: Columbia University Press. p. 97.

childish. This simple expression requires no careful thinking by those whose native language and culture is English/USE, but it is confusing for international students who must spend time clarifying the meaning – in case it is of great importance.

Trying to understand American expressions can be difficult because of the cultural context. Another example would be the expression “to lose one’s shirt”. (Fisher & Ury, 1991)² This American expression is not readily understood by the international students. I can find many similar idioms in my studies everyday, and I do not know their meanings. When I took the course, “School and Society” in the Winter Quarter, 1993, Prof. Harkins said “assume you come from the inner city, and do not have pretty clothes, etc.....” The meaning of “inner city” was not obvious to me. I had to look up the definition. I asked my classmates after class. They told me it is a poor area, that often develops when the affluent whites moved out and the local economy goes bad. I was surprised at this answer and told them the inner city is an area of wealth for Chinese. People can save commuting time, and can also look around the department stores and shop conveniently. The price of housing in the inner city areas is always the most expensive. Chinese call it the “diamond area”. Only the rich can afford to pay for inner city housing in Taiwan. My American classmates were surprised to learn this.

There is a big difference between studying social sciences and studying natural sciences. My Chinese friends asked me, “Do you know why we choose a major in chemistry, math, electrical engineering, computer science, or pharmacy? It is because in these subjects we can communicate by just showing the formula, and the professors understand what we mean. Moreover, we will meet a lot of Chinese students in the classrooms. We can speak Mandarin in the classroom. The American students are sometimes a minority in the class. We eat at the Village Wok (a Chinese restaurant by the campus) or go to the China Market, or other oriental stores after class. It’s so much fun.” Nevertheless, I cherished my study environment, because it broadened my views and offered me the opportunity of cross-cultural study. Moreover, according to the contract that I made with the Ministry of Education, I would leave here immediately when I obtained my degree. I knew I should make the most of the limited time. Therefore, when my Chinese friends knew that I had been there for only four years, all of them were surprised that my English and acculturation had improved so much. So, on the one hand, there is a “problem” that many Chinese students primarily choose subjects that do not develop their English proficiency, but, on the other hand, students who pursue the social sciences often find phrases and cultural contexts very confusing. This led me to ask myself how this problem might be solved.

² Fisher, R. & Ury, W. (1991). Getting to Yes, New York: Penguin Books.

From these examples you can see that international students have to cope with many problems in addition to usual problems any student may face. We must find better ways to accommodate students from other countries.

Would it be possible to train volunteers, who are enthusiastic and patient enough to help international students, to serve as their mentors? Volunteers can also develop leadership attributes and teaching skills by helping international students acquire knowledge and skills for their work assignments. There is not enough support for international students when the vocabulary is hurriedly explained in the restroom or in a hallway.

The Role of Mentors: Sympathetic Listening Is the First Skill

Marcel Ackard said, “Women like silent men. They think they are listening.” Television star, Barbara Walters, claims that it doesn’t matter what you say at a cocktail party, because no one is listening to you anyway. She says she knew a woman who was so tired of having people at parties ask her, “How are you?” and then pay no attention whatsoever to her answers, that she decided to give an absurd answer. In response to their stereotyped “how are you,” she responded cheerfully, “I’m dying!” All through the party she kept this up, and the only replies she got were stock comments, such as “That’s good” or “You certainly look great.”³

Dr. Donald Walton analyzed why more and more people are going to psychiatrists, where they may pay \$100 an hour or more. For what? For one thing, the doctor listens, carefully and sympathetically. If you learn to listen to people—really listen in the right way—your rewards can be as great or greater.⁴

Robert Beck, head of Prudential Insurance, considers the failure to listen and understand to be one of the greatest weaknesses in business. (Walton, 1989. p. 24)

We need to establish a system that identifies students willing and able to be mentors, and provides training for developing the mentor relationship and the tutoring function, monitoring the progress of both persons, so as to facilitate effective development of both persons. An international student’s interest in a mentor is what aroused my interest in Rousseau’s idea of the tutor.

Jean-Jacques Rousseau was an important French philosopher and writer in the eighteenth century. His thoughts not only had a great influence upon education, but also produced a significant influence upon modern civilization.

In his famous book – ‘Emile, ‘Emile was an aristocratic and rich son. Therefore, he was far away from real life situations. It was more unusual for a son to grow up in an aristocratic family than in a common family; Rousseau thought ‘Emile should sever the relationship with his family, as well as with the hypocritical society that he grew up in, and that he should learn about real life.

³ From Walters, Barbara (1970). How to Talk with Practically Anyone about Practically Anything, New York: Doubleday.

⁴ Walton, Donald (1989). Are You Communicating? You Can’t Manage without It. New York: McGraw-Hill. p. 24.

Rousseau also thought it was better for ‘Emile to choose a teacher who was sagacious and fit to teach him about life instead of only about extraordinary skills. Even if the responsible teacher was ‘Emile’s stupid father, that was all right. But ‘Emile’s father was dead, so Rousseau suggested another teacher – a tutor, the ideal practitioner of educational theory. The tutor was not only young, but had a chose interest, and emotional tie with ‘Emile. Furthermore, the tutor was not preoccupied with his personal salary. Rousseau once said, “Teaching is so noble a business, that no one engages in this occupation for money. But that does not mean that working for money is not worthwhile.” (Boyd, W. 1962)

The tutor must have the spirit of respecting work. He should teach the student until the student has learned, because changing teachers would have an impact on the student’s learning. The tutor was to be the student’s guardian. His length of service was based on the child’s need. It was better for the period to be longer.

Changing in Dealing with Diversity: an Old Issue with a New Face

In the United States, the issue of diversity, in both everyday life and in the business world, has been two-faced since the Revolutionary War was fought in the late 1700s. The one face, the principle, the belief espoused, has been that regardless of age, sex, race, or ethnic background, each individual should be given the same opportunity as any other individual. He should be treated fairly and allowed to develop to his full potential. Since the late 1950s, the second face has become painfully clear: that in practice this principle did not and does not exert much influence over either personal life or organizational life in the United States.⁵

When examining diversity, an essential question is “What constitutes diversity?” Many colleges and universities seek international students as a component of the large picture of diversity, though diversity generally includes race, gender, religion, ability and interest. Many times international students will experience problems based on one or all of these diverse categories. For this reason, examining the experiences of racial minorities or religious minorities or any other minority groups can provide a parallel to the experiences of international students. In studying the implementation of diversity on fourteen United States college campuses, Arthur Levine found the minority students interviewed often expressed a feeling of being uncomfortable and feeling illegitimate in traditionally majority institutions. One young black woman said that she felt “like an unwelcome guest on campus” rather than a member of the community.⁶

Over the past four decades, diversity has taken on a variety of very different meanings. The earliest conception, a product of the 1960s, refers to representation in, or admission to college. The goal originally was to develop a minority presence on

⁵ Jackson, Bailey W. (1992). *Human Resource Management*, Spring & Summer 1992, Vol. 31, Numbers 1 & 2, pp. 21-34.

⁶ Levine, A. (1994). *Diversity on Campus*. Derived from: *Higher Learning in America: 1980-2000*. Edited by Levine, A. (1994). Maryland: Johns Hopkins Paperbacks edition. pp. 334-336.

campus. With time, the definition has expanded. The notion of minorities has grown from blacks to include a variety of underrepresented populations ranging across race, religion, gender, and ethnicity. Once thought of largely in terms of students, the focus of diversity has broadened to include faculty, staff, administrators, and trustees.

A second definition of diversity developed in the 1970s is support or retention. This has meant compensatory services, financial aid, diversity support groups and activities, special residential units, and diversity studies departments such as Afro-American and Women's Studies.

A third meaning, a product of the late 1970s and the early 1980s, is integration. The focus is on incorporating historically underrepresented groups, which have become segregated on campuses, into the larger campus population.

A fourth and final notion of diversity, emerging today, is pluralism or multiculturalism. Here the aim is to legitimize both the intellectual and the emotional aspects of diverse cultures in academic and campus life in teaching, research, and service. The goal is equity among diverse cultures and a symbiosis among them.⁷

Diversity of Heredity and Background

The target of education is people. Owing to differences in heredity and learning, everyone is influenced by his background. One function of education is to foster the merits of one's background so that they become stronger. Another function of education is to mend the drawbacks of one's background, which will lead to self-improvement. If educators ignore these key points, the education is not only of no help, but even becomes harmful. Confucius observed this, so he emphasized teaching students in accordance with their aptitude. Even when his students asked the same question, he had different answers according to the different background and needs of each student.

Zilu asked Confucius whether he should immediately carry into practice what he heard. The Master said, "There are your father and elder brothers to be consulted; -why should you act on that principle of immediately carrying into practice what you hear?" Ranyou also asked Confucius whether he should immediately carry into practice what he heard, and the Master answered, "Immediately carry into practice what you hear." Gongxi Hua then asked Confucius, "Zilu asked whether he should immediately carry into practice what he heard, and you said, 'There are your father and elder brothers to be consulted.' Ranyou asked whether he should immediately carry into practice what he heard, and you said, 'Carry it immediately into practice.' I, Gongxi Hua, am perplexed, and venture to ask you for an explanation." The Master said, "Ranyou is retiring and slow; therefore, I urged him forward. Zilu has more than his own share of energy; therefore, I kept him back." (*Confucian Analects*, Book XI. *Hsien Tsin*. Chap XXI)⁸ In addition, the Master said, "To those whose talents are

⁷ Ibid, note 6.

⁸ Legge, J (1815-1897), (1960 reprint). Translator, *Confucian Analects*, book XI. *Hsien Tsin* (Xian Jin). Chap. XXI, The Oxford University Press. pp.244-245.

above mediocrity, the highest subjects may be announced. To those who are below mediocrity, the highest subjects may not be announced.” (Confucian Analects, Book VI. Yung Yey, Chap XIX)⁹

This educational theory is similar to that of Lao Zi, the ancient Chinese philosopher (3rd cent. B.C.), who said, “The wise student hears of the *Tao*,¹⁰ and practices it diligently. The average student hears of the *Tao* and gives it thought now and again. The foolish student hears of the *Tao* and laughs aloud.” (Tao Te Ching, Chap. forty-one)¹¹

Diversity of Interests and Needs

To achieve successful teaching, the students must make a contribution. The students’ contribution includes engaging with the learning by being quiet during the important explanations and instructions, but also asking perceptive questions when appropriate. If a student never pays attention to his learning, he cannot develop enjoyment and reward from studying, even though the teacher’s materials and approach are of very high quality. Mencius, the ancient Chinese philosopher (3rd cent. B.C.) told this parable:

Now chess-playing is an art, though a small one; but without his whole mind being given, and his will bent to it, a man cannot succeed in it. Chess Qiu is the best chess-player in all the Kingdom. Suppose that he is teaching two men to play;--the one gives all his mind to the game, and bends to it all his mind, doing nothing but listen to Chess Qiu; the other, though he seems to be listening to him, has his whole mind running on a swan which he thinks is approaching, and wishes to bend his bow, adjust the arrow to the string, and shoot it. Though the latter is learning along with the former, his progress is not equal to the former. Is it because his intelligence is not equal? Not so.¹²

Most Chinese teachers are not concerned about the students’ IQ. On the contrary, they are concerned with students’ dedication, with single-hearted devotion, and the effort they make. I would like to give an example of what happened at a Chinese Language School in Minnesota when I taught there.

I taught Chinese language and literature to Chinese-Americans at the Chinese School. One of the students told me her goal was to win the Oscar award for acting. She was eager to go to New York instead of attending school in Minnesota. Everyone except for her, thought this was a wild dream. Moreover, she was a minority in this white society. I never had the opportunity to correct her assignments during the semester, because she never turned them in to me, even though I gave an assignment every week. Instead, she always listened to her Walkman and was restless in the

⁹ Legge, J., Confucian Analects. Book VI. Yung Yey (Yong Ye), Chap. XIX, The Oxford University Press. 1960. p. 191.

¹⁰ *Tao* means the highest abstract principles of the Chinese philosophy.

¹¹ Feng, Gia-fu and English, Jane, translators, (1972). Lao Tzu’s Tao Te Ching (Lao Zi’s Daode jing), Chap. forty-one. New York: Random House, Inc.

¹² Legge, J., translated (1875). Life and Works of Mencius, Book VI. Kaou-Tsze, Part I. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott and Co. p. 316.

class. From her attitude and expression I was reminded of the Chinese allusion that she felt as if she were sitting on a bed of nails. But her mother is satisfied with the situation, and told me, “It is better that she attends the class, otherwise, she calls her boyfriends all the time. I cannot control her.” When other students enjoyed the Chinese philosophers’ wisdom, intelligence and humor, she said: “Boring!”

In keeping with the teachings of Confucius, no student’s needs can be disregarded. Therefore, the dedicated teacher searches for methods to understand the student’s needs and works to approach the students with stimulating teaching.

In this case, I as a teacher needed to examine my teaching and adopt different teaching approaches to reach the diverse needs of the students.

Diversity of Values

I appreciate watching the NBA Charlotte Hornets play basketball—especially No. 1, Muggsy Bogues. Bogues is only 5’3” tall. Even if we compare him to the height of an average Oriental person, he is still very short. In addition, I do not need to mention that even if someone is 6’6”, that is still short for the NBA.

They say that Bogues is not only the shortest player at present, but also the shortest person in NBA history. But this guy is not our common dwarf, he is one of the most outstanding guards of all time, with fewer mistakes than any other player. His ball-control is first class. He has an accurate long-shot, and he is not the least bit afraid of fighting with the taller players, when driving the lane.

When I watch Bogues’s playing, he looks like a hornet as he runs over the whole court. I am filled with admiration for him. I think he not only comforts the hearts of all of the short people in the world who ardently love basketball, but inspires the inner willpower of ordinary people. Is Bogues a natural-born past master? Definitely not. This result comes from willpower, and hard training. He once accepted a reporter’s request for an interview, in which he talked about the process of his thoughts when he went to the NBA.

Bogues has been unusually short since he was a little boy. He has always had a deep love for basketball. Almost every day he would play and practice basketball with his companions. At that time, he had a dream that he would play basketball in the NBA, because a player in the NBA not only has quite a high salary, but also enjoys admiration and honor from society. That is the biggest dream for all American adolescents who love to play basketball.

When Bogues told his companions, “I will play basketball in the NBA when I grow up,” all of his listeners could not help laughing at him, because they “firmly believed” that a dwarf who is only 5’3” cannot participate in the NBA under any circumstances.

Their derision could not daunt Bogues’ aspirations. He spent many times more the amount of time practicing basketball than the tall players did. Eventually, he became an all-rounder in basketball. At the same time, he also became a superb guard. He took full advantage of his small size to become dexterous and quick in

action. His center of gravity is lower than that of any one else on the court, so that he makes the least number of mistakes. Because his short build makes him less noticeable to other players, he finds it easier to seize the basketball.

Today, Bogue is a famous star-player. He says, “Once upon a time, my companions laughed when they heard that I wanted to participate in the NBA. Now, they often boast to others, ‘When I was young, I used to play basketball together with Bogue of the Charlotte Hornets.’ ”

The story of Bogue reminds us of the story of the Buddhist monk, Pan-shan.

One day, the Buddhist monk, Pan-shan Bao-ji, passed the market. By chance he heard a conversation between a customer and a butcher.

The customer told the butcher, “Give me one pound of excellent pork.”

After the requirement had been met, the butcher laid down his knife, and asked a question in reply, “Which one is not excellent pork?”

The customer was struck dumb by the reply. But Pan-shan, standing beside them, suddenly saw the light.

In our life, we often judge value by our subjective opinions. But, what defines value? In the NBA, we assume that only people over 6’6” can play basketball. But, why can a person who is only 5’3” not resolve to be a player? Every person has his own opinion of what is “excellent”. Society also uses public opinion to judge the fitness of everything. Can we try to respect diversity?

Valuing Differences

Valuing differences is the essence of synergy—the art of reconciling and combining the mental, emotional, and psychological differences between people. And the key to valuing those differences is to realize that all people see the world, not as it is, but as they are.

If I think I see the world as it is, why would I want to value the differences? Why would I even want to bother with someone who’s ‘off track’? My paradigm is that I am objective; I see the world as it is. Everyone else is buried by the minutia, but I see the larger picture. That’s why they call me a supervisor—I have super vision.

If that’s my paradigm, then I will never be effectively interdependent, or even effectively independent, for that matter. I will be limited by the paradigms of my own conditioning.

The person who is truly effective has the humility and reverence to recognize his own perceptual limitations and to appreciate the rich resources available through interaction with the hearts and minds of other human beings. That person values the differences because those differences add to his knowledge, to his understanding of reality. When we’re left to our own experiences, we constantly suffer from a shortage of data.

And unless we value the differences in our perceptions, unless we value each other and give credence to the possibility that we’re both right, that life is not always

a dichotomous either/or, that there are almost always third alternatives, we will never be able to transcend the limits of that conditioning.

“If two people have the same opinion, one is unnecessary. It’s not going to do me any good at all to communicate with someone else.” Dr. Stephen Covey says, “I don’t want to talk, to communicate, with someone who agrees with me; I want to communicate with you because you see it differently. I value that difference.”¹³ (1990, p. 278)

The importance of valuing the difference is captured in an often quoted fable called “The Animal School,” written by educator Dr. R. H. Reeves:

Once upon a time, the animals decided they must do something heroic to meet the problems of a “New World,” so they organized a school. They adopted an activity curriculum consisting of running, climbing, swimming and flying. To make it easier to administer, all animals took all the subjects.

The duck was excellent in swimming, better in fact than his instructor, and made excellent grades in flying, but he was very poor in running. Since he was low in running he had to stay after school and also drop swimming to practice running. This was kept up until his web feet were badly worn and he was only average in swimming. But average was acceptable in school, so nobody worried about that except the duck.

The rabbit started at the top of the class in running, but had a nervous breakdown because of so much makeup in swimming.

The squirrel was excellent in climbing until he developed frustrations in the flying class where his teacher made him start from the ground up instead of from the tree-top down. He also developed charley horses from over-exertion and he got a C in climbing and a D in running.

The eagle was a problem child and had to be disciplined severely. In climbing class he beat all the others to the top of the tree, but insisted on using his own way of getting there.

At the end of the year, an abnormal eel that could swim exceedingly well and also could run, climb and fly a little had the highest average and was valedictorian.

The prairie dogs stayed out of school and fought the tax levy because the administration would not add digging and burrowing to the curriculum. They apprenticed their children to the badger and later joined the groundhogs and gophers to start a successful private school.

We can apply Li Bai’s poetry, “My innate talent is definitely useful.” (Poem on Wine)

Learning to Listen

Experience suggests that visions that are genuinely shared require ongoing conversation where individuals not only feel free to express their dreams, but learn how to listen to each others’ dreams. Out of this listening, new insights into what is possible gradually emerge.

Listening is often more difficult than talking, especially for strong-willed managers with definite ideas of what is needed. It requires extraordinary openness

¹³ Covey, Stephen R. (1990). The Seven Habits of Highly Effective People: restoring the character ethic. New York: A Fireside Book. p. 277-278.

and willingness to entertain a diversity of ideas. This does not imply that we must sacrifice our vision “for the large cause.” Rather, we must allow multiple visions to coexist, listening for the right course of action that transcends and unifies all our individual visions. As one highly successful CEO expressed it: “My job, fundamentally, is listening to what the organization is trying to say, and then making sure that it is forcefully articulated.”¹⁴ (Senge, 1990)

When one has the authority to lead others, one should broaden one’s mind to listen to the different sounds, and guard against being opinionated. One should especially, avoid being subjective and one-sided. Nearly a thousand years ago, Su Shi (1037-1101), who has been regarded by many as the greatest of Song poets, wrote, “I am afraid the crystal domes and jade halls, would be too cold on high.”¹⁵ Especially for a Chinese leader, when he assumes a high position, the honest and upright will keep a distance from him. He will be surrounded by flatterers, or those who slander others. If slanderous talk or calumny encircle the leader, and the information comes from the people who fawn on those above and bully those below, the leader will really be in a sorry plight, and feel his position is too high and too cold for him. It is absolutely necessary for him to be able to listen to honest people who may disagree with him. He must learn to entertain a diversity of ideas.

¹⁴ Senge, Peter M. (1990). The Fifth Discipline: The Art and Practice of the Learning Organization. Part III, Chap 11: “Shared Vision”. New York: Doubleday. p. 218.

¹⁵ Birch, Cyril (1965). Anthology of Chinese Literature: from early times to the fourteenth century. Su Shi: Tune: “Water Music prelude”. New York: Grove Press, Inc. p. 356.

Tune: “Water Music Prelude” [Shui-diao ge-tou]

Mid-Autumn Festival

1076

On the mid-autumn festival, I drank happily till dawn and wrote this in my cups while thinking of Zi-you, my younger brother.

When did the moon begin to shine?
Lifting my cup I ask of heaven.
I wonder in the heavenly palaces and castles
What season it is tonight.
I wish to go up there on the wind
But I am afraid the crystal domes and jade halls
Would be too cold on high.
So I dance with my limpid shadow
As if I were no longer on earth.

Around rich bowers,
Into sweet boudoirs,
Shining upon the inmates still awake
The moon should have no regrets.
Why is she always at the full when men are separated?
Men have their woe and joy, parting and meeting;
The moon has her dimness and brightness, waxing and waning.
Never from of old has been lasting perfection.
I only wish that you and I may be ever well and hale,
That both of us may watch the fair moon,
even a thousand miles apart.

Developing Diversity

Students are almost universally the driving force behind diversity in educational settings. They prod their colleges to do more and more.

Many campuses are tense. Minority students often express a feeling of being uncomfortable and feeling illegitimate in traditionally majority institutions. As mentioned earlier, one young black woman said that she felt “like an unwelcome guest on campus” rather than a member of the community (Levine, 1994)

The topic of diversity evokes a variety of feelings from whites. Students express feelings varying from apathy, anger, and fear to calls for action, approbation regarding current conditions, and helplessness. One of the most poignant conversations in Levine’s study was with a diverse group of students who could not figure out how to talk to one another; their differences seemed insurmountable, and no one knew how to get past them. There was a lot of anger on many of the campuses studied—some open, much submerged. (Levine, 1994)¹⁶

There are far fewer support services or efforts to understand people whose diversity is their ethnic culture, especially international students. The following ideas represent suggestions to expand support for diversity.

1. Put yourself in the speaker’s shoes Leaders should be careful to avoid being subjective or one-sided. The old Native-American adage says, “You can’t understand another person until you’ve walked a mile in his moccasins.” Art Linkletter once described an incident that occurred on one of his shows:

“I recall an incident that taught me not to judge hastily, but to try to understand the other person’s point of view:

“On my show I once had a child tell me he wanted to be an airline pilot. I asked him what he’d do if all the engines stopped out over the Pacific Ocean. He said, ‘First I would tell everyone on the plane to fasten their seatbelts, and then I’d find my parachute and jump out.’

“While the audience rocked with laughter, I kept my attention on the young man to see if he was being a smart alec. The tears that sprang into his eyes alerted me to his chagrin more than anything he could have said, so I asked him why he’d do such a thing. His answer revealed the sound logic of a child; ‘I’m going for gas I’m coming back!’”¹⁷

James L. Lundy wrote Ten Commandments for Maintaining Good Interpersonal Relationships in 1986. The Eighth Commandment is, “To Avoid Gossip, Negative Comments about Others. Don’t support or participate in unconstructive bitching session behind the backs of others.”¹⁸

2. Hold others in high esteem Appreciate others as real human beings with feelings and needs for self-esteem and recognition. Be interested in their thoughts, their circumstances, their families, and their futures. (Lundy, p. 147) Teachers and

¹⁶ Ibid, note 6.

¹⁷ Ibid 4. p. 32.

¹⁸ Lundy, James L. (1986). Lead, Follow, or Get out of the Way: Leadership Strategies for the thoroughly Modern Manager. CA: San Diego, Slawson Communications, Inc. pp. 146-147.

leaders should respect and address diversity in international students. People should give more thought to the needs of the international students. They should try to see things from different perspectives, with an open mind. Dr. Robert L. Dilenschneider says he has a friend by the name of Dan Boland, who is a Ph.D. and an ex-priest, and who recently wrote a paper on the priest as a leader. In it, he describes the skill of “intensive, non-interruptive listening. Listening intensely and supportively, without judging or criticizing, without intruding or correcting, is difficult (if not unthinkable) for many priests who exert control and believe that preaching is more important than listening!” (It’s easy to substitute “leader” for “priest” in that characterization.) Boland argues that “maintaining intense, riveted, unwavering interest (even with uninteresting people) is indeed a mildly heroic enterprise [but] effective leaders listen *intently, uncritically and constructively—without interrupting challenging or defending—until they understand not simply the words but the deeper inner meaning of the speaker.*”¹⁹

3. The earnest ear Number one on Dr. Donald Walton’s list of requirements for a good communicator is being a good listener. By this he means a totally focused, receptive attitude which communicates to the speaker that he consider the advisee to be the most important person in the world during the time they are speaking.²⁰

4. Don’t hog the floor “If you make a habit of monopolizing the conversation, people will soon get out of the habit of listening to you. This applies even if you’re the boss and they’re forced to sit still while you go on and on; they simply turn off their minds to much you say. A prime example of this turnoff to monologues is what happens in many classrooms when teachers “lecture” instead of inspiring participation. (Walton, 1989. p.77) Similarly, when an international student is silent, or his attitude is gentle, or he speaks slowly, it does not mean that he necessarily agrees with the professors’ comments. Sometimes international students are silent because they may have difficulty with the language barrier. Students are diverse when it comes to culture, ability, characteristics, personal style, background, and goals. Professors should respect these differences in students.

5. Sift shreds of data to identify new megaforges

Dr. Robert L. Dilenschneider offers the following approach—Constantly weed out old—and new—preconceptions. Information is all around us. It increasingly has an impact on every kind of organization, and moves with accelerating speed. The effective use of external (or “soft”) information is no passive exercise. Mastering information is the first and one of the most formidable communications tools available to the leader. Leaders are responsible for seeing that relevant information is gathered and analyzed. Most of all, they must place external information into a

¹⁹ Dilenschneider, Robert L. (1992). A Briefing for Leaders: Communication as the Ultimate Exercise of Power. “III The communicator’s template: 13 The earnest ear” New York: Harper Business. pp. 206-207.

²⁰ Ibid 4. p. 165.

context for the mentor or adviser, and show their students how the achievement of their goals is connected to relevant external events.²¹ Ideally, professors should have the knowledge, perspective and background for cross-cultural education. In practical terms, however, a professor cannot know about cross-cultural education; a professor cannot be familiar with every culture that may be represented by his students. What he can do, however is have an attitude of respect toward the cultural background of every student.

6. Be sensitive and considerate about the feeling of others Su Shi (1037-1101), the great prose writer, poet, statesman, philosopher, calligrapher and painter, had a bosom friend, the Buddhist monk, Fo-yin. Both of them had a sense of humor. They liked to joke with each other. One day, they were sitting in meditation. Su Shi laughed suddenly, and remarked to Fo-yin, “Your gesture is similar to cow dung. What do you think my gesture is?” Fo-yin answered, “A bodhisattva.” (A bodhisattva is a being that is destined for enlightenment.) Shi was very pleased after listening to Fo-yin’s comment. After returning to his house, Shi told his younger sister, Xiao-mei. The younger sister, being very perceptive, said, “My dear brother, don’t be glad too early. Because you often think of dirty things, you connected Fo-yin’s gesture with cow dung. Fo-yin’s mind is light, open and aboveboard, so he associated your gesture with a bodhisattva.” Don’t succumb to opportunities for humor at the expense of others. Be compassionate, and give support freely during others’ times of need. Be patient and understanding. (Lundy, p. 147)

Conclusion

Hui Shi, Zhuang Zi’s intimate friend, said to Zhuang Zi, “The king of Wei gave me some seeds of a huge gourd. I planted them, and when they grew up, the fruit was big enough to hold five piculs. I tried using it for a water container, but it was so heavy I couldn’t lift it. I split it in half to make dippers, but they were so large and unwieldy that I couldn’t dip them into anything. It’s not that the gourds weren’t fantastically big—but I decided they were no use and so I smashed them to pieces.”

Zuang Zi said, “You certainly are dense when it comes to using big things! In Sung there was a man who was skilled at making a salve to prevent chapped hands, and generation after generation his family made a living by bleaching silk in water. A traveler heard about the salve and offered to buy the prescription for a hundred measures of gold. The man called everyone to a family council. ‘For generations we’ve been bleaching silk and we’ve never made more than a few measures of gold,’ he said. ‘Now, if we sell our secret, we can make a hundred measures in one morning. Let’s let him have it’ The traveler got the salve and introduced it to the king of Wu, who was having trouble with the state of Yue. The king put the man in charge of his troops, and that winter they fought a naval battle with the men of Yue

²¹ Ibid 4. p. 165.

and gave them a bad beating.²² A portion of the conquered territory was awarded to the man as a fief. The salve had the power to prevent chapped hands in either case; but one man used it to get a fief, while the other one never got beyond silk bleaching—because they used it in different ways. Now you had a gourd big enough to hold five piculs. Why didn't you think of making it into a great tub so you could go floating around the rivers and lakes, instead of worrying because it was too big and unwieldy to dip into things! Obviously you still have a lot of underbrush in your head!"²³

Let's become outstanding teachers/leaders and get rid of that "underbrush in our heads"!

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²² Because the salve, by preventing the soldiers' hands from chapping, made it easier for them to handle their weapons.

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Video case studies for improving one's teaching behaviour and one's reflective analysis

Using video to compose a digital training portfolio

Gilbert DUCOS

IUFM, University of Toulouse, France

I - Introduction and background

The use of video for teacher training in France began a little more than forty years ago (1964) with **Closed Circuit Television (CCT)** in the old '*Ecoles Normales*'. The idea was to test the added value of video as a means of **observing** the classrooms without disturbing the pupils (**primary** and **nursery** schools) in the **cycle of teacher training**: planning, implementation, analysis ([FAUQUET M., STRASFOGEL S. \[1972\]\(1\)](#)).

The **IUFMs** (*Instituts Universitaires de Formation des Maîtres*), created in 1990 and 1991, are in charge of the teachers education from the nursery schools to the upper classes of the secondary schools.

Studies in the IUFMs are spread over two years. First year students are selected at regional levels; they hold diplomas passed after three years at university (*licence* / bachelor's degree), and more often four years (*maîtrise* / master's degree).

First year students have a training session at school and are prepared for official selection through a competitive examination (*CAPE, CAPES, CAPET* or *CAPLP2*). At the end of the school year, less than one student out of two will actually succeed. This examination includes oral tests, consisting in giving **two lessons, without pupils** (**micro-teaching**), in their teaching subjects.

The students who have succeeded, **start teaching** in their **second year** at the IUFM (from 4 to 6 hours per week, that is to say one third of the service a full time teacher normally does). They alternate effective teaching and in service training (practical and theoretical).

About 98% of them are accepted for a permanent teaching position at the end of the year and are full time teachers the following year.

During the nineties, **digital video** was used in the IUFMs, **optionally**, as an **experiment**, **mainly** for **primary trainee teachers**, **sometimes** for **secondary trainee teachers**, **and in particular** for subjects in which digital audio and video can drastically improve practice observation and analysis: **physical education** (study of movements), **language and music teaching** (importance of pronunciation and sounds).

The development of **learning digital portfolio** for **teacher trainees**, has really increased in the IUFMs since the **beginning of the XXIst century**. It is encouraged

by the **new learning skills requirements** defined by the Ministry of Education (04-01-2007). Indeed, trainees have to **reveal their needs** for trainings and **display their progressive acquisitions of skills**, such as listed by the Ministry.

II - Description of the use of video in the OVIDE experiment

The **OVIDE project** offered a good occasion to extend the use of video to other subjects of secondary schools: from 2005 to 2008, **digital video** was used for the training of **economic and social sciences [ESS] teachers** (upper classes of secondary schools, IUFMT case studies 1,2,3).

The three case studies are designed to **investigate the potential role of the video assets in the progressive acquisition of skills and in the assessment of this acquisition displayed in digital learning portfolios**. They report on a pilot scheme with the use of video:

- 1) to **underline the gaps** between “*reflective analysis without video feedback*”, “*autoscopy*” (self retroaction with video feedback for a reflective analysis) and “*heteroscopy*” (video feedback for a group analysis) : the trainees must reflect on their teaching behaviour and discuss it with their peers and/or their teacher (2);
- 2) to **display the progressive acquisitions of skills** (quality of the reflective analysis included) in *digital portfolios*.

First year students (case study 1)

Three groups of **twenty-five students of ESS** (one group, each year, from 2005-2006 to 2007-2008) participated to this pilot scheme and received instruction in videorecording the two first phases of their own training: **planning of micro-teaching** (without pupils), then **implementation**, recorded by a peer.

In this scheme, the learning by the student teachers is at the centre.

The students must watch, analyse and compare different videos displaying their own practice (autoscopy) and the practices of their fellows, so that their reflective approach is completed by the reflection of the other students under the supervision and the help of their teacher trainer (heteroscopy).

It is an illustration of a “video study group in studio” ([Victor TOCHON \[1999\]](#)).

Previously, training for the lessons was carried out without audio and video recording: student assessments were established on the basis of written notes taken by the teachers and by the students attending these trainings.

The first purpose for the students is an **improvement in their own practice** so that they can pass their exam, but they also **learn how to use audio and video tools**, and they **make up part of their digital portfolio** including some **auto and external assessments**.

The student **trainer** has also two other complementary objectives:

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- to **reveal** and then **select**, thanks to an audio and video support, **examples of “good” and “bad” practices** (taking into account the criteria of the competitive exam);
 - to constitute a **sample of examples**, which will serve for future IUFM students **before their own micro-teaching and reflection**.

Second year students (case studies 2 and 3)

Three groups of **five 2nd year students** at the IUFMT participated to this pilot scheme (one group, each year, from 2005-2006 to 2007-2008) and received instruction in video-recording **one “cycle” of their own training** which consists of three phases:

- 1) **planning: in a first short clip** (2 to 5mn) of the video, the student teacher **summarizes, before the lesson, what he has planned to do and the background:** level and number of pupils, topic, necessary knowledge, objectives, division of the **lesson (case 3)** or division of the **tutorial classes (case 2:** games of economics with several groups of pupils), timing, evaluation of the pupils' knowledge;
- 2) **implementation: the second clip (approximately 50mn) is the film of the implementation** with pupils, recorded by a peer.
- 3) **analysis.**

In this scheme, *the behaviour and interactions between pupils and teacher trainees are at the centre.*

In case 2, the student teacher gives, in a **third short clip (2 to 5mn)**, an **evaluation** of his implementation, some minutes after the lesson and **without feedback video**.

Then, each student teacher must watch and analyze the video of his own lesson, with his prior presentation and his first assessment on the spot, so that he is able to do a second evaluation with the help of the video: an **“autoscopy”**. At last, a third analysis: **“heteroscopy”** is done with his peers **and** his tutor. So, each teacher trainee can reach a more objective assessment and appraise **the gaps** between **his first assessment on the spot** (reflective analysis without video), **the second one** (autoscopy) and **the last one** (*using video and the help of the group*).

In case 3, the trainee gives, in a **third short clip (2 to 5mn)**, an **evaluation** of his lesson, **after video** feedback (autoscopy). Then, **two heteroscopies** are done: **the first one with the peers** and the **second one with the peers and the tutor**. Generally, the gap between autoscopy and heteroscopy **with peers** is **smaller** than the gap between autoscopy and heteroscopy **with peers and tutor** (peers do not like to criticize their fellow who could criticize them later...).

Each teacher trainee can compare both different videos, displaying the practices of his fellows and his own practice, and different analysis, so that his reflective approach is completed by the reflection of the other students under the supervision and the help of their teacher trainer. In particular, he can assess the gaps between the evaluations, and progressively, he must improve the quality of his own analysis (with video feedback or not).

Previously, training for the lessons was carried out **without audio and video recording**: the student teachers could not watch and analyze their behaviour with the help of video; the assessments of the competencies were established only on the basis of **written notes** taken by the **alone tutor attending the trainings**.

The first purpose for the trainees is an **improvement in their own practice** so that they can be accepted for a permanent teaching position, but they also learn how to use audio and video tool and they **compose a part of their digital portfolio including** some auto and external **assessments**. So, they **reveal their needs** for trainings and **display their progressive acquisitions of skills (improvement of reflective analysis included)** in their **digital portfolio**. The other objectives, for the trainers, are the same as in the case 1.

III – Evaluation

Student teachers were all positive (oral interviews) about the use of video for an autoscopy, completed by heteroscopy with their peers and their supervisor. They **improved very much** their **teaching behaviour** and their **reflective analysis**.

Indeed, digital video (which allows the storage and then an easy access to registered lessons) gives the possibility to students to see, analyze and comment their own lessons and their progress. These digital lessons also **constitute part of their training portfolio**.

Moreover, teacher trainers can point out, to the students who have been filmed, the positive and negative aspects of their behaviour during the lessons; these assessments will constitute a **sample of examples of “good” and “bad” practices** (taking into account the criteria of the exam), and will be used later **to prepare future trainees** to their first lessons, which will lead to the **improvement of the quality of these lessons**.

In 2006-2007 and 2007-2008, some examples were used by new student teachers before beginning their micro-teaching or their lessons with pupils. The quality of their behaviour and practice was improved.

The digital video offers an **important added value for trainees and trainers**, compared to the previous system consisting just in commenting lessons and in assessing the progress made, based on more or less precise remembrance of previous performances (without video) and on written notes.

Nevertheless, **examples of “bad” practices cannot be made accessible to everybody on a website**, particularly to pupils. The access to this type of information must be restricted, for [legal and ethical](#) reasons (3).

IV - Demonstration (OVIDE web site)

Case study 1

The video case is about **25mn long**. In a **first short clip** (4mn), students suggest some basic complementary rules which meet the main requirements of this specific lesson test (division of the lesson, content of the introduction, development and conclusion, timing, time management). A **second clip** (20mn) assembles selected fragments of

lessons (without pupils) which constitute various chosen examples of “good” or “bad” behaviour and practice.

Case studies 2 and 3

The short versions for demonstration purposes of these video cases are about **8 mn long**. In a **first short clip** (2,50mn), a student teacher summarizes, before his lesson, what he has planned to do and the background (lesson: case 3; tutorial classes: case 2).

The **second clip** (4mn) is an extract of the implementation (with 18 pupils working in small groups of three [case 2] or with the whole group of pupils [case 3]).

At last, in a **third short clip** (1,50mn), the student teacher gives an evaluation of his lesson without video feedback (case 2) or after video feedback (case 3).

In the three case studies, the **language** used is **French** but some slides **with short comments in French then in English** are written between the selected fragments of video.

(1) *An historical overview of the use of video for teacher training in France can be found, with a bibliography of the French literature, on the OVIDE web site:*

<http://www.ovide.eu.com>

(2) *UNESCO underlined the **use of video** for teacher training (**‘micro-teaching’ and real pedagogical situations**) with **‘autoscopy’ and ‘heteroscopy’ more than twenty years ago** (UNESCO [1984]).*

(3) See the OVIDE web site. The case studies and the digital portfolios are actually locally accessible on line, via the VLE of the IUFMT and on DVD, so that the collection of clips can be discussed by all authorized students and teacher educators.

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- **UNESCO [1984]** “Technical and economic criteria for media selection and planning in educational institutions.” Rapport N 48.

**A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF LEARNING STYLES
IN AMERICAN AND SPANISH STUDENTS.**

Dr. Maryann J. Ehle

Professor, Professional Education
West Liberty University
West Liberty, West Virginia 26074
United States of America
E-mail: drmaryannehle@wowway.com

Dr. Joanna Salazar-Noguera

Professor, Foreign Language Education
University of the Balearic Islands
Palma de Mallorca
Spain
E-mail: joanasn@hotmail.com

Research demonstrates the importance of identifying students' learning styles and accommodating these diverse styles through differentiation of instruction (Wormeli, 2007; Keirse, 1998; Gregorc, 1984; Gardner, 1983; Barbe & Milone, 1981). Each student learns and achieves differently. Each teacher instructs uniquely. The implementation of learning styles research in concert with the philosophy of differentiated instruction can empower teachers to meet the unique learning needs of all students (Tomlinson, 2005; Gregory & Chapman, 2000).

The focus of this paper is the identification and comparison of the learning styles of two groups of university students, one in America and one in Spain, with recommendations for differentiation. The students' responses to three learning styles assessments - cognitive mind style, sensory modality, and temperament type - are analyzed. The students' perceptions of the values of identifying and accommodating their learning styles are reported. Cognitive strategies for differentiation are recommended.

Subjects

A total of 333 students participated in the present study. Of these students, 250 were enrolled in an American University and 83 in a Spanish University.

American participants in the study, N=250, are freshman, sophomore, junior, and senior students enrolled at West Liberty University in the Appalachian Mountains of West Virginia. Forty-eight of them are Literature students, 97 are Human Development students, and 105 are Educational Psychology students. They are preparing for certification in one of several professions - Elementary Education (Kindergarten through Grade Six), Secondary Education (Arts and Sciences), Speech Pathology, and Psychology. Some elect to have a second teaching field. For

example, Elementary Education majors may elect to minor in Language Arts, Social Studies, Mathematics, the Natural/Biological Sciences, Early Childhood Education, or Special Education. Secondary Education majors may elect a minor which qualifies them to teach a second specialization in another Art or Science. The students are first state-certified in the Tri-States - West Virginia, Ohio, and Pennsylvania - and then apply for certification in other states of their choice. Many pursue certification in prospering East Coast States - North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, and Florida. The curriculum which qualifies them for certification is based upon national, state, and professional standards and includes a General Studies Component of key subjects from the arts and sciences; a Professional Component of Subjects exploring theories, models, and best practices; and a Field Experience Component, including Student Teaching in the public schools; a total of 124-130 semester credit hours.

A segment of their curriculum is based upon traditional pedagogy (Eggen & Kauchak, 2008) but the predominant curricular emphasis employs the theories and principles of constructivism (Caine & Caine, 1994; Breur, 1993; Gardner, 1983; Vygotsky, 1978; Piaget, 1976). Thus, in addition to lecture-discussion methods, engagements such as literature circles, research panels, jigsaw collaborations, interdisciplinary studies, and demonstration lessons are included in each course. The students are assessed through a diversity of performance assessments - in most courses, three to four traditional objective examinations, a comprehensive final essay examination, a small group research presentation, analyses of case studies, research papers, and field experiences, e.g., Children's Theatre Programs for presentations to Partner-in-Education schools both in Bookingham Forest on campus and on-site in the public schools, planning and presentation of literature lessons to Partner-in-Literacy libraries, tutoring/mentoring in after-school learning programs, and collaborations with master teachers in their classrooms.

The Spanish participants in the study, N=83, were selected from a pool of first, second, and third-year students enrolled at the University of the Balearic Islands (UIB) in Palma de Mallorca, Spain. These students are studying for a degree in Teacher Training in Foreign Language Education. The first-year group consisted of 39 undergraduate students; the second-year group, 24; and the third-year group, 20 students. All are bilingual Catalan/Spanish undergraduate students.

The degree in Teacher Training in Foreign Language Education at UIB consists of 206 credits taught in three-year courses. Each includes a total of five or six subjects. Some of these subjects are taught in the students' native language(s), Spanish or Catalan, and the rest are taught in English, specifically the subjects concerned with the English language.

The subjects of the curriculum taught in the students' native language(s) deal with general psycho-pedagogical issues and with methodological theory and practice. The sessions are teacher-led in the form of guided lectures. Theoretical explanations of the different points included in the syllabi are presented by the teacher. The aim of these sessions is twofold: to introduce the syllabic content to students and to have them reflect upon the various methodological content issues. Evaluation of these subjects consists of a final written examination in which students are assessed for the theoretical knowledge of the content in the curriculum.

The subjects of the curriculum taught in the target language, English, deal with the specific content of teacher training in English. The instruction in these subjects is

a Focus-on-Forms type (Long, 2001), consisting of teaching discrete linguistic items in separate lessons, a skills development component, and an application component, e.g., ecology, youth, habits, and family. The courses' syllabi consist of didactic units organized on grammar concepts explicitly explained in class through inductive exercises. The structures of English and the native language(s) are compared to discern their similarities. Students practice with the content of different grammar units through the use of grammatical exercises in self-access files to develop oral and written English. Course-end evaluations of the English subjects consists of a written exam (60% of final grade), two writing assignments related to the theoretical component of the course (10% of final grade), and various tasks in vocabulary and writing.

The Teacher Training in Foreign Language Education undergraduate students' curricular programs at UIB follows a traditional type of teaching, based on guided lectures, explicit instruction, and traditional assessment.

Methodology

Three assessments, David Keirsey's (1998) *Temperament Type Sorter*, Walter Barbe and Michael Milone's (1981) *Sensory Modality Strength Assessment*, Anthony Gregorc's (1994) *Mind Styles Model*, and a questionnaire to determine the perceived values of identifying one's learning styles were administered to both groups - the freshmen, sophomores, juniors, and seniors (N=250) at West Liberty University and the first-, second-, and third-year undergraduate students (N=83) at the University of the Balearic Islands. The three assessments and the questionnaire were administered in English to both groups in November 2007.

The researchers checked that the lexis of each of the tests were understood by all students and that the processes for responding to the test items were clear. However, the Spanish students raised questions about some expressions, common to the American students, on the tests (e.g., 'usually laugh it off,' 'graceful in action,' 'being bold and adventuresome,' 'being a valued and legitimate member'). In the third-year Spanish group two native English students were able to help the others by paraphrasing the expressions on the tests. On the assessment to determine the perceived values of identifying one's learning style, the students answered the questions either in English or in Spanish or Catalan.

All three of the assessments are self-scoring. Both American and Spanish students worked during five class meetings of one hour each on the assessments identifying their learning styles. Through discussion, analyses, and examples, both groups of students interpreted the meanings of the scores which identified their learning styles.

The Keirsey (1998) *Temperament Type Sorter* consists of 70 sentence starters with four possible completers. It is self-administered and self-assessed, producing the learner's type - SP (Sensing-Perceiving), SJ (Sensing Judging), NF (Intuiting-Feeling), or NT (Intuiting-Thinking). Each type is further divided into four categories, described in terms of professions and avocations, e.g., Guardians (40% to 45% of the population), Artisans (35% to 40% of the population), Idealists (8% to 10% of the population), and Rationals (5% to 7% of the population). Inspired by the theories of Jung (1933) and Lewin (1935), Keirsey applied the concept of

temperament to the three main areas of life - mating, parenting, and leading. This is the heart of Keirsey's theory:

".....in the view of organismic wholism, traits of character emerge just as cells do, by a process of differentiation, with the traits clinging together, cohering - not by association, but by a common origin and a common destiny. The tiny acorn, a fully integrated organism from the start, looks forward to the stately oak tree it is destined to become."

Anthony Gregorc's (1994) *Mind Styles Model* addresses two distinctive learning patterns - Concrete/Abstract and Sequential/Random, separated into four learning styles, Concrete Sequential (CS), Abstract Sequential (AS), Concrete Random (CR), and Abstract Random (AR). Gregorc developed the Style Delineator, consisting of ten groups of four words each which are ranked by the students from 4 high to 1 low in terms of value and importance to them, then summarized by line and column, with the highest sum indicative of mind style preference. Concrete Sequentials prefer structure, lectures, and tradition. Abstract Sequentials are intellectual, indecisive, rational, and mentally stimulating. Concrete Randoms are gamblers and risk-takers, problem solvers, conflict-resolvers, and change agents. Abstract Randoms are creative and intuitive, preferring research, discovery, inquiry, brainstorming, and cooperative learning.

Walter Barbe and Michael Milone (1981) found in their research that gaining an understanding of students' modality (audition, kinesthesia, vision) strengths can result in more effective teaching and learning. Barbe and Milone's (1981) *Sensory Modality Strength Assessment*, ten incomplete statements with three possible completion phrases, measures learners' modality preferences for processing information. For example, within one of thirteen learning characteristics explored, problem solving, Barbe and Milone find that visual learners are deliberate, plan in advance, organize thoughts by writing them, and list problems; auditory learners talk problems out, try situations verbally/subvocally, and talk themselves through problems; kinesthetic learners attack problems physically, are often impulsive, and elect solutions involving the greatest activity. Barbe and Milone encourage teachers to nurture all information processing modalities to realize students' full potentials.

The questionnaire to determine the perceived values of identifying the students' learning styles consisted of four questions: 1) Before taking these assessments did you know your learning style? 2) Did you enjoy identifying your learning style? 3) Was it valuable to you to be able to identify your learning style? 4) Do you think that it is useful for teachers to know their students' learning styles?

Results

In this section we present both the quantitative and the qualitative results obtained from the three assessments on learning styles - Keirsey's (1998) *Temperament Type Sorter*, Barbe and Milone's (1981) *Sensory Modality Strength Assessment*, Gregorc's (1994) *Mind Styles Model*, and the questionnaire to determine the students' perceived values of identifying learning styles.

Among the American and Spanish students, the responses to the assessments differ in part from those found by Gregorc (1994), Barbe & Milone (1981), and Keirsey (1998) in their studies. This may be attributed to the smaller number of subjects in this study, or to the different orientation of the students/subjects.

The results of Keirsey's (1998) *Temperament Type Sorter* (see Table 1 below) showed that few American students were identified as Rationals (11.6%), more as Artisans (25.2%) and Guardians (32.0%), and most as Idealists (35.2%). Similarly, among the Spanish students, few were identified as Rationals (8.0%), more as Artisans (17%) and Guardians (19%), and most as Idealists (56%). Interestingly, Keirsey found that Idealists comprise only from 8% to 10% of the population. Also, while Guardians represent the largest segment of the population in Keirsey's study, among both groups of students in this study they were second in number.

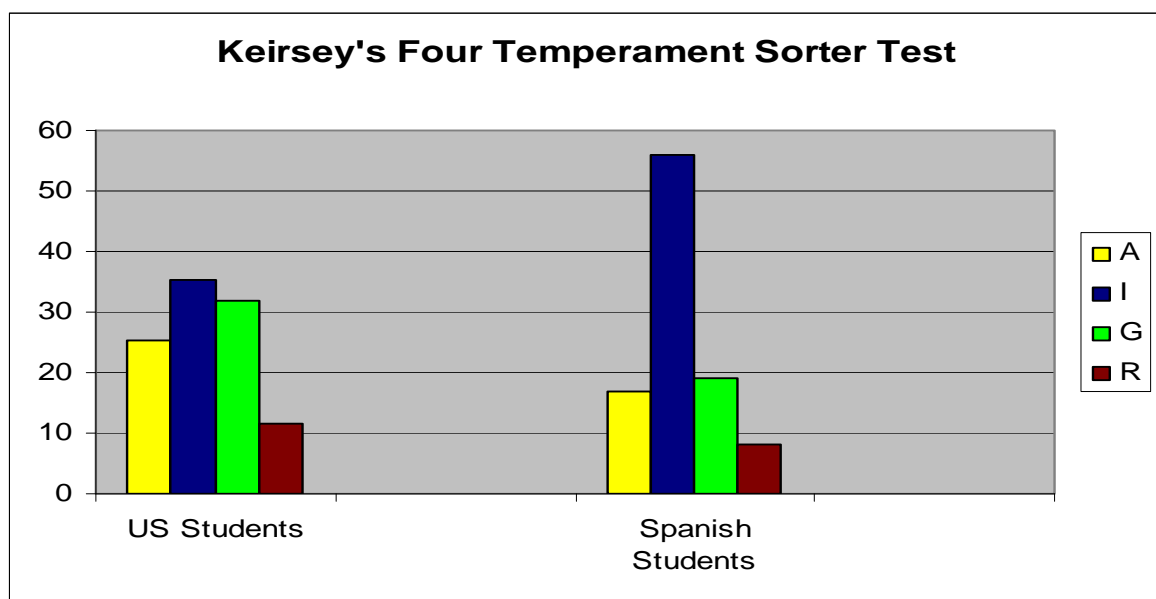


Table 1. Keirsey's Four Temperament Sorter Test Results of US and Spanish students

On Gregorc's (1994) *Mind Styles Model*, there were strong similarities between the American and Spanish students (see Table 2 below). Among the American students, there was the greatest number of Abstract Randoms (39.2%), followed by Concrete Sequentials (22.6%), Abstract Sequentials (22.0%), and Concrete Randoms (19.2%). Among the Spanish students, there was the greatest number of Concrete Sequentials (48%), followed by Abstract Randoms (27%), Abstract Sequentials (13%), and Concrete Randoms (12.0%).

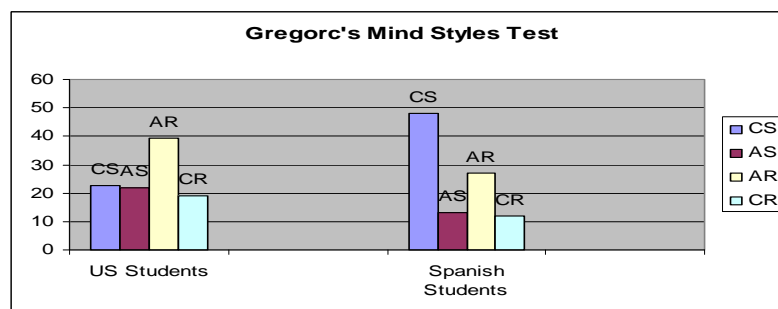


Table 2. Gregorc's Mind Styles Test Results of US and Spanish students

The results of American and Spanish students' responses to Barbe and Milone's (1981) *Sensory Modality Preference Assessment* revealed some similarities and differences (see Table 3 below). Students with auditory processing preference were predominant in the American group (42%), followed by those with Visual processing preferences (34.8%), and Kinesthetic processing preferences (27.2%). Among the Spanish students, students with Visual processing preferences (51%) were predominant, followed by those with Auditory processing preferences (48%), and Kinesthetic preferences (1%).

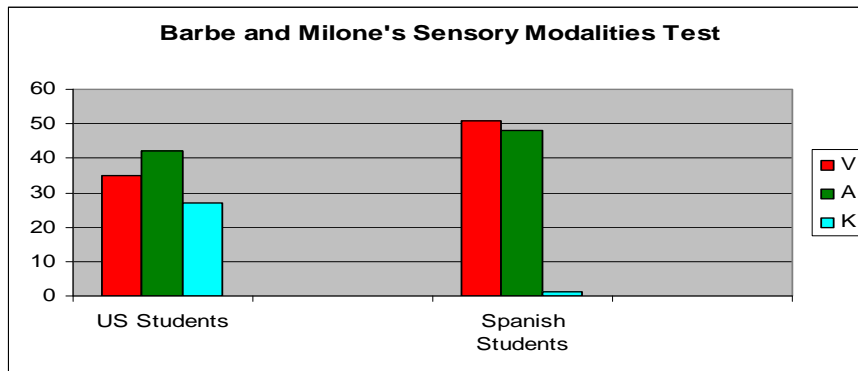


Table 3. Barbe and Milone's Sensory Modalities Test Results of US and Spanish students

The questionnaire revealed the students' perceptions of the values of the learning styles assessments. Many of the American and Spanish students knew little about the identities of their learning styles before the administration and interpretations of the learning styles assessments (see Table 4 below). A small percentage of the American (2%) and Spanish (6%) students reported that they already had knowledge of their learning styles through other venues before they had the opportunity to self-assess their styles within this study. Interestingly, a large number of the American (31%) and Spanish (29%) responded that they already knew their learning styles, either through their own perceptions or through other sources of assessment.

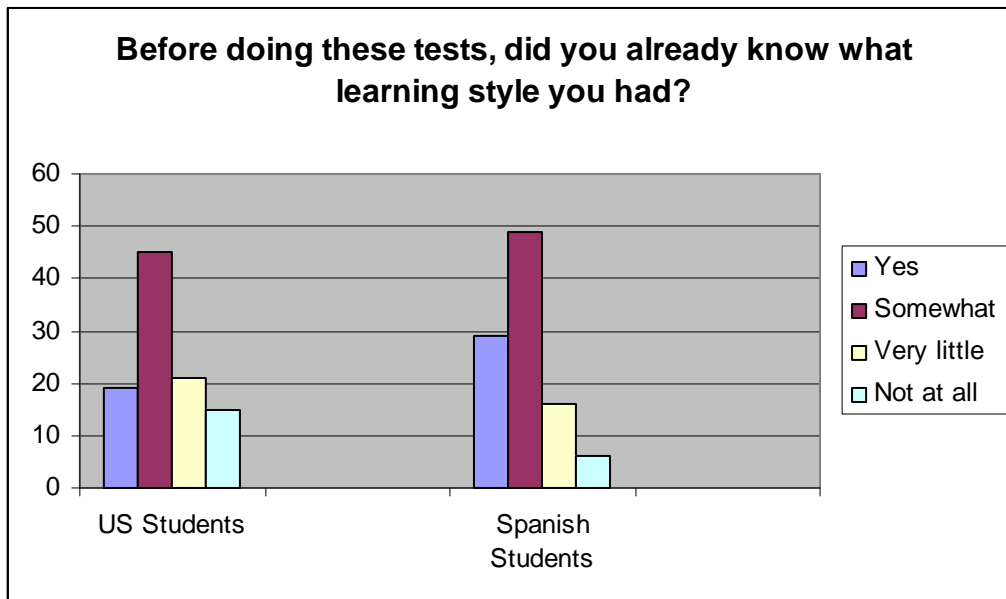


Table 4. Students' previous knowledge of their learning style

In terms of enjoying the experiences of identifying their learning styles, 59% of the Spanish students and 71% of the American students reported that identification of their learning styles was a positive experience (see Table 5 below).

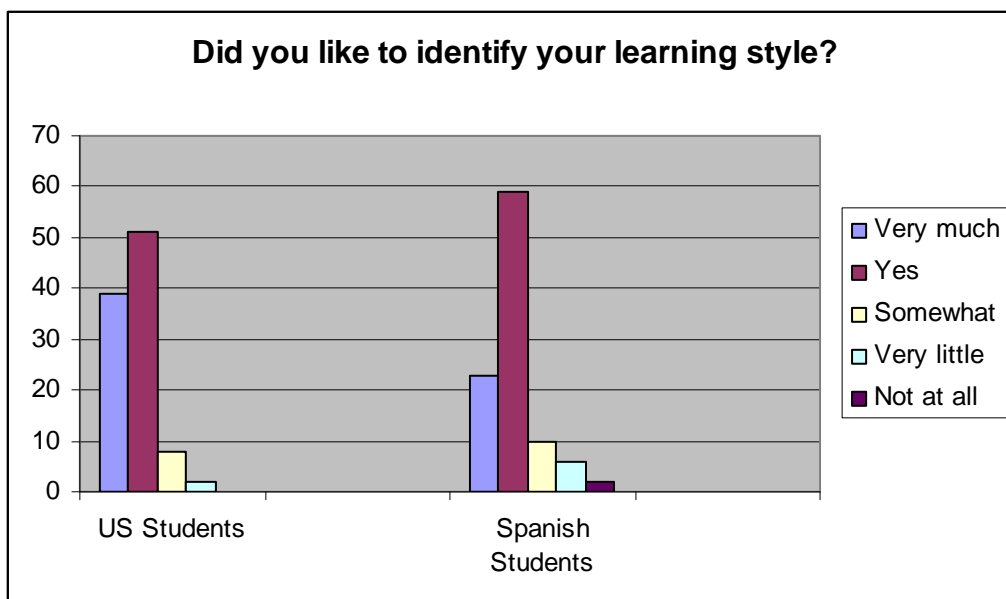


Table 5. Students' like or dislike on identifying their learning style

It was notable that 67% of the Spanish students and 75% of the American students reported that identifying their learning styles was very useful to them (see Table 6 below).

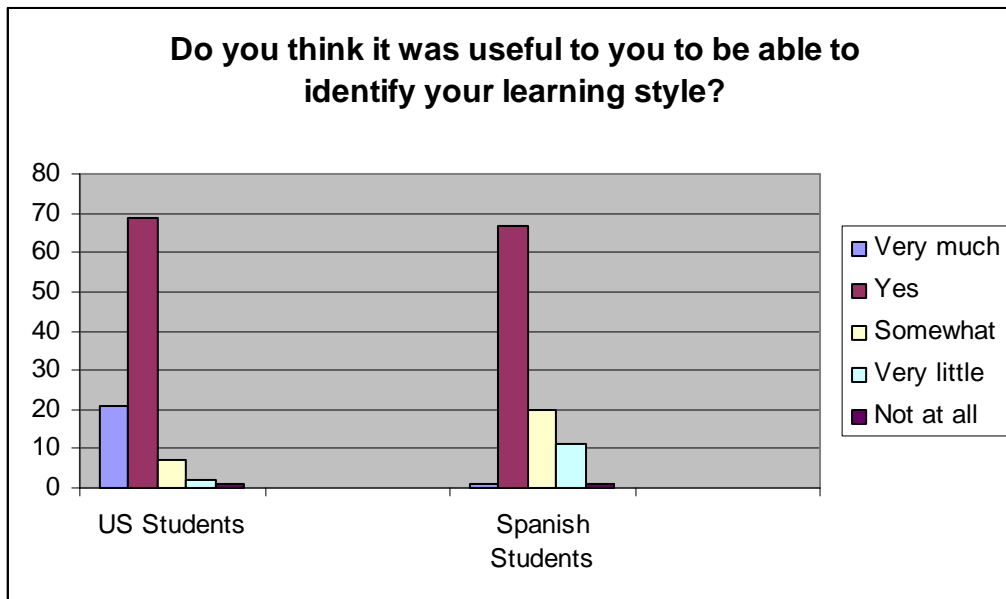


Table 6. Usefulness for the students to know their learning style

Even more notable is that 83% of the American students and 74% of the Spanish students believed that it was valuable for teachers to be familiar with their students' learning styles (see Table 7 below).

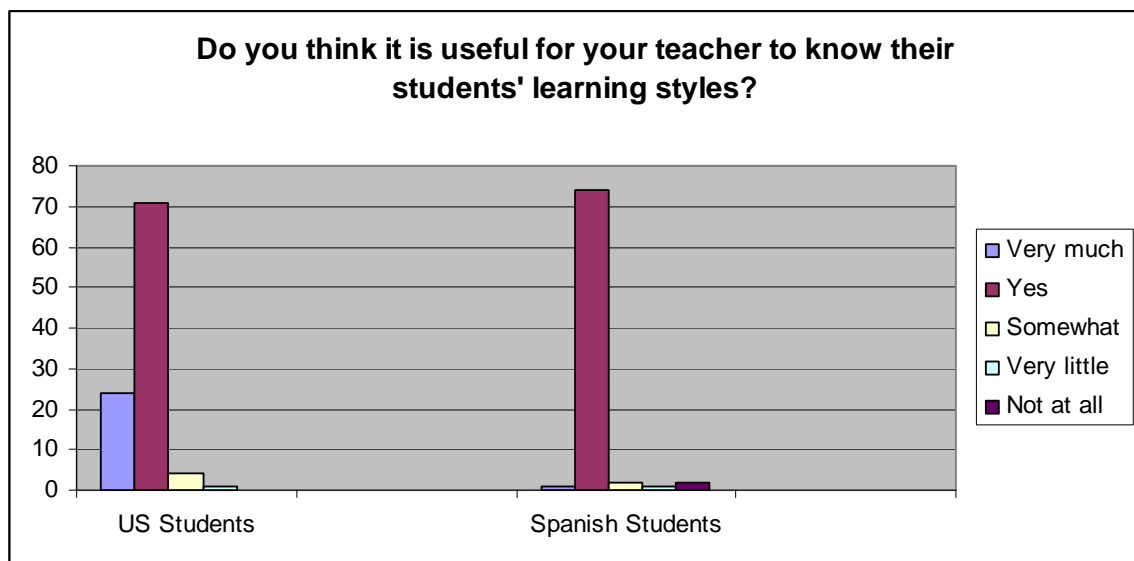


Table 7. Usefulness for the teacher to know their students' learning style

Conclusions and Recommendations

Analysis of the quantitative and qualitative results of this study indicates that the undergraduate students in this study at both WLU and UIB prefer to process information through their auditory and visual modalities, rather than their kinesthetic modality. While the American students preferred auditory modality processing followed by visual modality processing, the Spanish students' preferences were

reversed, with visual processing preferred and auditory processing second. It appears that the students believe that they learn best either through images, demonstrations, and descriptions (visual), or, through verbal instruction (auditory). These results indicate a pronounced need for enrichment in kinesthetic processing in the teacher education curricula in both countries. While the results may be explained by the fact that both the American and Spanish groups have been exposed to more traditional teaching practices and fewer constructivist teaching practices in the range of their schooling, it remains that the low kinesthetic processing results must be an issue for further study.

The Mind Styles of UIB students are primarily Concrete Sequential, with a high second preference for Abstract Random. That is, while they prefer structured, practical, product-oriented learning environments, secondly they value kinesis, idealistic, and feeling/emotional communication. The WLU students demonstrated strong preferences for the Abstract Random Mind Style, the world of emotion, imagination, the arts, idealism, and kinesis expression, but secondly, they revealed an appreciation of the ordered, literal, and practical in their Mind Styles. In both groups, AR and CS occupied first and second preferences, but were reversed. The authors note that the strong preference for CS by the UIB students may reflect their program's emphasis on structured second language learning.

Both groups, as predicted by Keirsey, had very low percentages of students with Rational Temperament Types. In contrast to Keirsey's findings, however, which showed the Guardian Temperament Type to be dominant and the Idealist Temperament Type to be third, both the American and Spanish students recorded preferences for the Idealistic Temperament Type. Both groups cited the Guardian and Artisan Temperament Types as their second and third preferences. Perhaps these findings from the Temperament Type assessment can be attributed to the academic orientations of the American and Spanish students to achieve eventual professional roles as teachers, counselors, and health providers. The groups possess a preponderance of majors in the social sciences and human services as opposed to the natural sciences. The findings of the low number of Rational Temperament Types may also indicate a clear need in the teacher education curricula of both countries for greater emphasis on philosophy, critical thinking, reflective decision making, and equitable problem solving. This, too, requires extensive further study.

The questionnaire was distinctly revealing about the students' attitudes and perceptions relative to the values of learning styles assessment. While both groups revealed minimal knowledge about their learning styles, most students in both groups enjoyed identifying their learning styles. They noted that knowing the ways in which they learn best was beneficial for them in becoming better students and in becoming better teachers in the future. It was a tribute to the values of learning styles research that most students reported it very useful for their teachers to know their students' learning styles.

As research suggests (Tomlinson, 2005; Gregory & Chapman, 2002; Marzano, 2000; Goleman, 1998; Breur, 1997; Caine & Caine, 1997; Costa, 1995; Gardner, 1993; Csikszentmihalyi, 1990; Sternberg, 1985), knowledge of students' learning styles helps instructors to teach in a more efficient way by accommodating their instructional practices to the students' preferred learning styles and by developing best

practices to strengthen students' supporting styles. This is the philosophy of differentiated instruction and is the expected logical objective of identification of learning styles.

In summary, the authors conclude that it is the exception rather than the rule for both American and Spanish students to identify their learning styles and engage in learning activities which accommodate their styles. However, both this study and the research cited above indicate that pre-service teachers and professors both benefit from identification and accommodation of students', and teachers', learning styles. The students in this study have had a very positive reaction to this new attention to their learning styles, finding it very meaningful to both students and teachers.

Essentially, these results should be interpreted within the context from which they were taken, among humanistic students. The results may possibly have been different if these tests had been administered to science students, with more concrete styles of learning. The critical factor is that, regardless of the major disciplines of the students, their learning needs and preferences must be identified and accommodated through a differentiated approach inspired by identification of learning styles.

Finally, the authors close with this statement by Renate Nummela Caine and Geoffrey Caine (1997) in *Education on the Edge of Possibility*, a clear reflection of the research on learning styles and differentiated instruction.

"Teachers' beliefs in and about human potential and in the ability of all students to learn and achieve are critical. These aspects of the teachers' mental models have a profound impact on the learning climate and learner states of mind that teachers create. Teachers need to understand students' feelings and attitudes will be involved and will profoundly influence student learning" (p.124)

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The role of home language and language difficulties in academic achievement: evidence from research and perspectives for a (language) diversity policy of a Belgian University College

Maarten Hulselmans^{1,2}, & Dries Berings^{1,3}

(1) Hogeschool-Universiteit Brussel (HUB)

(2) Centre Internationalisation and Projects (CIP)

(3) Centre for Corporate Sustainability (CEDON)

Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to present the results of a study at HUB, a university college in Brussels, on the predictive value of home language and self-reported language difficulties with respect to academic achievement in higher education against the background of the (language) diversity policy of HUB. The sample consists of 1123 freshmen, who were registered in one of the thirteen Dutch-taught bachelor programmes of HUB. Two hypotheses were tested. H1: The home language of students has an impact on their academic achievement, even after controlling for two socio-economic parameters, namely educational level and financial situation of the parents. H2: Self-reported language difficulties and home language are factors which both have a unique impact on academic achievement, even after controlling for their effects reciprocally. The results of our study give support to both hypotheses: home language and self-reported language difficulties each have a unique impact on academic achievement. The study also revealed that factors traditionally seen as possible explanations for the lower study results in ethno-cultural minority groups cannot explain completely the effect of home language and self-reported language difficulties on academic achievement. A challenge for further research is to try to uncover distinctive features of home language and academic language. Another suggestion for further research is to look for a more elaborate, systematic and differentiated form of language diagnosis. The results of such studies can contribute to an appropriate selection, development and evaluation of student- and staff-related (language) support initiatives in the context of (language) diversity in higher education.

Keywords: home language, language difficulties, academic language, academic achievement, language policy, diversity policy

Introduction

Diversity policy at HUB

The student population in institutes of higher education in Flanders evolves from a homogeneous Flemish student body to an international and a multicultural one. This is a global phenomenon: higher education becomes increasingly diverse in their student populations because of increasing migration, internationalisation and globalisation (Connor, 2004; Grimes, 1995; Kehm, 2002; Scott, 1998). One of the consequences of this evolution is the growing number of students in Flemish higher education who speak a language at home which is not Dutch. Some of them are enrolled in a programme where English is the medium of instruction. But also in the Dutch-taught programmes there is a growing minority of students whose home language is not Dutch.

It is hardly surprising that the Hogeschool-Universiteit Brussel (HUB), the medium-sized university college where this study was conducted, recruits many students from different linguistic backgrounds. First, it is located in the heart of Brussels. The city is not only officially bilingual (French and Dutch) but it is also a multilingual melting pot because of the sheer number of foreigners, expats and Eurocrats that live in Brussels. Second, HUB offers programmes with Dutch as the medium of instruction as well as quite a number of international English-taught programmes, in Brussels and on its off-shore campus in Dubai. Third, HUB is very popular with exchange students in the Erasmus student exchange programme.

Faced with such a diversity of students and languages, HUB developed and implemented a diversity policy to maximize opportunities of students with different linguistic and cultural backgrounds and encourage open and constructive dialogues between students from different

backgrounds. The Dutch language support programme is part and parcel of the diversity policy. It is meant to help students with specific language problems on an individual basis.

Home language and self-reported language difficulties: relevant factors in academic achievement

We found out that 18,1% of the freshmen in Dutch-taught programmes at HUB speak a language at home which is not Dutch. This may be an impediment for these students' academic achievement as students are supposed to do spoken and written assignments and exams in Dutch.

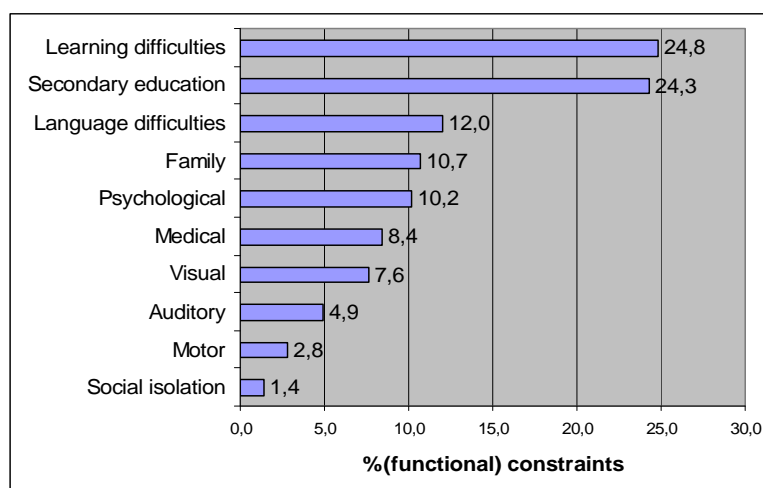
More specifically, lecturers and student counsellors report a wide range of problems, which are also described and analysed in the academic literature (Danzig, 1992; Lacante et al., 2007): (1) students cannot follow the pace of speaking of lecturers and fellow students in a classroom context; (2) students are not tempted to ask for help to lecturers and fellow students as they are embarrassed about their level of Dutch; (3) students do not perform as well in teamwork as their fellow students do whose home language is Dutch; (4) students tend to translate Dutch to their home language in class, which slows down the learning process; (5) parents of students cannot help their children with homework and preparation work for exams and assignments as they are not familiar with (academic) Dutch; (6) students have difficulties with academic Dutch (reading and writing academic texts, using and understanding specific academic vocabulary, ...) ²⁴; (7) lecturers may underestimate students' aptitude and competences on the basis of perceived language weaknesses.

²⁴ "There is general agreement among educators and researchers that the distinct type of English used in classrooms, referred to as academic language, is a variable that often hinders the academic achievement of some language minority students, even though such students might be proficient in varieties of English used in non-academic contexts." (Solomon and Rhodes, 1995, p.1)

Home language is strongly interwoven with other background variables like ethno-cultural roots and socio-economic status (Lacante et al., 2007). Also person-related predictors for study progress (or study drop-out), e.g. sex or study strategy, may interfere with the effect of home language or ethno-cultural background. The same can be said about the educational background of students, such as study delay or study level in secondary education (in Flanders, where the study is conducted, one distinguishes between General Secondary Education (SE), Technical SE, Vocational SE and Artistic SE) (Berings, Colpaert & Koopmans, 2007; Duquet et al., 2006; Lacante et al., 2001, 2007; Tinto, 1993). Also the support given by ‘significant others’, like parents, lecturers and fellow students may enhance the chance of successful academic achievement (Duquet et al., 2006; Hermans, 1995, 2002).

Moreover, home language is not the only language-related element that can play a role in academic achievement. A considerable number of students have language impairments like dyslexia or stuttering or more general language difficulties, like difficulties with academic reading and writing. A small number of students (certainly less than 3%) has contacted Student Counselling and Services for such problems. But a significantly higher proportion of language difficulties are reported by students when asked for them in an internal survey: 12% of the students reported language difficulties. The figure below shows that the factor ‘language difficulties’ is one of the most important factors that was reported by the students as having a negative influence on study results (Berings, 2008).

Figure 1. *Self-reported (functional) constraints*



Home language and self-reported language difficulties: unique predictors of academic achievement

In the framework of HUB's diversity policy we conducted a study (Berings & Hulselmans, 2008) on the impact of home language and self-reported language difficulties on academic achievement at the HUB. Two hypotheses were tested. H1: The home language of students has an impact on their academic achievement, even after controlling for two socio-economic parameters, educational level and financial situation of the parents. H2: Self-reported language difficulties and home language are factors which both have a unique impact on academic achievement, even after controlling for their effects reciprocally. The sample consists of 1123 freshmen, 465 males and 658 females, who are registered in one of the thirteen Dutch-taught bachelor programmes of the HUB in September 2007.

The results of the study confirm the idea that language-related factors play a substantial role in academic achievement. Although home language and self-reported language difficulties are two factors which are to some extent interdependent, both factors have a unique impact on academic achievement: students whose home language is Dutch have higher study results than students whose home language is another language.

The results of the study provide support to the idea that ‘home language’ implies more than ‘difficulties with language’. Some arguments for this idea can be found in the fact that the ‘Francophone’ group, which has an ethno-cultural background that differs only slightly from the ‘Dutch’ students, does not differ much in study results from the ‘Dutch’ students. Yet the small size of the other groups (‘Turkish-Maghreb’ and ‘Other’) and the fact that language and ethno-cultural backgrounds are interwoven make it difficult to separate the effect of both factors. Therefore larger samples are needed to explore this possible differential effect further.

Weaknesses in educational background of students are often seen as a possible explanation for differences in academic achievement in higher education between ethno-cultural groups (Lacante et al., 2007). Yet our results show that such factors have influence on the study results but cannot completely explain the effect of home language. The same can be said about the support given by lecturers. Another possible explanation given for the lower study results of ethnic minorities is a lack of support from their parents. In our results we did not find support for this explanation. The most surprising result is the fact that socio-economic parameters do not seem to play a role in academic achievement and can also not explain the lower academic achievement of students having a home language which is not Dutch. A possible explanation is that the selection or self-selection on the basis of socio-economic background occurred prior to higher education entry.

Significant correlations with the study results are found for: sex, age, educational level in secondary education, study delay before higher education, home language, support from lecturers, support from peers, study motivation and self-reported language difficulties.

To sum up, we see that the factors that are traditionally seen as possible explanations for the lower study results in ethno-cultural minorities cannot explain the difference in study results between students whose home language is Dutch (higher study results) and students whose

home language is another language (lower study results). Although we find arguments in our results that support the statement that home language is ‘more than language’, we are still left with the challenge to distinguish ‘language’ and other ‘cultural elements’ within home language.

Perspectives on language diversity policy and research

A challenge for further research is to see what the distinctive features of home language and academic language are and what the impact is of home language on academic language in case (i) home language and academic language are based on the same language (two registers) and in case (ii) home language and academic language are based on two languages (two registers and two languages). For (ii) it may also be interesting to have a closer look at the interplay between language and culture.

Another challenge is to measure ‘language difficulties’ in a more systematic and differentiated way. To measure ‘language difficulties’ more systematically we propose a language assessment of all students with a standardized language test, e.g. based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages and Profiel Taalvaardigheid Hoger Onderwijs [Profile Language Skills Higher Education]. This approach would contribute to the validity and reliability of the measurement. By doing so possible underreporting of the self-reporting method as a consequence of overestimation and pride can be overcome (Almaci, 2003). A more differentiated way of language assessment may include assessment of academic reading and writing, tests on language impairments (dyslexia, stuttering, ...), speaking and listening tests (individual/in group), tests on specific academic vocabulary.

A more detailed analysis of home language and academic language as well as a more differentiated and systematic assessment of language difficulties could be used as a starting point for the selection, development and evaluation of student- and staff-related support initiatives like generic and faculty specific academic language preparatory courses, workshops for lecturers (how to deal with (language) diversity in the classroom) and workshops for student counselors (how to detect problems related to language diversity). The work done by van der Westen (2007) is interesting and inspiring in this respect. The initiatives in turn may very well be valuable contributions to the implementation of HUB's diversity policy.

One such initiative has been implemented very successfully. Students who take the Bachelor of Education: Nursery Teaching are confronted with linguistic and cultural diversity when they are involved in learning activities with children in Brussels. The students themselves also have different backgrounds. Some of them speak a language at home which is not Dutch. Other students combine working and studying. HUB provides language support classes and separate learning paths for these types of students. Recently, the NVAO (organisation that independently ensures the quality of higher education in the Netherlands and Flanders) awarded the quality indicator 'Intercultural Education' to the programme for this initiative.

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Contact:

Dries Berings, Phd

Centre for Corporate Sustainability (CEDON)

Hogeschool-Universiteit Brussel

Stormstraat 2

B-1000 Brussel

dries.berings@hubrussel.be

An explorative study on the quality of teachers' formulation of learning goals for professional development.

Sandra Janssen, Theo Bastiaens, Sjef Stijnen, Karel Kreijns

Ruud de Moor Centre for professionalization of teachers, Open University of the Netherlands

E-mail: sandra.janssen@ou.nl

Abstract

Currently, teachers rarely invest time in their professional development. If they do, they usually attend courses and training sessions that are characterized by the transmission of knowledge to refresh and update knowledge. Current educational insights reveal that these ways of professionalization are not fully fulfilling the expectations as retention rates are low. Approaches to professional development in the field of Human Resource Development suggest an individual and contextualized way of developing competencies in which learners themselves are responsible for regulating their learning process. An e-portfolio is increasingly used as a tool for promoting development. This paper presents an explorative study that examines how an e-portfolio together with appropriate guidance may contribute to successful continuous process of professional development. In particular, the guidance is oriented towards the formulation of learning goals in a professional development plan that is part of the e-portfolio because literature reports that without guidance this formulation will be poor. Results are presented that show that such guidance is indeed necessary for improving the quality of the formulations.

Keywords: e-portfolio, guidance, professional development plan, teachers

Introduction

To fulfil the high expectations that evolve from society and to improve the quality of the teacher profession, teachers have to develop themselves professionally on a

continuous basis. In the Netherlands, the introduction of the law of Professions in Education (wet op Beroepen in het Onderwijs, BIO) is one of the examples that is defining these high expectations. According to this law, employees in education have to maintain and develop their abilities in their profession and file this in a (e-)portfolio. Based on this law, the Dutch foundation for the quality of teachers (Stichting Beroepskwaliteit Leraren, SBL), defined a list of competences which are required for practicing the teacher profession. These competences serve as a frame of reference for the professional development of teachers (Ministry of Education, Culture and Sciences, 2006).

However, despite the higher expectations of the profession of teachers, teachers rarely invest much time in self-development (Verloop, 2003). If they do, they usually attend courses, training and conferences and read professional journals. This kind of schooling is characterized by transmission of knowledge and has the intention to refresh and update the knowledge and skills. Current educational insights reveal that this way of professionalization is not fully fulfilling the expectations as retention rates are low (Kwakman, 2003). Therefore a new vision on professional development is needed to make choices in policy which favours individual teachers and the school (Verloop, 2003).

Professional development

Literature on Human Resource Development (HRD) suggests new approaches on professional development that are eliminating the disadvantages of traditional schooling. HRD is committed to “organizing individual and collective learning processes focused on the personal and professional development of employees as well as the functioning of the whole organisation” (Poell, 2006, p.1). Developing knowledge and expertise is important for organizations which operate in a complex, knowledge-based and global economy to compete with other organisations (Kessels & Poell, 2001). In order to stimulate the learning in an organization, efforts have to be made to support planned and unplanned learning by a training department with a staff of HRD professionals (Rothwell & Kazanas, 2003). Focusing on the individual employee, HRD literature often uses the term ‘personal development’, besides the term ‘professional development’ (e.g. Gilley, Egglund, & Gilley, 2002; Hargreaves, 1994; Poell, 2006). Gilley, Egglund, and Gilley (2002, p.27), define ‘personal development’ as “the improvement of knowledge, skills and appropriate behaviour for

current jobs” (2002, p. 27). In this paper, the term ‘professional development’ is used to designate the development of teachers in their profession.

The new approaches on professional development put forward some assumptions about the learning process of teachers from the perspective that they are employees at an educational institute. First, it is expected from employees to take responsibility in improving themselves continuously in order to meet the ever changing requirements (Hargreaves, 1994; Verloop, 2003). Second, learning activities are preferred to be contextualized, that is, they should be embedded within the work context (Hargreaves, 1994; Kwakman, 2003; Verloop, 2003). Learning activities are more effective when they have a clear connection with daily practice integrating the problems, questions, and solutions (Brown, Collins, & Duguid, 1989). Third, there is a movement towards organizing working and learning in an collaborative setting (Hargreaves, 1994). Discussions and interactions between teachers are considered relevant learning activities for improving their practice (Kwakman, 2003).

All the before mentioned researchers stress the importance of an active learner whose learning is to a high degree regulated by the learner, e.g. ‘self-regulated’. The concept of self-regulated learning stems from educational psychology. It gives more insight into how this self-directed process of learning proceeds (Zimmerman, 2000). According to Zimmerman (2000), self-regulated learning consists of three phases: planning, monitoring and evaluation. During the *planning phase*, the individuals, set a goal to define what they want to achieve. Subsequently, the individuals activate prior knowledge, perceptions, the context, and the self in relation to the task. With this information, strategies are defined to accomplish the goal. After the planning phase, the teachers perform tasks that involve the accomplishment of the goals set and during this phase, they *monitor* their actions. If, for example, the teacher is following the wrong direction, he or she has to change the strategy in order to follow the right direction to reach the goal. After performing the tasks, the *evaluation phase* commences. The evaluation reflects on whether the goals are accomplished, which strategies were used and which of them were effective. Based on this evaluation new learning goals can be set.

Nonetheless, this process of learning is not self-evident. Research from Van Eekelen, Boshuizen and Vermunt (2005), who investigated whether teachers self-regulate their learning experiences, revealed that not all teachers do self-regulate their learning according to the phases as formulated by Zimmerman (2000). Teachers had

difficulty with defining learning goals, planning actions and reflecting on their learning process (Van Eekelen et al., 2005).

Structured e-portfolio's

A portfolio is a collection of evidence in relation to learning that provides evidence of someone's knowledge, skills and dispositions' (Wray, 2007, p. 1139). A portfolio often consists of an overview of earlier education and work experiences, material that provides insight into current work performance and perceptions about the work performance and competences (Tartwijk, Driessen, Hoeberigs, Kösters, Ritzen, Stokking, & Van der Vleuten, 2003). Portfolios are increasingly being used as a tool for promoting development and growth (Zeichner, & Wray, 2001) in education or at work (e.g. Mansvelder-Longayroux, Beijaard, & Verloop, 2007; Tigelaar, Dolmans, De Grave, Wolfhagen, & Van der Vleuten, 2006). Zeichner and Wray (2001) indicated that composing a portfolio encourages teachers to think more deeply about teaching and subject matter content.

However, simply providing a portfolio is not enough. Indeed, research on portfolios is indicating that portfolios do stimulate professional development, however, this stimulation cannot be taken for granted. Particularly, studies which investigate the use of portfolio in educational settings emphasize that for a successful portfolio use certain conditions should be met. For example, it is suggested that clear guidelines and structure and support by a coach and/ or peers are needed to support the professional development (Mansvelder-Longayroux, et al., 2007; Driessen, Van Tartwijk, Van der Vleuten, & Wass, 2007). Hence, more structure and guidance is needed to optimize the use of portfolios to support the teacher in self-regulating their learning process. In order to ameliorate the burdens of teachers, structure and guidance can be embedded in the portfolio resulting in a structured portfolio. Using such structured portfolios, it is expected that teachers more successfully define learning goals and actions, perform and monitor those actions, and evaluate the learning process. As in this study an e-portfolio is used, we continue by referring to it as a structured e-portfolio.

In this explorative study, we focus on the support of the planning phase of the professional development process. By formulating learning goals and strategies, teachers direct and plan their professional development. A goal determines the

direction in which an individual wants to develop and provides at the same time a standard for evaluating progress (Latham & Locke, 1991).

One of the structural elements that could be embedded in the e-portfolio is a Professional Development Plan (PDP). A PDP supports the planning phase and, therefore, is a form in which learning goals can be formulated for a particular professional development trajectory. By filling in a PDP, the teacher has to think of which learning goals are important to him or her (Bullock, Firmstone, Frame, & Bedward, 2007). In sum, teachers have the opportunity and responsibility to direct their professional development.

Guidance of a structured e-portfolio

To formulate learning goals, teachers should gain insight into their functioning and, consequently, address aspects that need improvement. High workload often leads teachers to presenting quick solutions to problems that arise at work without trying to find out what is underlying these problems and what they should change for improving their work practices (Korthagen, 1998). To improve their work practices, support is needed to help the teachers in formulating learning goals and strategies that have a clear connection with their functioning in daily practice and the competences needed to practice the teacher profession (Bullock, et al., 2006). In addition, learning goals should be concrete; formulating a specific goal makes clear what effective performance means. A vague, ‘do-your-best’ goal does not clarify when the goal is reached (Latham & Locke, 1991). Guidance should support the teacher in becoming aware of the gap in competencies and formulating a concrete learning goal (Bullock, et al., 2006).

In this study, teachers were offered a ripped e-portfolio only containing the PDP and a series of workshops as the guidance to support them in formulating learning goals and making action plans. The workshops were organized in such a way that these provided them with building blocks for formulating learning goals and the possibility of interacting with the mentors and colleagues. To investigate the effect of the guidance we examined the PDPs of the teachers. The PDPs used in this study was structured in terms of questions which were focused on what teachers want to improve in their work, corresponding action plans, their strengths and their plans for the future.

Method

Participants

Thirty-five teachers at Koning Willem 1 College, a school for senior vocational education, participated in this study. The participants comprised 12 males and 9 females. Finally, 21 of the 35 participants completed their PDP.

Materials

The PDP form was not developed by us but defined by the personnel department of the school. The form actually was a word document structured by questions. These questions aimed to support the teacher in making clear how they want they develop themselves in their work. The questions focused on the development within current job, corresponding plans of action, personal qualities, and plans for the future.

To guide the teachers in developing a PDP they were offered six workshops. These workshops were given on a regular basis in which participants received building blocks for the formulation of their learning goals. During the sessions, the teachers could learn more about their motivation, attitudes and their professional competences. During the workshops, teachers work on their PDPs.

Procedure

The workshops took place in the period from April 2007 till September 2007. To avoid that the group of teachers in the workshop became too large for interaction, three groups of average 12 teachers attended the workshops. The workshops used a set of characteristic professional situations. A characteristic professional situation is one 'that regularly occur, require professional qualities, and are characteristic for the profession' (Goes, Dresen, & Van der Klink, 2005, p. 144). Thus, a characteristic professional situation typically displays a situation a teacher may encounter in daily practice. To deal with the situation the teacher should possess certain competences.

Besides that, teachers were given information and exercises; they had the possibility to interact with the mentor and colleagues about the PDP.

At the same time, participants completed a questionnaire called the Teacher as a Person (Leraar als Persoon, abbreviated as LaP). It is an electronic set of tests that aims to provide teachers with more insight into their personal characteristics. During every workshop, teachers could write down their experiences and learning points in a journal. Based on the journals participants finalized their PDP during the sixth and last session. Apart from the workshops, participants could consult a coach for additional guidance.

Analysis

Firstly, the number of participants who has given an answer to each question was scored to determine to what degree the PDP's were completed.

Secondly, a qualitative analysis was conducted to explore the content of the completed PDP's. The content of the PDP was already structured by the questions posed in the form. Based on the questions that were relevant for our research we developed a category system to analyse the data. The questions that were selected for this category system focussed on what teachers want to develop, how they make their development measurable, and how they plan this development. The questions reflected what goals teachers want to accomplish and how they want to accomplish these goals; the planning phase of self-regulated learning (Zimmerman, 2000). The following categories were defined:

- *Result area (general)*: This category is based on the question in which participants were asked in which result area they want to improve themselves. The school has defined five result areas for teachers: group dynamics, educational process, educational innovations, general organisational activities, and examinations. The defined result areas were formulated rather generally. For instance, 'managing the educational process' ranges from composing learning material to teaching and assessing students.
- *Specified result area*: This category focused on what participants, specifically, want to improve within the result areas.
- *Evidence*: The evidence that participants plan to collect to show that they have accomplished the goal.

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- *Action Plan*: The action plan was structured by the format of the PDP into the action(s) teachers plan to take, whom and what they need to perform those actions, and a timeframe.
 - *Plan for the future*: Participants indicated what they want to reach in the future.
 - *Requirements for the future*: What participants need in the future to do their job well.

For each category, the responses of the teachers that belonged to that category were collected. Every category includes all the responses that the teachers have given for that category. Within these categories, the data was further analysed to make subcategories that indicate the different types of responses. The responses that were collected for every category were divided in fragments that contained the essence of the response. The fragments that resembled each other were put together and labelled by a code. This code described the content of the fragments that were put together and represents a subcategory.

Results

Figure 1 shows the number of participants who responded and the number of answers that were given for each category. Most participants (between 16 and 21 respondents) responded in each category. The figure also shows that most participants reported more than one answer for each category. In sum, the results show that the PDPs were rather complete. The next section gives more insight into the responses for every category.

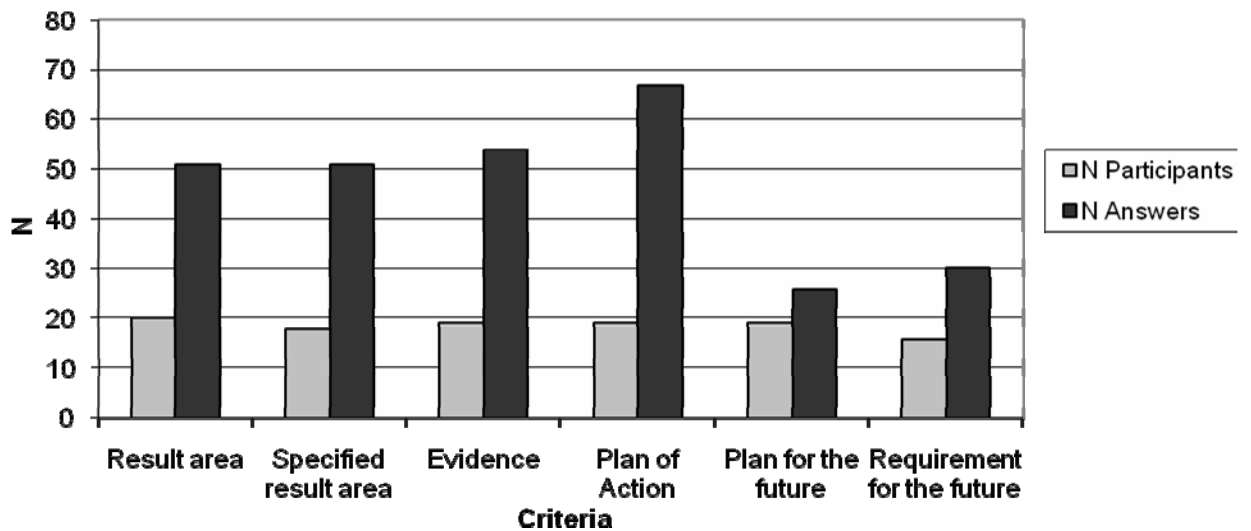


Figure 1 Number of participants who responded and total number of answers for each category

Result area

The school provided the teacher a framework of result areas in which they could develop themselves. Most responses in this category corresponded to the result areas defined by the school.

Most teachers described that they wanted to develop educational programs (educational innovations), ‘develop knowledge and skill in the educational process of competence-based learning’ or ‘contribute to the development of educational innovations.’ Group dynamics, coaching students, working with colleagues in a team and/ or organisation and managing the educational process were also mentioned.

The responses in this category were general. This is not surprising considering the question that was posed in the POP form which was focused on general results. The next category is less general, participants had to report in more specific terms what they want to improve.

Specified result area

Once again, educational innovations that are improving or developing educational programs and acquiring corresponding abilities and knowledge, were often

mentioned. Additionally, improvements and changes in group dynamics, innovations, educational processes, coaching students, and communication were described.

Considering the question asked in this category it was expected that the answers would be more specific. However, the answers ranged from being too general to more specific. A general answer would be “*involving all students in the group process*” or “*knowledge and abilities*”, while or “*I want to improve my listening ability and the way I argue when communicating*” was more specific. These results indicate that, despite the guidance that was provided, it was difficult for most participants to define in concrete terms what they want to improve in their work practice.

Evidence

The question related to this category focused on the evidence that teachers are planning to collect to show they have accomplished the goal. Most teachers reported that they will use certificates of followed courses as evidence for attained goals. This result implies that many participants think of professional development in terms of following courses instead of showing evidence that relates to improvements in competencies in daily work practice. Other interesting types of evidences were feedback from students and colleagues by discussing or evaluating results with students and colleagues, asking for feedback or conducting an evaluation survey with students. Products or teaching material that participants developed was another often mentioned type of evidence. Other participants planned to document or summarize their findings in a file or report.

Action Plan

Most teachers planned to follow courses or training. Some teachers specified the subject of training, for example, “*schooling for remedial teaching and excel*”, while others just mentioned “*attending meetings and courses*”. Other participants planned to meet or work together with colleagues or visit organisations for acquiring more information. Evaluating with students, trying things out in practice or searching for information in books were incidentally mentioned. Some participants reported a sequence of actions in which they consult colleagues, try things out, ask for feedback from colleagues and students and adjust their projects or exercises. Most plans of

actions lacked a clear timeframe and a sequence of actions that need to be taken to accomplish a particular goal.

The responses on what they need in order to accomplish a goal varied with respect to specificity and content. Participants often reported that they needed their colleagues. Besides that, they said to need their team manager and/ or team, students for feedback, specific courses, literature and time. The timeframes in which they are planning to take these actions varied from short and specific periods of a couple of years to a period of four years.

These results correspond to the responses to the previous category (evidence). Although, teachers often formulated their plans in terms of following courses, some teachers described their plans more elaborately. They reported a sequence of activities in which they involve their daily work practice, colleagues and students.

Plans for the future

Most plans for the future were focused on improving current work practices. For instance, teachers were satisfied with the tasks they have, but they wanted to improve their functioning related to these tasks, *“At the moment I am satisfied with my current position. My priority is to improve what I am doing”*. Other teachers wanted to extend specific work activities, for instance, *“I would like to work more on coaching problem students”* or *“coaching colleagues in new projects.”* To specialize in competence-based education that is introduced in the school or to participate in a project for starting entrepreneurs were also mentioned as a plan for the future. A single participant wanted to be more active in developing education instead of teaching students.

Requirements for the future

To develop oneself professionally, most participants needed (more insight into) possibilities as courses, training and coaching, for example, *“sufficient feedback and reflection to grow to another function.”* Other requirements that were reported were facilities, time, a clear policy and vision of the team or organisation.

Discussion and conclusion

This explorative study has focused on the support of the planning phase of professional development in terms of using a structured e-portfolio with guidance. A

Professional Development Plan (PDP) was embedded in the portfolio and workshops were given to provide the teachers building blocks for the formulation of their learning goals. To develop a good PDP, learning goals should be attainable and specific for making clear what effective performance means (Latham & Locke, 1991). Therefore, teachers should be aware of their strengths and weaknesses and being able to determine what they should improve in their teaching practice. Research from van Eekelen, et al. (2005) already indicated that teachers have difficulty with defining learning goals and making action plans. Besides that, research on portfolios also suggest that good coaching is important for a successful and reflective portfolio (Driessen, et al., 2007; Mansvelder-Longayroux, et al., 2007; Tigelaar et al., 2006). By stimulating teachers to think more thoroughly about their functioning and professional development process teachers would get more insight and become aware of their competencies need improvement (Bullock, et al., 2006). For this reason, teachers were provided with workshops in which the relationship between competences and characteristic professional situations were explained. Also, teachers were given information and exercises and they had the possibility to interact with coaches and other participants. They further could make a set of tests which aim to provide more insight in their personal characteristics and got the opportunity to meet a coach to discuss the PDP.

The final PDP's were near to complete. The content of the PDPs varied between participants. In the first part of the PDP, which concentrates on improvements in current work practices, teachers had to formulate which result areas they wanted to improve and specify this in more concrete terms and activities. Although teachers were asked to specify these, they responded often in general terms of the result areas. They often neglect to relate these result areas to their own daily practice and their competences (in terms of knowledge, skills and attitudes) and did not make the goal specific. Most of the responses focused on contributing to the development of educational programs, such as competence-based learning that is introduced in the school.

As was mentioned before, the action plans and evidences they were going to collect varied from general (courses) to more specific (specific course or learning to use the right questions when coaching students). Most of the time, the evidences and action plans reflected incidental courses and training that teachers want to follow. A few other plans were focused on improving teachers' functioning in daily practice

encompassing discussing with colleagues and students, trying things out in practice and evaluating these. Finally, they rarely planned a sequence of actions to accomplish a goal.

The PDPs has given us a rich body of information about what and how teachers want to develop themselves. Our impressions are that, although teachers were guided in making their PDP, the formulation of the learning goals and action plans were often too general. In addition, most participants viewed professional development in terms of courses rather than they contextualize professional development by using their daily work practices.

Based on our findings we may conclude that structuring an e-portfolio by embedding a PDP and the provision of guidance in the form of workshops indeed did improve teachers thinking about their professional development. However, the findings also show that this improvement is somewhat moderate due to the framework of questions in the PDP that biased the kind of answers and solutions teachers gave. Therefore, our future research will concentrate on strengthening this framework using findings from literature. Concurrently, we will examine alternative forms of guidance such as embedded forms of guidance or the use of peer coaching cycles.

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The influence of South East European University's flexible language policy in curriculum and instruction on student awareness about the existence of other cultures and mutual understanding.

Veronika Kareva, Heather Henshaw, Zamir Dika, Alajdin Abazi
South East European University, Tetovo, Macedonia

Abstract

The European Union seeks to develop positive co-existence and mutually beneficial exchange between people of different cultural identities, languages and ethnicities. Nowhere this is more vital than in areas in which there has been tension and conflict between communities. The Republic of Macedonia has experienced such challenges in its short history of independence and one of the key issues was the use of the Albanian language for the large Albanian community in relation to the then only official national language, Macedonian. The country always offered, and continues to offer, separate but equal opportunities for most pupils to be educated in L1, but with the requirement that every pupil learns Macedonian. However, the Albanian language option was not available at higher education level, except for Teacher Training for elementary teachers.

Starting in 1999, and during the following period of political crisis, international bodies from Europe and the United States supported the creation of a higher education institution, South East European University, which would develop high quality provision, be a positive response to identified community need and a means of easing ethnic tensions. Thus, the University was designed to promote the use of the Albanian language at this level, and at the same time provide opportunities for study in three languages – Albanian, Macedonian and English. The University offers its students a range of programs in their language of choice, plus compulsory language skills classes (Albanian, Macedonian and ethnically mixed English Language classes). Its mission is to pursue excellence in teaching and research, to be open to all on the basis of equity and merit regardless of ethnicity, to promote inter-ethnic understanding and to provide a multilingual and multicultural approach to teaching and research. The Teacher Training Department itself trains language teachers (Albanian, Macedonian and English), who experience an integrated university model but return for teaching practice and employment into the separate but equal school system.

This multi-lingual approach, unique in Macedonia, has its achievements and challenges. This paper presents the findings of research done with the students of the SEEU Teacher Training Department about the influence of the university's flexible language policy in curriculum and instruction on student awareness about the existence of other cultures and mutual understanding. The research also seeks to identify shifts in attitude after Teacher Training students have experienced two different models, and how this might affect their attitudes when they return to school for teaching practice and employment.

At the same time, at organizational level, the institution has experienced both success and serious challenge in relation to this policy and approach. The paper, therefore, also identifies these and, in particular, outlines how it is working to resolve some key issues. It is hoped that this will offer a model for consideration by other national and regional educational institutions and bodies and contribute to intercultural dialogue.

Introduction and European Context

The European Union seeks to develop positive co-existence and mutually beneficial exchange between people of different cultural identities, languages and ethnicities. As part of this, it has developed a key priority of identifying and promoting the multiple benefits of multilingualism. The EU Commission's first Communication on Multilingualism "A New Framework Strategy for Multilingualism" which was complemented by the Commission's Action Plan "Promoting Language Learning and Linguistic Diversity", set out three basic strands – access for citizens, economic development and most importantly here, "encouraging all citizens to learn and speak more languages, in order to improve mutual understanding and communication". The Strategy "promotes the value of language learning and identifies the quality of language teaching and better training of language teachers as important challenges. Moreover, through the EU Language Policy, Languages 2010, EU Education Ministers have highlighted three goals to support the Lisbon Strategy: improving the quality and effectiveness of EU education and training systems, ensuring that education is accessible to all and opening up education and training to a wider world. The plan has thirteen specific objectives. The objectives number 8 (supportive active citizenship, equal opportunities and social cohesion), number 11 (improving foreign language learning) along with benchmark number 1 (methods and ways of organizing the teaching of languages) concern us here.

In addition, the OSCE High Commissioner on National Minorities has recognized that "because of its functional and symbolic significance, language can be one of the most contentious issues in multi-ethnic societies." Language is seen as a marker of ethnic identity, a way of expressing distinct cultures, a source of national cohesion, the basis for public administration and a method of building political communities: "Language is at the core of our individual and collective identities." The High Commissioner recognized that there were tensions and challenges but that these were not insurmountable.

European strategy and policy, therefore, recognize the importance of the use of languages for equality and access, economic development and social cohesion, in addition to valuing linguistic diversity and acknowledging the educational advantages of learning languages.

National Context

This European wide focus on the political, social and educational benefits of multilingualism, and on the rights of those who speak minority languages, is nowhere more vital than in areas in which there has been tension between communities. The Republic of Macedonia has experienced such challenges in its short history of independence. One of the key issues has been the use of the Albanian language for the large Albanian community in relation to the official national language, Macedonian. This included education, particularly at higher education level where study in Albanian was not available, except for Teacher Training for elementary teachers. Ethnically and linguistically diverse (Macedonians 64.18%, Albanians 25.17%, Turks 3.85%, Roma people 2.66%, Serbs 1.78%, Bosniaks 0.8%, Vlachs 0.48%, Other 1.04%), the language profile broadly matches ethnicity. (Census, 2002). The official language is Macedonian with the additional legal provision that where there is a language spoken by more than 20% of the population (in this case Albanian) or by more than 20% of a community within a municipality, then that language also has official status. This includes the right of instruction in one's mother tongue. (Constitution of RM, 1991)

According to the work of the sociolinguist Leclerc, who collected, translated and classified language policies and laws in 354 states or autonomous territories in 194 recognized countries, the Republic of Macedonia is therefore categorized as having 'differentiated legal statute policies'. "This is a policy that recognizes a different legal statute for a given language and usually aims at allowing the coexistence of multiple linguistic groups inside a state. Typically, the majority has all its linguistic rights secured and sometimes promoted while the minority or minorities are given special protection for their language". The country additionally falls into the category of the 'valorisation of the official language policies' which favors the language of the majority of the population whilst recognizing and protecting minority languages. (Language policy, 2008).

For the Republic of Macedonia and its school children and teachers at primary and secondary level, this means that every pupil is required to learn Macedonian with other larger ethnic/linguistic communities having schooling in their mother tongue. Currently, Albanian is offered to ethnic Macedonians as an elective from elementary years onwards, although interest and take up is small. In addition, other foreign languages are offered, notably English but also French, German and Italian. English is increasingly seen as the most useful foreign language. With the country's recognition that English remains the most widely spoken foreign language in Europe (51% of EU citizens spoken as either a mother tongue or as a second/foreign language) and its candidate status for EU membership, the use of English is viewed as increasingly vital for the country's development. It is also viewed as a 'neutral', bridge language which can bring separate communities more together. (Poll of the European Commission, 2008)

It is important to describe the existing structure of level 2 education, which is key to understanding how multilingualism operates within Macedonia. Pupils from different linguistic communities are taught in separate classes and only by teachers from their own language community. They may be in a school where there is no other language community present, for example, in areas where the population is totally ethnically Macedonian. However, where there are mixed language communities, the school will be structured in one of three ways. 1. Where conditions allow, the children may be taught in the same building, but in different classrooms. 2. They may be taught in the

same building, but because of pressure on space, they may have alternating timetables with one language community studying in the morning and one in the afternoon. 3. They may have separate buildings. In all cases, whereas each constitutes one school, with one director and management structure, the teaching and pupils that belong to different language and ethnic communities remain separate. Finally, it is important to note that foreign languages like English are only taught by a member of the same community as the pupils and the English classes are never mixed, even where this is possible. Pupils who speak different languages have little or no educational, social or after school recreational contact. Indeed, where there has been a recent case of ‘rivalry’ between pupils from different ethnic/language groups, the call has been for totally separate buildings and institutions. In 2004, there was an initiative for strategic dialogue under the auspices of the European Center for Minority Issues, Regional Office, Skopje, Republic of Macedonia, to overcome the cultural gap between the two language communities. An educational working group was established, which analyzed the existing situation and came up with recommendations for promoting multiculturalism in education. These were proposed to the decision makers and teacher training institutions, but no recommendations were accepted.

South East European University (SEEU) Context

The exceptions to this situation are the country’s few private high schools and the South East European University, which was envisioned as an experimental model of higher education before the country’s 2001 conflict and opened in that year with 700 students enrolling in five faculties. The University was designed to promote the use of the Albanian language at the third level, and at the same time offer opportunities for study in three languages – Albanian, Macedonian and English. Its mission is to pursue excellence in teaching and research, to be open to all on the basis of equity and merit regardless of ethnicity, to promote inter-ethnic understanding and to provide a multilingual, multicultural approach to teaching and research. From the beginning, the University offered its students a range of programs in Albanian and Macedonia, plus the opportunity to learn or improve the ability to communicate in each other’s language. In addition, students have to attend English classes, in ethnically mixed groups according to language level, with teachers from diverse ethnic and linguistic backgrounds. Teachers use and model interactive, learner centered methodology, including inter-cultural dialogue and use of language comparison, with the students’ own experience used as a resource. Mostly for the first time, students engage with each other through the medium of a third ‘neutral’ language which is perceived to be beneficial for all. This is endorsed via the Higher Education Academy website, “700 Reasons for Studying Languages” where a language undergraduate is quoted as follows: “Language learning promotes cultural heterogeneity. If people can learn, understand and have an affinity with another language, cultural harmony can only be increased by that.” The Teacher Training Department itself also trains language teachers (Albanian, Macedonian and English), and as part of this, all students learn about multicultural issues, sometimes in classes which use more than one language. Thus, they experience this integrated model first hand, but return for teaching practice and employment into the separate but parallel school system.

SEEU operates a flexible language policy, defined for study purposes as: “requiring the usage of Albanian language, as well as Macedonian and English. SEEU requires students to have a solid knowledge of Albanian, Macedonian, and English, but also offers the opportunity to take classes in German, French, or Italian”. (Mission of the

university). For staff, the mission statement confirms this multilingual approach and the standard job description states that “Effective communication (oral and written) in at least one of the languages used at the university (Albanian, Macedonian) plus English”, with preference given to those who can use all three.

This policy has had its successes and challenges, and the research which follows presents findings done with the students of the SEEU Teacher Training Department about the influence of the university’s flexible language policy in curriculum and instruction on student awareness about the existence of other cultures and mutual understanding. The research also seeks to identify shifts in attitude after students have experienced two different models, and how this might affect their attitudes when they return to school for teaching practice and employment. A second focus was with the University’s managers and policy makers which aimed to audit and analyze the institutional commitment to and evaluation of this model. The purposes of the research are to gauge the value this model and ethos has and to use this in order to promote and influence discussion about multilingual/multicultural policies, models and practice in education, which might also be of interest to other countries in the region or elsewhere with similar histories and challenges.

Review of related literature

The inseparable relation between culture and languages has been already discussed by many authors. Gleason (1961) in Ming-Mu Kuo and Cheng-Chieh Lai indicated that “languages are not only the product of cultures, but also are the symbols of cultures”. The development of a language frequently affects its associated culture, and cultural patterns of cognition and custom are often explicitly coded in language. According to Cakir, “we all know that understanding a language involves not only knowledge of grammar, phonology and lexis, but also a certain features and characteristics of the culture”. This author further says that, “to communicate internationally inevitably involves communicating inter-culturally, as well.” In the UNESCO Guidelines on Intercultural Education, it is said that “language is one of the most universal and diverse forms of expression of human culture, and perhaps even the most essential one. It is at the heart of issues of identity, memory and transmission of knowledge.” Our assumption was that learning the language of the other, will contribute towards learning the culture of the other, getting to know other better, realizing that he/she is only different from you and not better or worse than you.

Research methodologies and results

The influence of the flexible language policy on raising cultural awareness was determined by arithmetic analysis of variables (ANOVA). A total of 110 undergraduate students at SEEU Teacher Training Department participated in the study. They were all at their second and third year of studying ELT (English Language Teaching). We deliberately excluded first year students, because they have not had sufficient time to experience the SEEU model of organization of teaching and learning. Out of the total 110 students, 56 identified themselves as Albanian, 47 Macedonian, 6 Turkish and one from the Roma people. The majority of students (90%) said that they had not studied together with pupils from other ethnic or language groups in their secondary school. The exceptions were the students from private colleges, the 4 students who finished secondary schools abroad (Australia, England, Netherlands and Denmark) and the Roma student.

The sample was determined to be representative of the Teacher Training Department population as participants were drawn from their obligatory English skills courses in which all students, no matter what their ethnicity or mother tongue, are placed together, according to their year of study, and have instruction only in English, in classes of about 15 – 25 students.

The questionnaire given to students consisted of 15 questions. (Appendix 1) The first 5 questions referred to the flexible language policy. Questions 5 to 10 referred to raising the cultural awareness of students defined as “developing sensitivity and understanding of another ethnic group” (Adams, 1995). We also used the suggestion of the same author that cultural awareness must be supplemented with cultural knowledge, being the familiarization with selected cultural characteristics, history, values, belief systems, languages and behaviors of the members of another ethnic group. The last five questions were aimed to study the shift in attitude with the students after they graduate and go back to schools as teachers of English.

The results showed that the flexible language policy has a positive influence on cultural awareness and is statistically relevant on level 0,001 (F=5.17). It further shows that cultural awareness has a positive influence on a shift in attitude and is statistically relevant on level 0,001 (F=4.15). This means that the flexible language policy also results in shifts in attitude with students.

TABLE 1: POSITIVE INFLUENCE ON CULTURAL AWARENESS

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	185,206	7	26.458	5.173	.000
Within Groups	521,667	102	5.114		
Total	706,873	109			

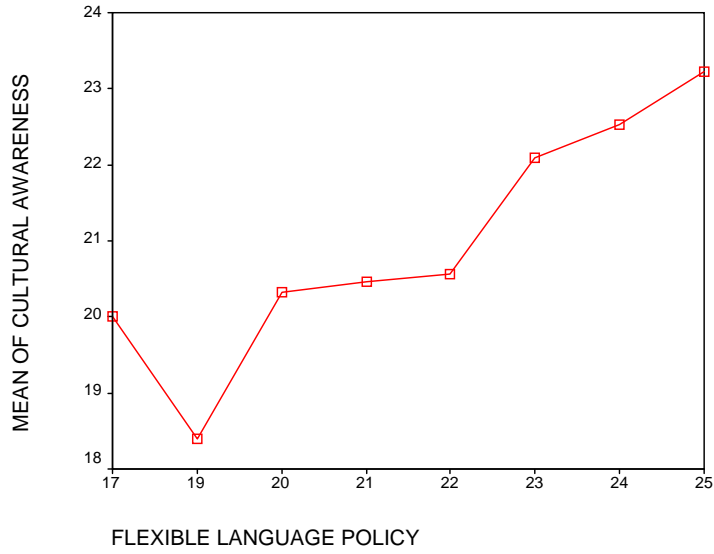


TABLE 2: POSITIVE INFLUENCE ON SHIFT IN ATTITUDE

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	261.946	11	23.813	4.153	.000
Within Groups	561.909	98	5.734		
Total	823.855	109			

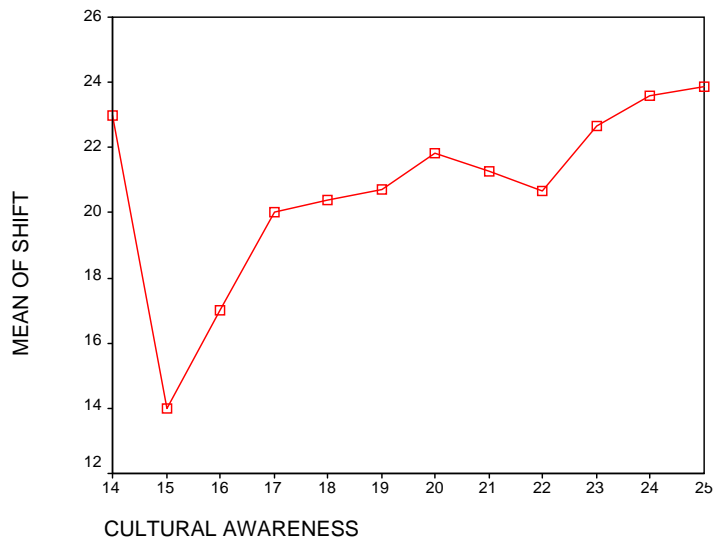
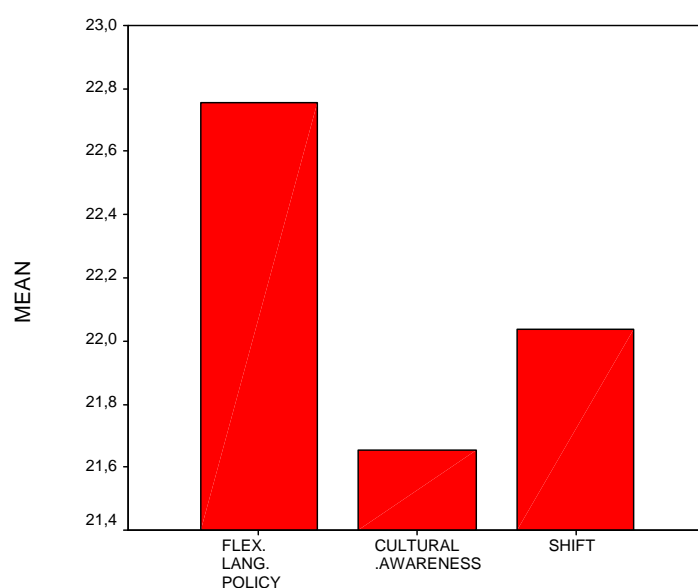


TABLE 3: - SUMMARY OF MEAN AND VARIABLES



The second element of the research focused on an analysis and evaluation of the university's flexible language policy by key members of staff representing a whole organization approach (Appendix 2). A series of one-to-one interviews were conducted with twenty members of staff as follows: four members of senior management representing Academia, Finance, Administration and Research, six directors or lead staff engaged in legal services, international affairs, employer and business engagement and careers, public relations, quality assurance and human resources. In addition, three academic leaders for Teacher Training and ELT were interviewed, as were the university's two full time translators (Albanian and Macedonian) plus the five faculty administrators who have translation duties as an important, identified role on their job description. The standardized questions (appendix 1) focused on the effect of the flexible language policy on academic excellence and reputation, its contribution to multilingualism and multiculturalism, inter-community respect and co-operation, and whether it contributed to a broader, EU perspective. They were also asked about the adequacy of resources, financial and human, and about their personal contribution. Finally, they were asked about possible negative aspects in terms of mis-communication, division not cohesion, lack of clarity and sustainability; and to identify key successes and challenges. Currently, in fulfilment of its commitment to its policy, SEEU budgets for two translators, approximately 20% of salary of 5 faculty administrators, and a 10% additional monthly increment to teaching staff who deliver in more than one language. In addition, it offers language classes to staff in English, Macedonian and Albanian and has just published a CD for Macedonian speakers wishing to learn Albanian. In the library, there is constant work being done on translating key texts for students' courses. The university also relies on much enthusiasm and good will from members of staff with high level language skills in one or more language who volunteer to translate and proread as required.

All interviewees recognized that the use of English and other languages had the potential to enhance academic excellence, providing access to a much wider range of study and research resources and allowing academics to present their work more

easily to an international audience. It was also felt that in some fields, books and research materials available in English and other international languages were of better quality and that being able to use other languages allowed students access to the best of what was available. Respondents recognized that academic excellence was entirely possible in some specific fields using only Macedonian or Albanian and that one was most likely to be eloquent and exact in one's first language. There was concern that both students and teachers did not have equal competence in the languages used at the university and could only perform to their potential in their own. Issues to do with precise expression of ideas and concepts were identified, as was a concern about the challenges of translating technical material accurately and the lack of translated resources. The offer of more courses in English was seen as useful in bringing together high calibre local students and in attracting good students from abroad.

There was overwhelming agreement that the University's model promoted effective multilingual, multicultural education, inter-community respect and co-operation and acted as a model in the region. It was seen as very positive in terms of increased communication between language communities, as an opportunity to learn and understand more about each other, offering a beneficial exchange of language and culture. It was stressed that we understand more about our ourselves and each other by learning and using different languages and that it helped to eliminate prejudice. One respondent also pointed out that it gave ethnic Macedonians the chance to hear and learn Albanian which they might not normally have. Some staff (4) were aware that there were challenges in meeting our multicultural ideal. They pointed out that students were only mixed for English classes but remained relatively separate elsewhere, in and outside the classroom. There was work still to be done with the Students' Union and in ensuring that all languages were dealt with equally in meetings and written communication. There was a tendency to overlook Macedonian when producing translations, especially when time was short, and that this could result in Macedonian speakers feeling left out.

All respondents believed that the three language model positively promoted the University's reputation in terms of acting as a model of good practice, maintaining an active learning community, contributing to social cohesion, differentiating us from other universities in the area, meeting the requirements of our international donors and supporters, for marketing purposes and in aspiring to the European focus multilingualism and multiculturalism. There were quality issues with using three languages but on balance it was seen as something to be promoted and preserved.

It was also felt that the flexible language policy contributed to the university's wish to be part of a European wide higher education community, especially given the focus minority language rights by the European Commission. The use of English was seen as crucial in broadening perspectives, increasing the prospects for mobility, and giving access to a wider community. Macedonian and Albanian were acknowledged to be much more local community languages, with the university shaped to respond to Balkan imperatives. SEEU was described as being a US and EU 'project' which should be continued and developed. Two people viewed this differently and felt that it was not a matter of having three languages which gave a European perspective but rather an ethos, plus the programs in Foreign Languages and European Studies.

The issue of resourcing was seen as the most challenging area for the success of this policy. Whereas all staff actively endorsed the principles and believed that the use of three languages should continue and be developed in line with educational, social and economic trends, all respondents knew that staff skills and human resources did not match the university's aspirations. Individual staff did not have the required multilingual skills and the increased quantity and complexity of demands on the translators meant that the policy was under pressure. It was felt that there was a need to appoint people with the requisite language skills, and to increase the number of translators, especially those capable of translating into English as well as local languages. A range of practical solutions were recommended from training existing staff, outsourcing to devolving translation to Faculties. Of even more concern was the financial viability of the policy. Senior managers stated that more funds were needed in the short term to really make a difference, for example, in the number of hours tuition which could be provided. They were also concerned about the long term sustainability of the model and believed that they would need to rationalize and reduce what was offered unless additional and/or external funding was identified.

In conclusion, the research demonstrates that the flexible use of language policy, the structure of provision and the multilingual, multicultural ethos of the university has changed the attitudes of Teacher Training students. Compared with their school experience, they are now more receptive to other language/ethnic communities, have a greater understanding of other cultures, and more likely to promote the benefits of these values themselves in their future careers as teachers. Only in the area of closer personal friendships were they more neutral. The survey also showed that the language curriculum offer and organisational structure modelled at the university could and should be considered in other universities and schools, where this was a realistic option.

The institutional wide staff analysis confirmed the students' positive response and endorsed the values of the university's mission. The staff identified four key achievements of the policy. It promotes multilingualism for social, economic, work-related reasons and for European integration, It contributes to a multicultural approach which increases mutual respect and understanding, and challenges prejudice. It provides opportunities for studying an internationally recognized and useful language which acts as a bridge between language communities; and lastly, as a local solution towards solving past problems and bringing more positive inter-community relations and social cohesion. Such an initiative needed to be led by senior managers, adequately funded and resourced, and developed at operational level by effective management, with thought and commitment.

Questions for reflection

The following questions draw on the paper's research and conclusions and present future reflection for students, the university as well as national and regional bodies:

-
- Can our Teacher Training graduates continue to appreciate and promote the value of every language in their future employment, and actively demonstrate respect and participation for pupils from other language communities?
 - Are they able to bring an equality based, multilingual, multicultural approach into all aspects of the curriculum as well as the learning and teaching process, even within a system which separates language groups?
 - What steps will South East European University take in order to maintain its policy/ethos and language programs and identify sufficient funds and human resources in order to sustain and further develop its flexible language policy ?
 - Will national politicians and policy makers consider current research and the university's model, its successes and challenges, so that future education policy can be helped by our solutions? Will they support this with funding?
 - Could the Ministry of Education and School Directors consider, where resources allow, pilot schemes to: offer pupils 'mixed' English language classes, using the most appropriate teacher regardless of language community; offer targeted training for staff in the local languages they do not speak or wish to improve; offer more training to staff in English language; implement as policy all Macedonian pupils learning Albanian in areas where there is a large Albanian population?
 - Can policy makers and senior managers in other educational institutions, including at higher education level, bring an equality based, multilingual, multicultural approach into the whole institution, structures, policies, procedures and operation with commitment and vision demonstrated from the national political and ministry bodies?
 - In regions which face a similar focus on minority language entitlement, and the preservation of separate cultures, are policy makers able to develop strategies which combine multilingualism with multiculturalism, mutual understanding and social cohesion?

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Appendix 1



UNIVERSITETI I EJK
ЈИЕ УНИВЕРЗИТЕТ
SEE UNIVERSITY

South East European University,
Ilindenska bb, 1200 Tetovo, Macedonia

Research Survey *May 2008*

Mother Tongue (Albanian, Macedonian, Turkish, Roma, other)

Your secondary school (name and town)

At my secondary school, I studied a/some subject(s) together with pupils from other ethnic/language groups, for example, a foreign language.

Yes No If yes, what subject _____

Please answer the following questions by choosing one of the answers **SA** (strongly agree) **A** (agree) **U** (undecided) **D** (disagree) **SD** (strongly disagree) by marking the appropriate box with X:

		SA	A	U	D	SD
1	At SEEU, I hear or use languages other than my mother tongue more than at my secondary school.					
2	I value being in class with people from different ethnicities.					
3	I am interested in learning more about the language of my colleagues from other communities.					
4	I don't mind if my language teacher has a different mother tongue than my own.					
5	I can only benefit by knowing more languages.					
6	I have more contacts with people from different language groups since I started studying at SEEU.					
7	I have made more friends with people from different language groups since I started studying at SEEU.					
8	I listen to my colleagues from the other culture(s) with interest when they talk about their customs and tradition					
9	I think it is better to work in mixed classes because then we can make decisions together that are better for all of us.					
10	I have realized that no matter to which culture (language group) we belong to, we have many things in common.					
11	I would be happy to teach in a mixed class after I graduate.					
12	I don't mind working in an environment where languages other than my mother tongue are spoken.					
13	Language classes can be a place where students of different cultures and ethnic groups can work together successfully.					
14	SEEU is a good example of how trust and mutual understanding among students of different language/ethnic groups can be promoted.					
15	Secondary schools (if they have the conditions) should follow SEEU's model of organization of foreign language classes.					

THANK YOU!

Appendix 2



SEEU and the use of a 'Flexible Language Policy' with Albanian, Macedonian and English – Research Interview Survey, June 2008

South East European University Mission statement and aims

- be open to all on the basis of equity and merit regardless of ethnicity
- To contribute to the use of the Albanian language in higher education
- To promote inter-ethnic understanding
- To ensure a multilingual and multicultural approach to teaching and research
- To develop its teaching programs with a broad international and European perspective

The use of 3 languages at SEEU...	Yes/ agree	No/ Disagree	Comment
promotes academic excellence			
promotes a multilingual/multicultural institution			
supports the idea of a broad EU perspective			
promotes a model of inter-community respect and co-operation			
promotes a model of learning which could be used in schools/universities			
is actively promoted by me in my role and work			
is adequately resourced through budget allocation			
is adequately resourced with appropriately skilled staff			
is expensive and unsustainable			
causes mis-communication and lack of clarity			
highlights differences and divisions between language communities			
has no relevance to the academic reputation of the university			

Key Achievements and how to maintain and develop these	
Key challenges and how this have been or could be improved	
Any other comment	

IGNATIUS INDUCTION AND GUIDANCE OF NEWLY APPOINTED TEACHERS IN EUROPEAN SCHOOLS

Hans van der Linden, Marco Kragten, Ton Koet
Regionale Opleidingsschool West-Friesland
Instituut voor de Lerarenopleiding, Universiteit van Amsterdam

Introduction.

In this paper we will present the first results of the IGNATIUS Comenius Multilateral project²⁵. In the introduction we will give a description of the project, the participating countries and partners. In the second part we will report on the first meeting and focus on the results of our study of the models of guidance and induction. We will compare the extent of the collaboration between the partners concerning teacher training. Finally we will try to describe which “intercultural” challenges we will be facing in the next two phases of our project.

IGNATIUS is the acronym for *induction and guidance of newly appointed teachers in European schools*. The aim of this project is to improve Induction and Guidance of Newly Appointed Teachers. That induction and guidance are in need of improvement is evident. Although a lot of young, newly appointed teachers in the Netherlands, for example, think that teaching is the best job in the world, 25% of them drop out from the teaching profession within the first five years of their careers as teachers. The dropout percentage in England, Germany and France is also relatively high. This is especially a problem in the Netherlands because the need for new teachers will be extremely great during the next ten years (AOB onderwijjsbond, 2008).

The IGNATIUS project is a so-called Comenius Multilateral project; the aim of Comenius action within the Life Long Learning Programme is to improve the quality of education in European schools. The overall aim of this project is to improve the continuous professional development of teaching staff, with a special focus on novice teachers. Target groups are (novice) teachers and those involved in their guidance and induction.

The following main activities were envisaged:

1. Development and try-out of a model of guidance and induction for every pair of institutions involved in the project.
2. Development and piloting of an in-service training course adapted to the needs of six different European educational and teacher training systems.

We expected a contribution to the improvement of induction and guidance of (newly appointed) teachers in European schools.

An innovative feature of this project is the consistent use of the tandem of teacher education institute and school. The six teacher education institutes work systematically with the six training schools in the development of an in-service training course for coaches in the schools in the guidance of teacher trainees and newly appointed teachers. The Graduate School of Teaching and Learning of the University of Amsterdam already had experience with such training courses for coaches and with tandems but in some other European countries this concept was not yet very well known.

The Dutch tandem consists of the Graduate School of Teaching and Learning of the University of Amsterdam (ILO) and the Regional Training School West-Friesland (ROWF). There are also tandems in Copenhagen, Bremen, Budapest, Faro and Turin. The Graduate School of Teaching and Learning of the University of Amsterdam has for years worked with Landesinstitut fuer Schule, the Eotvos Lorant University, the University of the Algarve and the University of Turin, in previous projects such as “European Curricula in New Technologies and Language Teaching”. The teacher education institute in Copenhagen is a new partner. In Appendix 1 a further description of the partners involved in this project can be found.

²⁵ For further information about this project, please, contact the coordinator: a.g.m.koet@uva.nl.

The first phase of this two-year project ended in June 2008. The project is divided in four phases. The start was in December 2007, and it will end in November 2009. The first phase was devoted to developing flexible models of guidance and induction that were appropriate for the six participating countries. In the course of the development of these models interesting observations about the differences and similarities between the various teacher education systems could be made.

In this phase there was a first meeting with all the participants, a description of which can be found below. The second phase runs from July 2008 up to December 2008. In this phase we will have to develop a beta (definitive) model of induction and guidance. And following the outcome of the models we will have to make plans for an in-service training for coaches of newly appointed teachers. The second meeting was organised by the German partners and took place in Bremen in September.

The third phase will run from January 2009 to May 2009. In this phase we will have to implement and evaluate a final version of the in-service training. The third meeting will be held and organised in Copenhagen.

The last phase runs from June 2009 to December 2009. Here we must deliver the revised versions of the Model of guidance and induction and the definitive and externally evaluated in-service training course. The last meeting will be an international conference on the subject, and will be held and organised in Faro, Portugal, in September 2009.

Analysis of models of guidance and induction in pre- and IN-service teacher education.

In the first phase of the Ignatius project the six tandems were asked to describe the models of pre- and in in-service teacher education in their countries. This part of the paper is an analysis of these descriptions.

PRE-SERVICE

Structure and context

The structure and context of the various teacher education courses are shown in Table 1.

	NL	DE	DK	PT	IT	HU
Duration of teaching education course	LSL: 240 ECTS USL: 60 ECTS	≈90 ECTS	LSL ¹ : 240 ECTS USL ² :72 ECTS	90-120 ECTS	120 ECTS	150 ECTS
Context of teaching education course	LSL:University College (B.Ed) USL:Postmaster	Postmaster	LSL:University College (B.Ed) USL:Postmaster	Master	Postmaster	Master
Time spent on educational and subject theory/teaching practice	LSL: USL:30 ECTS/30 ECTS	≈11 ECTS/ 25+ ECTS	LSL:≈205 ECTS/ 35 ECTS USL: 36/36	49/41 ECTS	≈85/35ECTS ³	120 ECTS/ 30 ECTS
Model of teaching education course	LSL: Concurrent USL:Consecutive	Consecutive	LSL:Concurrent USL:Consecutive	Consecutive	Blended, but mostly consecutive (subject + Teaching Education course)	Concurrent

Table 1: Structure and context of teacher education courses leading to a secondary teacher certification in Germany, Denmark, Hungary, Italy, the Netherlands and Portugal.

¹ Lower secondary school

² Upper secondary school

³ According to old model before the educational reform 2008.

In the Netherlands there are two types of teacher education courses. A trainee can follow a University College (Hogeschool) course that leads to a Bachelor of Education degree, which allows graduates to teach at the lower secondary level. This is a four-year concurrent course in which the amount of teaching practice is gradually built up from 10% in the first year to 50% in the final year. The concurrent postmaster course leads to a license to teach at the upper secondary level. The course has a duration of one year, of which about 50% is teaching practice. Both teacher education courses are based on the seven job profile competences formulated by the national Board of Professional Job profiles for Teachers (SBL) (SBL, 2004).

In Germany future teachers are trained and employed by the teacher education institute (in this project LIS) after they have finished their University degree. In the preceding master course the future trainees are educated in two subjects and educational theory (like pedagogy and psychology) and there is some teaching practice. The duration of the teacher training is 18 months (for trainees starting from May 2008). It is a consecutive postmaster training course, in which trainees work at school for at least 12 hours a week. They receive about five hours of educational training a week at the LIS (about 11 ECTS). They also have to work on various assignments by the LIS and take part in all the other activities at school besides teaching. The training is done by the trainers from the institutes and coaches from the schools. The curriculum is competence-based, which is stipulated by the Kultusministerkonferenz (KMK), a committee of all the secretaries/ministers of the 16 German states.

In Denmark there are two types of teacher education courses: a four-year University College course that leads to a license to teach in lower secondary classes and in primary school and a postmaster course that leads to a license to teach two subjects in upper secondary classes. The University College course is concurrent with a shift of focus towards more teaching practice at the end. Both courses have competence-based curricula.

The Portuguese system is in a transition of models. The model described is for trainees who started their training in September 2007. Portugal has a concurrent master teacher education course which, depending on the subject, has a duration of 1 ½ to 2 years. Trainees can only enter this course after finishing a three-year bachelor course in Basic education and a 1 1/2 year Master of education course. During the Basic Education course they already get about 30 ECTS of educational practice and in the master course another 41 ECTS. During these courses they also have to study educational and subject theory. If they want to teach in Basic Education (3rd Cycle) or Secondary Schools they must have a university degree in a specific subject (History, Mathematics, etc.) and also a master's degree in Education. The curriculum is not competence-based but divided in six training components as prescribed by the Decree-Law no. 43/2007. The teacher's job profile is described in terms of skills with several aspects (social, ethical, involvement, etc.)

In Italy the teacher education course is a consecutive postmaster training. A trainee can enter this course after a three-year bachelor course and a two-year master course in the subject matter. The curriculum is partly based on the competences described for the teacher's job profile.

Hungarian teacher education will be a concurrent University master course, which has a value of 150 ECTS. Trainees can only enter this course after a compulsory three-year bachelor course in two subjects. The curriculum of the master course consists of two modules of 40 ECTS for each subject, an education theory module of 40 ECTS and a teaching practice module of 30 ECTS. The master course is competence-based.

In all the countries concerned the educational institutes are responsible for the teacher training courses.

According to D.W. Maandag et al. (2007, p. 152) learning at the workplace is an important development in teacher education. To organize learning in the workplace there must be collaboration between the teacher training institute and school. The learning environment is very important but also the way learning at the workplace is organized; especially in the way the responsibilities and tasks are divided between the institute and the school (Buitink & Wouda, 2001, p.153).

Another interesting aspect of this project is that an earlier study has shown that a close connection between theory on teaching and practice in the teacher-training course increases the chances of success in the first part of a teacher's career. (Houtveen, Versloot & Groenen, 2006, p. 14) This study also suggests that a slow(er) transition from teacher education to teaching job increases the chances of success. A close collaboration between the teacher training institute and the school is of the utmost importance.

Buitink and Wouda (2001) have described five models of collaboration between schools and institutes with reference to teacher education. The forms of collaboration described vary from school as workplace and work placement setting to actual training by the school. These models are presented in table 2.

A: school as a workplace (work placement model).
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B: school with a central supervisor. (co-ordinator model).

C: trainer in the school as a trainer of professional teachers (partner model).
D: trainer in the school as the leader of a training team in the school (network model). School is partly responsible for course curriculum. There is a team of trainers who have been trained in training methods.
E: training by the school (training school model).

Table 2. Models of cooperation; adapted from Buitink and Wouda (2001)

We classified the degree of collaboration between the tandem partners in the present project in accordance with these five models. The outcome of this classification is presented in table 3.

	NL	DE	DA	PO	IT	HU
Training Institute	UVA Graduate School of Teaching and Learning	LIS Landesinstitut für Schule in Bremen	KDAS Copenhagen Day and Evening Teacher Training College	U Algarve Departamento Educacao	U de Torino Department of Literature and Philology	Eötvös Loránd University Budapest
School	ROWF	Kippenberg Gymnasium State secondary school	Rosenlundskolen i.e. a comprehensive school covering both primary and lower secondary school	Faro Primary School number 1	UTS - Teacher Centre for education of the non-native speakers Torino	Madách Imre Secondary School
Classification	Model C, and model D in some aspects.	Model C aspects of D	Model B aspects of C	Model A aspects of B	Model A with aspects of B	Model B with aspects of C

Table 3. Classification of the tandems in accordance with the model of Buitink and Wouda.

There is not one tandem where students do not learn at the workplace. There is also a lot of difference between all the tandems but in all the countries there is development. The main part of the collaboration between the partners focuses on organizing the workplace for the students. The Dutch tandem is developing more and more into a partnership, and several parts of the institute curriculum are organized and delivered in the school by a team of institute and school trainers.

Establishing the curriculum

All countries have divided their curriculum between theory at the institute and practice at the schools. Especially the institutes seek an alignment between these two, but there are no countries where theory is structurally integrated and taught at schools. There are, however, some pilots, like in the Netherlands, where theory is delivered at the local schools where trainees work so as to provide for a more custom made education. In all countries the teacher training institutes have the final say about the division between theory and practice.

The Danish and Dutch concurrent teacher training courses have a shift of focus from theory to practice. As most students are fairly young when they enter these courses they start their teaching practice with observations and guided lessons. During the course trainees get more responsibility each year. The German, Hungarian, Portuguese and Danish consecutive courses have no shift of focus. Students have an equal distribution of theory and practice throughout the course. In Hungary the practice period is placed in the last year. In Italy there is some institute-based practice during the first year, the second year being more practice-oriented.

Examination regulations

The examination regulations for each participating country are shown in Table 4.

	NL	DE	DK	PT	IT	HU
Classroom assessment	Concurrent: Yes Consecutive: No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

Theory assessment	Concurrent: Yes Consecutive: Depends on institute	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Portfolio assessment	Yes	Yes	Concurrent: Yes Consecutive: No	No	No	Yes

Table 4. Classroom, theory and portfolio assessments in Germany, Denmark, Hungary, Italy, the Netherlands and Portugal

In the Dutch concurrent course there are three major classroom assessments. These assessments are done by two trained assessors, one from the institute and one from the field (but not from the school where the trainee works). Both assessors have the same degree of responsibility. All University Colleges have theoretical exams in subject methodology and general didactics and pedagogy and use portfolios to determine if the student has obtained the required level of competences. All postmaster courses of the several institutes are portfolio-based. There are several moments during the course where a teacher from the institute observes a lesson but these are not assessments. The several stop-or-go moments are all based on the entire portfolio, which includes the lesson observations by the institute tutor, the coach, video fragments, etc. Some postmaster courses have theoretical exams; others integrate theory in portfolio assignments.

In Germany there are two classroom assessments, one for every subject. The assessments are carried out by the teachers from the institute. The educational theory is tested in the university by means of a knowledge test but theory is also tested and integrated in the portfolio (application of theory). During the postmaster course there is no theoretical exam but theory is integrated in papers for classroom performance, the thesis and the oral exams.

The Danish students who take the concurrent course have a classroom assessment every year. This assessment is done by the Head Teacher of the practice school, who has full responsibility. The classroom assessment for the consecutive course is also done by the Head Teacher but the responsibility is shared with advisers from the school and the institute. Both courses have theoretical exams; only the students from the concurrent University College course are also assessed, to a certain extent, by means of a portfolio.

The classroom assessment of the Portuguese course is done by teachers of the institute, the coach and the school coordinator. The students are not assessed by means of a portfolio.

At the end of each year of the Italian teacher training course there is a classroom assessment. The students also have theoretical exams. There are no portfolio-based assessments.

In Hungary the student is assessed by his or her coach after the teaching practice period. The final responsibility for the assessment lies with the University. The final assessment is based on a portfolio, which includes the assessment by the coach. Theory is integrated in portfolio assignments and tested by means of a theory assessment.

Location of training activities and coaching methods

As mentioned above, the institute is the place where the theoretical part of the teacher training courses takes place; the teaching practice is done in school. All participating countries have a fairly strict division between these two. All institutes have about the same curriculum activities. In the school the training activities mainly consist of lesson observation with feedback by a coach and specific assignments set by the institute. At the institute there are workshops like intervision, supervision, tutored portfolio sessions (if applicable) and seminars about pedagogy, didactics and psychology. All countries claim that the philosophy behind the teacher training is based on the concept of reflective practitioner (Schön, 1987).

In each country students are guided by a coach in the school in which they do their practice period. As can be seen in table 5, the amount of training these coaches receive varies a lot. In Germany the training for coaches is mandatory and has a duration of 25 hours. In Denmark the training is optional so some of the Danish coaches are trained and some are simply appointed by the Head Teacher of the schools involved. The courses lead to a diploma in coaching. Local authorities have decided to increase the total number of trained coaches considerably before 2012. The Hungarian coaches do not receive a

specific training but they are selected by the school administration from teachers with at least five years of experience. In the Netherlands training for coaches is optional. Coaches who work alongside the trainees in Portugal and Italy are not required to have any training. In Portugal there is, however, a new legal framework that states a preference for “teachers who have specialized training....”. Portuguese universities offer subject based training for teachers/coaches. In Italy coaches are usually experienced teachers or researchers with good publications.

All the countries make use of experienced teachers but only in Germany and, to some extent, in Denmark have the competences that coaches should possess been described.

	NL	DE	DK	PT	IT	HU
Are coaches trained?	Yes, optional, ≈3 ECTS	Yes, mandatory, ≈1 ECTS	Yes, optional, 20-60 ECTS ¹	Yes, optional	No	No

Table 5. Training of coaches in Germany, Denmark, Hungary, Italy, the Netherlands and Portugal¹ as advocated by The National Association of Local Authorities

Training and coaching roles in school and institute

All the countries have about the same roles for the guidance of teacher trainees. There are coaches (trained or experienced teachers), institute teachers and coordinators at both school and institute. Denmark, Germany, Italy and the Netherlands also make use of assessors. These assessors are responsible for the assessments as described earlier. In the Danish concurrent course the assessors are the coaches and the Head Teachers; in the consecutive course the assessments are performed by the Head Teacher and appointed advisers from upper-secondary schools. In Italy the assessments are done by the trainers from the institute; the coaches advise. The concurrent course in the Netherlands also makes use of assessments. As was stated above, these assessments, are done by two trained assessors, one from the institute and one who works in the field (but not from the school where the trainee works).

Practice in the classroom

The division between practical experience with and without guidance is very different between the participating countries. In Germany the trainees teach around 630 lessons, of which about 50-60 are in the presence of a coach or a tutor from the institute. A student in the concurrent course in Denmark teaches about 300 hours but the number of hours a coach is physically present depends upon the student's capabilities. The same principle goes for the Danish concurrent teacher education course. In Hungary all 30 practice hours, 15 for each subject, are in the presence of a coach. In Italy almost every hour is supervised as well. There are at least 150 hours of practice in the classroom. The concurrent course in the Netherlands has a model where student gradually gain more responsibility. Although the number of lessons taught independently is set at about 300-400, most of them in the final year, it also depends on the student's capabilities. The consecutive teacher education course in the Netherlands demands about 75-150 hours of independent teaching but again this also depends upon the student's progress.

Quality assurance

In Germany there is at least one institute in every federal state. Education is a federal issue and there is no real quality check for the institutes and the institutes' tutors.

The KMK (see above) is however trying to find common grounds for these institutes to build on. Denmark and the Netherlands have a formal system of accreditation and a successive informal evaluation as well. The quality assurance also applies to tutors of the Danish institutes but the quality of the coaches in both countries is less warranted, as training and qualification are not mandatory. Portugal intends to create an Accreditation Agency that is controlled by the Ministry of Education. In Hungary the institutes are formally evaluated by an independent committee, nominated by the Ministry of Education. The quality of the trainers is checked by several criteria. The Italian institutes are also controlled by the Ministry of Education. The training schools are accredited and the quality of these schools is informally assured. They are chosen for their excellent teachers, who often belong to research groups.

IN-SERVICE

Most countries participating in the Ignatius project do not have an official compulsory induction period for newly appointed teachers. Only Hungary has a mandatory three-year induction period for guidance and assessments. There is a mandatory in-service didactical training course. The newly appointed teachers have to attend a lesson by a colleague once a week with an hour of discussion and reflection afterwards. They also get two hours of consultation by a coach. In Germany there is also a three-year in-service training (the third phase) but only the first meeting is compulsory. A lot of in-service courses for newly appointed teachers are offered. Newly appointed teachers have to prove that they have spent 30 hours of self-development a year, which is checked by the Headmaster. Italy, Portugal and the Netherlands have a probationary period of one year. After this period it is decided if the newly appointed teacher will obtain a permanent job contract.

As a lot of countries have to deal with a great number of teachers who leave the job early, keeping new teachers in the profession is a very important item. In the Netherlands and Denmark, where the shortage of new teachers is a severe problem, there are a lot of initiatives for guidance during the induction phase. It very much depends on the school where the teacher is employed how much guidance and extra time for further professional development he or she gets. Most initiatives, and also

the induction periods in Hungary and Germany, consist of training in normal school matters. The use of a personal coach is very popular and sometimes there are supervision and/or intervision sessions especially for newly appointed teaching staff. Most training is an extension or a repetition of matters covered in the initial teacher training.

Conclusions.

This projects deals specifically with the guidance of newly appointed teachers. It has already shown how different that guidance is in the different countries. It also shows the importance of a good system of guidance in all countries.

One of the key features of the project is working in tandems. For some countries this is quite new, and in other countries this is developing. Table 2 shows that in the Netherlands, Germany and Denmark the collaboration is developing in the direction of a partner or network model (C or D). In Italy, Portugal and Hungary the collaboration mostly focuses on organizing the workplace (model A).

The comparison and classification in Table 3 show some interesting differences. But also leaves enough for an interesting dialogue. What issues in the Buitink and Wouda model are indispensable? What is possible in the different countries? And on what ground? Looking at the Dutch tandem and their partnership, what is useful, and possible, for other partners to develop? On the other hand looking at the problems the Dutch schools are facing, e.g. the shortage of teachers, is the model of collaboration supportive in facing this problem? What can the Dutch tandem learn from the other tandems / countries where there is no shortage?

The challenge is to create one viable model of guidance and induction resulting in a transnational training course. Which shared belongings are present to make this a success? All the partners have a structure of induction and guidance. All the partners see the necessity of developing these structures further. All the partners use the workplace model in training student teachers. Although all the partners see the necessity of developing a system of guidance and induction, it is only in Hungary that it is mandatory for three years for newly appointed teachers. All the partners use classroom assessments. Portfolio assessments are used by most of the partners, and are under development by the others.

There is a difference in the time spent in the schools by trainees. Especially in Hungary and Italy students spend less time in the schools before starting as teachers than in the other countries.

We think that the differences are an interesting start for an intercultural dialogue, the shared belongings a chance for success.

This project may well ensure that there will be a more joint assumption in creating an international model, delivering key points for the guidance and induction for newly appointed teachers, not only for the participating partners, but also for other European schools and institutes.

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Appendix 1

DESCRIPTION OF THE PARTICIPATING TANDEMS

The Netherlands

The Graduate School of Teaching and Learning of the University of Amsterdam (ILO) is responsible for post-graduate teacher training, research and in-service training. Some 300 trainees receive their training annually. ILO has developed a methodology and has worked with this methodology. Three aspects are of particular importance:

1. Systematic methodology in reflection, intervision and supervision
2. Continuous co-operation with teaching staff in placement schools. Guidance is not only given to trainees but also to newly qualified teachers.
3. The use of new technologies for this guidance
 - a. An electronic learning environment for guidance from a distance
 - b. Streaming video via Internet
 - c. A digital portfolio.

The Graduate School of Teaching and Learning of the University of Amsterdam has considerable experience in European projects, both as partner and coordinator

The 'Regionale Opleidingschool Westfriesland' (ROWF) is a consortium of eight organisations, i.e. 13 schools for secondary education and three teacher education institutes. They all work together in the education and training of (future) teachers. Part of the training institutes' (pre-service) programs is delivered in the schools (in-service) and all the students are guided by experienced teachers, who are trained to guide the trainees. An important part of this guidance is competence based learning by the trainees. So the guidance becomes more than subject oriented guidance. The ROWF tries to make the trainees become a real part of the teams in the schools, the students performing tasks other than only teaching, so that the schools can directly take advantage of the expertise present at the institutes. Teachers who guide the students will also be responsible for the guidance of newly arrived teachers in the schools.

Germany

The teacher training department of the LIS has about 120 trainers for 450 teacher trainees. They provide training in all fields of teaching at public and private schools in Bremen. Their expertise, apart from that in all the subjects taught at all forms and levels of schools (also vocational schools), lies in the training in IT-skills and modern methodology.

Kippenberg-Gymnasium, Bremen, is a secondary (grammar) school in the centre of Bremen with 90 teachers and about 1100 students being taught from class 5 to 13 (12). It provides a general education preparing for university entry, in addition it offers profiles for students especially interested in art, music, sciences, languages. It is a teacher training school with 20 trainee teachers at present who are trained at this public school and at the "Landesinstitut für Schule", its partner organisation.

Denmark

KDAS, Copenhagen Day and Evening College of Education, is first and foremost a teacher education college. The teacher education course lasts 4 years and qualifies for the -Danish "Folkeskole" (Primary and Lower Secondary, 1st - 10th year of school). The college also offers in-service teacher training. The college has about 1900 students and about 100 academic staff members.

Rosenlundskolen (The Rosenlund School) is Denmark's largest Folkeskole (i.e. a comprehensive school covering both primary and lower secondary school). The Rosenlund school has 854 pupils and 71 teachers.

It is situated in the greater Copenhagen area in the municipality of Ballerup, which means that the school is also part of a new project, the so-called "Ballerup Parcel Project" pertaining to the induction and guidance of newly appointed teachers within that area.

Portugal

The University of the Algarve was founded in 1979. The number of students adds up to nearly 10,000 while the teaching staff amounts to some 650 and the non-teaching staff totals 455.

The main study areas are: Humanities, Languages, Heritage, Economics and other Social Sciences, Management, Tourism, Marine Sciences, Fisheries, Environment, Natural Sciences, Engineering, Education.

The University of the Algarve carries out teaching and research in various domains and has taken part in numerous transnational partnerships and projects, within and outside the European Union.

The Primary School number 1 has about 450 students, aged between 6 and 11 years old, and 20 teachers working with 20 classes. It is the biggest primary school in Faro and has cooperated with The School of Education of the University of the Algarve in various areas. The school has received trainees from the Primary Education degree and has been responsible for supervising their teaching practice over the past five years.

Italy

The University of Turin is one of the largest Universities in Italy with 12 Faculties among which are Foreign Languages, Literature and Philosophy, Science of Education. It is involved in a lot of European projects.

In the last few years it has been part of the group of Universities that, in cooperation with the Ministry, prepares didactic material for the training of the teachers and delivers courses on line in which 800 teachers throughout Italy participate.

UTS - Teacher Centre for education of the non-native speakers Torino is a Centre of information, documentation and support for the training of teachers of Italian as a second language and of intercultural education.

The centre supports the school networks that operate for the education of foreign students. It collaborates for carrying out:

- training and action-research courses for in-service teachers working in schools with a high number of non-native speakers;
- laboratories (ateliers) and workshops for initial training teachers or new employees;
- work groups on particular subjects (for instance legislative innovations on immigrants).

It cooperates with the University of Turin in realizing the integrated e-learning project of the Ministry of Education "Italiano L2: lingua di contatto, lingua di culture" and the project "Conoscere l'italiano per studiare". The Centre is linked with more than 50 schools in Piedmont, which are involved in the teaching experimentation of Italian as a second language. Every year it organizes training modules and placements for an average of 200 teachers.

Hungary

Eötvös Loránd University is the largest university in Hungary. The Faculty taking part in the project is the Faculty of Humanities. Its main profile is education in subjects related to human culture and languages. The curriculum of language majors includes classes about culture, literature, history, film and other subjects. In addition, a large number of students choose to work for a teaching diploma. The teaching curriculum includes methodology in the student's future subjects as well as general psychological and pedagogical subjects. In their final (4th or 5th) year, students have their teaching practice in one of the training schools belonging to the university or in a placement school. Here they work under the guidance of experienced teachers, and are also coached by their respective university departments in collaboration with the schools. After graduation newly qualified teachers often remain in touch with these training institutes, although neither the university nor the schools offer formal post-training courses.

Madách Imre Secondary School is a state secondary school providing 4 and 5 year tuition. Besides courses in general subjects, the school has a special profile of foreign language teaching. English and German are the most widely taught languages at several levels in 3-6 lessons a week. Many of the teachers of the school are trainee teachers, coaching students of languages at university. The results of the evaluation of the work of trainees are included in their final grades.

Appendix 2 Concepts and definitions

Guidance =	Supervision of student-teachers or newly arrived teachers by qualified lecturers or coaches. Guidance is broadly defined and may consist of learning activities, study-tasks, tutor sessions, lectures, portfolio tasks, intervision sessions etc. Guidance activities may take place at the institute or at the workplace.
Induction =	<p>First definition of induction: Start of career as a qualified teacher. Period after finishing or during education (2 or 3 years)</p> <p>Second definition of induction: This comes from the biological definition of induction. For example: When you put cells from a chicken leg, where there don't grow feathers, on a chicken body, where there grow feathers, the leg cells learn from the body cells and will grow feathers. The definition here means: Cells (teachers) learn from the environment and influence each other.</p> <p>Function of induction is 2-fold 1. Adjust to the surroundings, supporting to grow / to learn (coach). (chicken cells). Boss: hiring the right people (assessor + manager)</p>
Pre-service =	students studying at university or in a teaching education institute in order to become qualified teachers in Secondary Education
In-service =	newly arrived teachers working at a workplace with or without a degree (maybe with a lower degree or not another degree) studying in order to get the appropriate qualifications and/or teaching experience.
Concurrent model of Teacher Education =	The curriculum is integrated: a student studies a subject (e.g. History, French, Biology) and studies theory of teaching, pedagogy etc. in one curriculum. Teaching practice is also part of this curriculum.
Consecutive model of Teacher Education =	The curriculum is not integrated: a student studies a subject (e.g. History, French, Biology) and obtains a degree. This curriculum is usually not oriented at the teaching profession (no pedagogy or teaching theory involved). After the degree a student applies for post master course: a Teaching Education course.

Appendix 3a Model 1: pre-service

Themes	Relevant questions
1. Structure and Context	<p>Please, describe the following, if applicable for the situation in your institute, state or country:</p> <p>a. Duration of the Teaching Education course?</p> <p>b. Degree awarded? (e.g. Master / Bachelor)</p> <p>c. Time spent practicing teaching at school and time spent learning at institute?</p> <p>d. Concurrent: integration of teacher education and subject education in one curriculum, or Consecutive: first training in subject matter, then a separate teacher education course.</p> <p>e. Who is responsible for training teachers? (e.g. University department; schools; regional authorities; separate institutes)</p> <p>f. What kind of collaboration models occur? A, B, C, D, E. (see separate hand-out)</p> <p>g. Is the curriculum competence-based?</p> <p>h. is the job profile of a teacher described in terms of competences?</p>
2. Establishing the curriculum	<p>If applicable, please describe:</p> <p>a. Is the curriculum divided between the partners (theory at institute; practice at schools)?</p> <p>b. Is there a shift of focus between theory and practice during the curriculum?</p> <p>c. Who determines the division? (institutes or schools?)</p>
3. Examination regulations	<p>a. Who has the final responsibility for the examinations? (e.g. federal or national government, institutes, schools)</p> <p>b. Who conducts the examinations?</p> <p>c. Is there an assessment of classroom performance and who determines the quality?</p> <p>d. Is there a theory (knowledge) assessment?</p> <p>e. Are students examined by means of a portfolio assessment?</p>
4. Location of training activities	<p>a. Where do training activities take place? (institute and/or school)</p> <p>b. What kind of training / guidance activities take place at school? (give examples)</p> <p>c. What kind of training / guidance activities take place at the institute?</p>
5. Philosophy, methods & competences	<p>Please describe (if applicable):</p> <p>a. what coaching methods are used (e.g. supervision sessions, intervision sessions, tutored portfolio sessions, video reflection)</p> <p>b. the philosophy of learning behind the coaching (e.g. in the NL the concept of reflective practioner is popular)</p> <p>c. are coaches trained and qualified as coach? (e.g. special in service training for coaches? diploma courses?)</p> <p>d. which competences are necessary for coaches?</p>
6. Training and coaching roles in school and institute.	<p>a. Describe the various roles of those involved in teacher education (e.g. coach, coordinator, trainer, lecturer, assessor)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - at school - at the institute. - <p>b. Regarding exchange between school and institute: do school functionaries perform tasks related to teacher education (e.g. coaching / training) at the institute?</p> <p>c. Vice versa: do instate functionaries perform tasks related to teacher at schools?</p>

7. Practice in the classroom	<p>a. What is the duration of practice (teaching) in workplace?</p> <p>b. How many hours (per week and/or in total during the course) does a student have to practice teaching in the classroom?</p> <p>c. Regarding the division between practical experience with and without guidance:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - teaching time and duration of practice <u>under guidance/supervision</u> - teaching time and duration of practice more or less <u>independently</u>.
8. Quality assurance	<p>a. Is there some form of quality assurance? (e.g. formal system of accreditation, informal evaluation)</p> <p>b. Does quality assurance relate to the quality of educators in the schools and in the institutes?</p> <p>c. Is there a training course and / or a professional standard for trainers (at institutes and schools)</p>
9. Induction after obtaining a degree (if applicable)	<p>a. Is there any follow-up training after initial training?</p>

Appendix 3b Model 2: in-service

Themes	Relevant questions
1. Duration and intensity of the induction period.	<p>Describe the practice of induction of newly appointed teachers in terms of:</p> <p>a. Duration of induction period: Frequency and number of meetings / sessions.</p> <p>b. Required workload in the process in hours, apart from actual meetings:</p> <p>c. Compulsory? Is the induction period officially (government) regulated?</p> <p>d. Is it part of school rules and regulations?</p> <p>e. Is participation obligatory in order to obtain a job contract?</p> <p>f. Is this period concluded with an assessment for the job?</p> <p>g. Do participants obtain a qualification by successfully going through the induction course?</p>
2. Learning activities undertaken in the context of induction.	<p>Describe the following:</p> <p>a. Subjects and concerns covered (for example didactics, classroom management, school subject matter).</p> <p>b. Methods applied (for example training, individual coaching, group coaching).</p>
3. Facilitation for induction activities such as training and coaching.	<p>Are newly appointed teachers allowed to undertake these activities within their job appointment?</p>
4. Functions, parties and persons involved	<p>a. Looking at all people concerned with providing induction at school: who does what?</p> <p>b. If applicable, is coaching and assessment in different hands?</p>

<p>5. Philosophy, methods & competences</p>	<p><i>Please describe (if applicable):</i></p> <p><i>e. what coaching methods are used (e.g. supervision sessions, intervision sessions, tutored portfolio sessions, video reflection)</i></p> <p><i>f. the philosophy of learning behind the coaching (e.g. in the NL the concept of reflective practioner is popular)</i></p> <p><i>g. are coaches trained and qualified as coach? (e.g. special in service training for coaches? diploma courses?)</i></p> <p><i>h. which competences are necessary for coaches?</i></p>
<p>6. Parties involved in learning on the job (in-service or life long learning) and division of roles.</p>	<p><i>a. Is the teaching institute involved and in what way (for example train the trainer's course)?</i></p> <p><i>b. Are there other parties involved (commercial or non governmental)?</i></p>

Appendix 4. Summary of answers to the questions for each of the six tandems

	NL	DE	DA	PO	IT	HU
Training Institute	<i>UVA Graduate School of Teaching and Learning</i>	<i>LIS Landesinstitut für Schule in Bremen</i>	<i>KDAS Copenhagen Day and Evening Teacher Training College</i>	<i>U Algarve Departmento Educacao</i>	<i>U de Torino Department of Literature and Philology</i>	<i>Eötvös Lorán University of Budapest</i>
School	<i>ROWF</i>	<i>Kippenberg Gymnasium State secondary school</i>	<i>Roslundskolen i.e. a comprehensive school covering both primary and lower secondary school</i>	<i>Faro Primary School number 1</i>	<i>UTS - Teacher Centre for education of the non-native speakers Torino</i>	<i>Madách Imre Secondary School</i>
Question 1 Practical experience	Yes. More or less 50% of the students' time is spent in the school. (consecutive) or 30% (concurrent)	Yes. During 6 semesters students have 3 practices of which two at school.	Yes. 50% (consecutive) or 24 weeks in 4 years (concurrent).	Yes. Around 40 % of the students' time is spent in the schools.	Yes. In 3 years 400 hours of training in the school and 200 hours workshops in the concurrent model. In the consecutive model 200 hours of training and 100 hours of workshops.	Yes. Overall 15 credits are taught education related of which 30 (20 %) must be achieved in the last semester in the school
Question 2 Guidance by experienced teacher	Yes.	Yes. Each student has a coach / mentor.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	No
Question 3 coordinator	Yes.	Yes. There is a school co-ordinator.	Yes.	No	Yes	No
Question 4 shared responsibility for curriculum	Yes	Not yet. This is under construction.	Yes in the consecutive model. Only to a certain extend in the concurrent model.	No	No	No
Question 5 Team of trainers?	Partly, not every participating school has a team of trainers.	There is a group of coaches / mentors. Not a team.	A group but not a team.	No	No	No
Question 6 Communication between School training institute	Yes partly. Not as a team. Co-ordinators from the schools participate in meetings considering curriculum development and student guidance. Members from the institute have regular contact with schools and guides of students.	Not as a team of trainers. Communication between the co-ordinator and the institute.	Not as a team of trainers. But there is communication over student development.	Not as a team of trainers. There is communication by the institute and student tutors over the students work activity.	Not as a team. Communication concerning the workplace.	No. Not as a team of trainers. There is communication between school and institute on student development.
Question 7 Division of responsibility	Yes. There is a shared responsibility on work related items. School assessors play a role in student assessments. Final responsibility lies at the institute.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes. Responsibility lies at the institute.	Yes.	No. Responsibility lies at the institute.
Question 8 Location of training activities	Training activities concerning the practical parts of the curriculum are organized and given in the schools, in partnership with the institutes. Given by school trainers and a institute trainers.	Training activities in the schools are evaluation and observations of lessons by mentors and institute trainers. Some lessons are group wise evaluated.	Training activities in the schools mostly concern practical aspects. Lessons, evaluation etc.	Mostly at the institute.	Mostly at the institute	Almost entirely at the institute.

**Promoting intercultural dialogue among teachers of different
modern foreign languages.
The case of Trentino and its Continuous Professional Development
Programme (2004-2007 and beyond).**

Sandra Lucietto
Università di Bolzano
sandalucietto@virgilio.it

Abstract

What is intercultural dialogue? Does the concept only apply to understanding and respect across Country borders? How can you ensure understanding at the macro-level, when professionals find it difficult to “Talk To Each Other” (TATEO) within the same education system?

When the Provincial government asked Trentino Pedagogical Institute (IPRASE) to structure a “System” In-service Training Programme (TT) for teachers of all MFLs, a needs analysis was carried out with a comprehensive group of stakeholders.

One of the identified system needs was to enable teachers of different MFLs to “TATEO”: whilst working side by side in schools (nearly all Trentino schoolchildren study at least two MFLs), they were divided by a lack of mutual knowledge and by decades of political debates about the prominence of this or that MFL. They often failed to understand each other professionally, being self-contained in pedagogical approaches and methodological principles which differed according to the language taught. Teachers needed to see the possibility and the advantages of identifying common grounds and of pursuing shared aims to ensure improvement in students’ achievement. Only after establishing basic understanding and respect, and awareness of common aims in teaching any MFL, might they then work towards developing a much-needed coherent MFL curriculum (across languages and 6-19) rather than sticking to contrasting approaches, let alone to the tradition of “Let’s start again” when schoolchildren move to a new school level. All these needs were identified as prominent by the stakeholders, if the political agenda was to pursue effective plurilingualism in line with international recommendations.

The need to enable teachers to discover common identities and shared goals was therefore paramount. This was in sharp contrast with what had been the long-established TT tradition in the region, where teachers had always been offered training according to school level and MFL. Thus, TT Programmes were carried out in the target language; they pursued the dual goal of language development and methodological education; they focussed on language-specific (superficial) differences rather than on underground coherent approaches. The reasons for this were different in nature (not all being based on sound TT principles) but nobody dared question pragmatic rather than research-grounded practice. Thus, the status quo

of language-bound separate methodological traditions was never challenged, nor did teachers have any opportunities to get to know and respect each other across either school levels or languages taught.

That tradition ended with the ALIS (*Apprendimento delle Lingue Straniere*) Project, which shook all this off and opened up a new era of continuous professional development (CPD) through what may well be defined as “professional intercultural dialogue”: teachers were invited to attend CPD courses where all MFLs and school levels were represented; sessions were carried out in Italian; and teachers were invited to discuss their own TP in a supportive and non-judgemental environment.

The way the ALIS Project team pursued this “new age” and managed the attainment of this new intercultural dialogue will be illustrated, and examples will be given of how TT is progressing now that the ALIS Project is over.

PART I

1. Context and background

Trentino is an Autonomous Province in Northern Italy near Austria, whose Giunta Provinciale²⁶ (GP) has authority to take different decisions from the rest of Italy in many fields, including education. A modern foreign language (MFL) was introduced in primary education (6-11) from the age of 8 (Y3) in 1972. For political reasons²⁷, German was introduced as the only option. German was also the only MFL in lower secondary education (11-14). In the late 1980s some lower secondary schools were allowed to introduce a second foreign language, nearly always English.

In 1991, the rest of Italy introduced a MFL in primary education - mainly English. At that point, parents in Trentino insisted that their children as well should study English from the start. Their plea was driven by practical considerations, English being the current *lingua franca* in intercultural communication, tourism and trade. As a result, some primary schools were allowed to introduce English instead of German in the two main cities (Trento and Rovereto) in the early 1990s. That caused distress among the German teachers, who feared for their jobs and started a public debate against it. They asked teachers' Unions for help, who backed their position against parents.

In 1997, new foreign language teaching legislation was introduced in Trentino (LP 11/97), which stated that children should study German from Y1 in primary education, whilst from Y6 (grade 1 lower secondary) they were to add a second MFL²⁸. As a result of political compromise, the Law established the possibility of allowing some “exceptions” in favour of English in primary, but the permission depended on political discretion.

²⁶ The Cabinet of the Provincial Council

²⁷ Trentino belongs to the Autonomous Region which includes the bilingual (Italian-German) Autonomous Province of Bolzano

²⁸ In the rest of Italy a second mandatory MFL was introduced in lower secondary education only in 2004

2. A conflict with a long-lasting legacy

In 1998 Trentino local government mandated the Comitato Provinciale di Valutazione del Sistema Scolastico²⁹ (Comitato) to study the impact of LP 11/1997 in compulsory education (6-14), although its innovations had not been completely implemented. The extensive research study encompassed:

- three surveys: primary headteachers and foreign languages teachers' attitudes towards foreign language provision (questionnaires); parents' preferences as to foreign language provision in primary education (questionnaire, as telephone interviews);
- four standardised tests to assess the proficiency level of both MFL skills of 11- and 14-year-olds in the primary and lower-secondary school-leaving years (Y5 and Y8).

Trento University carried out the surveys, IPRASE³⁰ administered the tests (May 2000).

The results were disseminated at a Conference, and the research data and conclusions published in a Comitato *Report* (December 2000)³¹. The qualitative survey left everybody in no doubt that parents still wanted their children to start with English (73.9%) rather than German (25.8%) (Comitato, 2000:61). At the same time, IPRASE research highlighted that MFL levels of achievement varied greatly according to MFL starting age, geographical location and pupils' socio-economic status. The results in the two MFL were presented in a way that made them seem to be competing with each other for supremacy, and a lot of emphasis was put on the better scores of English both in primary and secondary education. In particular, the report highlighted the different role that the starting age seemed to play in learning English vs German: whilst there was a clear correlation between early start in primary and better levels of achievement in English, the situation was controversial in German, where it seemed as if an early start was never unequivocally positive, but rather indifferent or in some instances even counterproductive (Comitato, 2000:118;124).

The Conference was accompanied by bitter public debate. English vs German advocates were interviewed and/or sent letters to the two local newspapers (43 published documents in total over a period of four months). German primary teachers organised demonstrations; TV debates, counter-Conferences and meetings were organised by different parties with the aims of making their voices heard. Opposing standpoints were taken, and deep divisions emerged among the positions of politicians, parents and professional educators. All this lasted until February 2001, then cooled down, but bitterly re-emerged almost a year later (November 2001) when some new data were made public. Teachers of German and English took up arms against each other again, and parents still insisted for legislation to be changed on the basis of "scientific results". Professional relationships among English and German teachers, which had already been rather difficult for years, deteriorated rapidly and this had effects far beyond primary education (Lucietto, 2007a). From then on, many teachers started in most schools to be suspicious of one another, sometimes openly fought with each other professionally and almost acted as "separate bodies under the same roof"³².

²⁹ The special Committee established in 1991, responsible for the evaluation of the results in education in Trentino

³⁰ the Provincial Pedagogical Institute for Teacher Training and Educational Research

³¹ Comitato Provinciale di Valutazione del Sistema Scolastico, 2000, *Lingue straniere verso l'Europa*, Trento, Didascalie Libri

³² Since 2000, primary and lower secondary schools, which used to be separate schools under different Heads, have been joined

Finally in 2004, following the developments of parents' continuing demand and EU Recommendations about early individual plurilingualism³³, LP 11/97 was modified, introducing a second mandatory MFL (English) from Y3 (age 8) from September 2007³⁴. Table 1 summarizes the current situation as to MFL provision.

Table 1: Present-day MFL provision in Trentino

Primary	Lower secondary	Upper secondary
First MFL started in Y1 (German)	Two MFLs (English and German) all throughout	Different options in different paths (from one to three/four MFLs): – most Sts continue to study English and German; – some Sts drop German; – a certain number of Sts keep the two MFLs and add Spanish /French /Russian
Second MFL started in Y3 (English)		
(NB: a small minority of pupils study the two MFLs in reverse order)		

3. Making sense of diversity

As the results of the research studies were made public in 2000 and 2001, IPRASE educators responsible for MFL teacher education worked to make sense of the differences between the two languages highlighted by the research, including the controversial results in German with reference to early vs late start. One characteristic that was pointed out, which could contribute to explain this difference, was the two distinct traditions that distinguished the approaches to teaching English as a foreign Language vs German als Fremdsprache.

German had been the first (since 1962) and for many years the only MFL taught in lower secondary education, and had been introduced in primary education in 1972. Those were the days of the grammar-translation method, followed by the Audio-lingual Method and Situational Language Teaching (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). The emphasis was given to a grammatical syllabus in both school levels, e.g. the case system was introduced very carefully, one case at a time, and the next one only after all the children mastered the previous one without mistakes. Published teaching materials for Deutsch als Fremdsprache for the age group 11-14 were always scarce, and continued to be very traditional over the years, as publishers nationally and internationally were not encouraged to invest money in later productions by the small sales numbers. Published materials were not available at all for the 8-11 group in the early days, so young primary teachers beginning their teaching career as MFL specialists attended teacher training (TT) courses in different parts of the province, where they developed materials under the supervision of trainers provided and paid for by the German federal government. Most of the materials for primary classes (worksheets for children and notes for teachers) got

under one headship, in Istituti comprensivi (6-14). Hence, the reality of the phrase

³³ European Commission, 2003 Promoting Language Learning and Linguistic Diversity: An Action Plan 2004 – 2006, Bruxelles, 24.07.2003

³⁴ To the time of writing (August 2008), no Reform is being undertaken to introduce a second MFL in primary in the rest of Italy.

finalised in the second half of the 1970s. In the 1980s the German Federal Government withdrew the funding for German trainers, so the approach to teaching was never really revised and updated. In 2000, more than twenty years later, these materials were still used by the unquestioning teachers, and they are still in use nowadays (cf. Paragraph 7), by the teachers at the end of their professional life or by their younger colleagues, to whom they have been passed on.

English, on the other hand, had been introduced in some lower secondary schools in the 1980s, and in very few primary schools at the beginning of the 1990s (1992-93), when the Communicative Approach to language teaching was already well-established, and when a lot of attention was given internationally to Teaching English to Young Learners (TEYL), encompassing diverse and more recent approaches: Total Physical Response, The Natural Approach, Content-based Instruction, Task-based Learning (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). Many new quality materials for TEYL became available in the early 1990s, the “first generation” of textbooks published in the 1970s and early 1980s being swept away by international publications written by authoritative authors, and including a wealth of support materials. Newly organised training courses for English primary teachers encompassed a rather holistic approach to teaching and learning, and sessions included comparing and contrasting textbooks, and making sense critically of what the market offered. Following the contemporary development in training modes as well (Woodward, 1988, 1991, 1992), much course time was dedicated to what has since become known as Teacher Development (TD) (Underhill, 1988, 1989, 1991), with much less emphasis on training (i.e. rather mechanical instruction) and much more on professional reflection (Schön, 1983), developing an understanding of deep issues and constant attention to the “whole picture”, i.e. the place of English in a primary curriculum pursuing the development of a whole human being³⁵.

This as far as the professional situation at the time of the surveys, when it became apparent to the general public that teachers of German and English were by and large speaking two different professional languages which had little in common, and which might be partly responsible for the different results. The need was felt for a “new wave” of professional development when the next *Comitato Report* (2001) highlighted that if MFL provision in the Trentino education system could be given an overall “pass” mark, there was still room for a lot of improvement, especially in mountainous areas distant from the main centres, where a lot of inexperienced teachers accepted to go and an added difficulty encountered by pupils arose from high teacher turnover. The *Report* pointed out that after a wealth of training initiatives organised by the Italian Ministry for Education in the 1980s and early 1990s, especially for English teachers, no important and coherent Programmes for all in-service MFL teachers had been put in place by the Province of Trento after the Italian government delegated the responsibility for the management and education of all teaching staff to the *Giunta Provinciale* in 1997.

4. Taking care of system needs

The local government took seriously into account the conclusions contained in the *Reports* and mandated IPRASE (2002) to plan the first systemic and coherent set of

³⁵ The situation was well-known by the two IPRASE educators (one for German and one for English) who had organised courses for MFL teachers and were working in schools with them. The author herself, prior to working for IPRASE, had been the teacher educator of primary English teachers in the years 1991-93, and had worked alongside German trainers. The two different professional points of view and traditions had become apparent at trainers’ coordination meetings.

Actions ever pursued, aimed at “*the professional development of the teachers of MFL in the whole of Trentino, with specific reference to innovative approaches and methods*”. The **A l i s**³⁶ Project was developed in 2003 in consultation with a selected group of stakeholders (headteachers, MFL teachers of all languages, tutors and directors of vocational training, managers of Services and Offices of the Provincial Education Department).

One of the identified system needs was to enable teachers of different MFLs to *Talk To Each Other* (TATEO) (Dahl, 2000:53-79), as they were working side by side in schools but actively estranged by a decade of bitter political debates on the prominence of this or that MFL, which had led to lack of mutual knowledge and understanding. The MFL teachers in the stakeholder group honestly admitted that the two groups were not talking to each other professionally in an effective way, being rather self-contained in pedagogical approaches and methodological principles which differed according to the language taught. All the stakeholders agreed that teachers needed to see not only the possibility but also the advantages of identifying common grounds, and of pursuing shared aims to ensure students’ better achievement. Only after establishing basic understanding and respect, and awareness of common aims in teaching any MFL, could they then work towards developing a much-needed coherent MFL curriculum, across languages and 6-19. It was much hoped that if they could get to know each other professionally and share significant professional learning paths they might stop referring to contrasting approaches. It was also anticipated that the regrettable habit which still led teachers to start the curriculum all over again any time schoolchildren began the next school level might be abandoned in the medium to long run, if teachers reflected together upon continuity along grades, and started referring to the “can do” statements of the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR, 2001). All these needs were identified as equally prominent, if the Trentino political agenda was to pursue effective plurilingualism in line with international recommendations.

The need to enable teachers to discover common identities and shared goals was therefore paramount. This was in sharp contrast with what had been the long-established TT/TD tradition in the region, as teachers had always been offered separate training according to school level and MFL. TT courses had always been carried out in the target language, pursuing the dual goal of language development and methodological education. They had focussed on language-specific (superficial) differences rather than on underground approaches coherent with more up-to-date language learning theories and on seeing “the whole picture”. Nobody had so far dared question this pragmatic rather than research-grounded training practice. Thus, the status quo of language-bound separate methodological traditions had never been challenged, nor had teachers had any real opportunities to get to know and respect each other across school levels and languages taught.

That tradition ended with the **A l i s** Project (Lucietto, 2007b, Lucietto, 2008), which shook all this off and opened up a new era of continuous professional development (CPD) through what may well be defined as “professional intercultural dialogue”: in-service MFL teachers would be invited to attend CPD courses where all MFLs and school levels were represented and teachers worked together; to that aim, sessions

³⁶ Apprendimento delle LIngue Straniere

would be carried out in Italian and teachers invited to discuss their own TP in a supportive and non-judgemental environment. MFL Teacher Education (TEd) would be pursued following recent and authoritative scientific literature of the field, which sees as most effective for TD and system change not so much models of top-down “training”, where teachers are shown or taught what to do, but more flexible bottom-up models where the practicing teacher is, and acts as, a *reflective practitioner* (Schön, 1983). In these models the teacher learns by acting, reflecting upon her own practice, experimenting and further reflecting with the help of a supportive and non-judgemental peer group, and in so doing arrives at a more coherent and effective understanding and conceptualisation of her own pedagogical theory and teaching practice (Underhill, 1988; Richards and Lockhart, 1994; Richards and Nunan, 1990; Wallace, 1991; Richards, 1998; Ur, 1999; Woodward, 1996, 2004). It was with that literature and the concepts expressed by its authors in mind that the Actions aimed at TEd and TD would be organised.

PART II

5. Educating a new generation of teacher educators: working towards mutual understanding

On that basis, a second system need emerged immediately, i.e. the answer to the question: *Who educates the teachers for this “new age” of intercultural dialogue and mutual understanding?* There was only one practicing MFL teacher educator in Trentino in 2003, and the group of stakeholders did not see as appropriate to call in professionals from elsewhere: the teacher educators, as the teachers themselves, should be servicing teachers from different parts of Trentino, and their development path should mirror what they would help their colleagues go through when the CPD courses would start.

64 applied altogether to the posts. They were all experienced teachers of English (EN), French (FR), German (DE) and Spanish (ES). Most of the 22 that were selected (11 DE, 10 EN and 1 FR) worked from primary to upper secondary education, one in kindergarten and one in vocational training. Some withdrew during the project life due to unforeseen family or school commitments. After the end of the **A**lis Project (July 2008), 12 remain.

In order to allow the prospective trainers to go through an intense programme which was aimed at professional learning and change as well as at developing mutual knowledge, understanding and acceptance, they were offered a *5-month sabbatical period* (September 2004-January 2005), during which they attended TD modules in Trentino and abroad (6 weeks). The applied model contained a few innovative decisions. The first and most important ones were group composition and TD session language: in Trento, the teachers worked together as one group in Italian, irrespective of FL or school level. The Programme started with a residential module aiming at allowing them to get to know each other and start gelling as a group, creating the framework for the entire 5-month period and carrying out the first thematic module. After that, the teachers attended shorter weekly modules where they were engaged in mixed-language/school level *task-based* and *reflection* group activities. Meta-cognitive activities enabled them to reflect upon and discuss what they were learning

and the new light it cast on their established teaching practice. This way of working enabled them to really develop as *one group*.

The TD Programme in Trentino was complemented by two 3-week periods abroad during the winter months, to Austria and the UK respectively, according to their MFL. Procedures were carefully put in place in order not to lose the sense of belonging that the group had achieved: two Agencies were carefully selected, which had collaborated previously with each other. This undoubtedly contributed to their Trainer Development approaches being very similar. In either country, the tutors worked following the guidelines of “*a generative framework for designing training courses and sessions: conceptual frameworks for planning, and a rationale - not recipes, not fixed patterns, but flexible open sets of ways of formulating plans, looking at possible different starting points, and from there at permutations and re-combinations*”, as one of the tutors³⁷ put it, making reference to the literature that most densely and concisely represented the approach to trainer development the Agency had followed and applied (Britten, 1998; Ellis, 1986; McGrath, 1997; Schön, 1983).

The subdivision of the stay abroad into two periods of the same length, rather than only a long one, was another innovative choice, which enabled the two sub-groups to spend some time apart but not enough to develop separate group identities. Moreover, in the two weeks in between the stays abroad and after the two stays were over, they were able to share what they had experienced thanks to “sharing sessions” where they worked in mixed-language groups in order to acquaint each other with what they had done and to reflect on similarities and differences. This way of working was highly appreciated by the teachers, who underlined its effectiveness in contributing to cementing relationships and to learning from each other.

In December 2005, a three-day TD follow-up was organised with a tutor the teachers had never worked with before. That the Programme had reached its intercultural goals was splendidly summarised in the tutor’s words at the end of the three days: “*If I did not have the list in front of me with all your names, language and school level, I would not be able to say who’s who in terms of language specialism or of sector of education they represent*”³⁸.

Finally, as also trainer education (as well as TEd) is recognised as a continuous process of development that needs feeding and reflecting on training practice, in August 2007 the group was given the opportunity to spend two weeks working with one of the most authoritative teacher trainers in Europe, Tessa Woodward. By that time, nobody in the group even thought of saying that they wanted to go to the country whose language they represented: the process of mutual knowledge, understanding and acceptance had been completed.

6. Educating in-service MFL teachers to work with each other across different professional traditions and cultures

As hinted at in Paragraph 4, there was a fair amount of coherence between the way the trainers were educated and the approach to in-service teacher Continuous

³⁷ Interview by the writer with Alan Pulverness, the NILE Office at the University of East Anglia, Norwich, 5th July 2007, 9:00-10:00 am.

³⁸ Graziella Pozzo, *Formazione dei Formatori*, Trento, IPRASE, 15-17 December 2005

Professional Development (CPD), although the in-service teachers did not have the opportunity to go on a sabbatical period. The CPD Programme for them was organised in 27-hour modules (9 weekly 3-h meetings). Some innovative decisions produced a model that had never been tried before in Trentino or anywhere else in Italy. As such, it represented the organisational and methodological response to the perceived needs of the specific challenges of Trentino education system and its teachers, and was again developed in the light of the most authoritative and recent literature in the field (among others: Bailey, Curtis and Nunan, 2001; Edge, 1992; Freeman, 1998; Head and Taylor, 1997; Willis and Willis, 1996).

The first innovative organisational decision was the creation of *Trainer Teams* instead of the traditional “only trainer”: the **A**lis trainers planned and ran most CPD modules in pairs. The reasons were partly pragmatic (the trainers asked for a degree of coherence between their own training and their practice as trainers, as they had always been asked to work in small groups or in pairs during their own development Programme), partly, and more importantly, highly “political”: if the trainers were to be “living examples” of intercultural understanding and collaboration, what a better way of convincing the teachers-in-training that TATEO was possible than seeing two trainers representing two different languages working together as one team? The second innovative decision was related to the first: since the modules were open to teachers of all grades *together* (this being a third innovative element), the two trainers in each pair belonged to two different sectors of education (e.g.: an English upper secondary school trainer working with a German primary school trainer): a model for inter-language and inter-level cooperation which the teachers-in-training would hopefully pick up.

The main methodological pioneering decision was the direct consequence of what had already been decided at the planning stage in 2003. What was needed was a learning experience that would sow the seeds for changing attitudes and teaching practice. To achieve that aim, CPD modules were organised which were very distant from the traditional theme-based courses that had characterised any previous experience in Trentino: they were open-ended paths based on professional dialogue and sharing of professional practice. Groups were composed of teachers of all languages and all school levels /sectors *together*. The CPD was aimed at developing teaching skills but also at building mutual trust and respect across different entrenched professional traditions. Such modules are quite complex for teacher educators to run, as they risk teachers putting up fences if they feel challenged by too many new ideas and approaches, or are confronted with a sense of inadequacy. Trainers need to respond from week to week to the questions and problems posed by course participants, and as most of what happens in the sessions should take on board and develop from the participants’ own input, they cannot rely on what they have prepared beforehand. To carry out this challenging task, the presence of a peer trainer, who could act as a mirror, a critical friend, a companion with whom to engage in a professional dialogue at their own level, was vital.

This CPD approach was very new to the province: never before had anyone in Trentino dared put teachers of all languages and all school levels together in one room, nor revolve a whole course around reflecting on participants’ own practice. This level of innovation obviously caused some distress in some participants: there was some resistance to being in mixed-languages and mixed-level groups, to the

modules being in Italian, to the trainers not giving out “The Word” i.e. not telling what should/should not be done (Callovi, 2007), let alone say which method was “the best”. Almost 20 modules were run in three cycles over two years (2006-07), and it did happen that some participants left the modules after one or two meetings... some of them only to unexpectedly come back at the next round! The trainers had sometimes to cope with active resistance, even with some kind of passive aggression, but their efforts paid off, because end-of-course questionnaires were generally positive and encouraging: after the first “destabilizing” moments, participants did appreciate the trainers’ professional skills and the opportunity to get to know colleagues of other MFLs and of different school levels. Although Callovi was not convinced after the first year that TATEO was really a working reality for many yet, at least the seeds had been sown and the approach had not put too many teachers off.

PART III

7. Further developments

Now the **Alis** project is over (July 2008), having offered CPD courses in 2006 and 2007 that were completed by over 150 in-service MFL teachers. MFLs, however, continue to be a priority for the local government, and the project may soon be replaced with a new Programme. There is still so much to do, professional dialogue between the two groups of teachers is only in its infancy, and needs nurturing and reinforcing. No one thinks that all the problems have been solved, yet a new approach to TD has been suggested and applied with a degree of success, and is becoming more and more accepted by teachers as one of the possible options to choose from. From there we can go only further.

Not all the teachers that had enrolled to the CPD modules during the **Alis** project were able to attend sessions regularly, due to school or family commitments (when courses are not organised by the school, school activities and meetings take precedence over authorised TD attendance). Besides, the process of change is slow and sometimes painful, as it entails releasing what has become for the person-in-change some kind of professional “safety belt”, often against the fear of being judged inadequate. Generally speaking, the more a teacher feels or is made to feel inadequate, the more she will stick to her safety belt and actively fight change. Leaving behind an ineffective teaching practice habit is an act of courage that teachers can make once they feel valued and respected. To this unavoidable prerequisite for change the **Alis** trainers actively worked, and will continue to do so in the future.

So, the need is there for more TD activities, either in the form of courses organised centrally by the Provincial Education Department (PED), or on demand from schools. An example of the latter is the request from a Consortium that was formed in Spring 2008 among three Istituti Comprensivi in a Trentino valley. The leading-school Headteacher approached the author and commissioned her to organise a training programme to be run in the autumn, in the shape of three separate courses: one addressed to teachers of English, one to teachers of German (both primary and lower secondary in either case), and the third to subject teachers who are to help immigrant children learning Italian as a second language (ITL2). One of the specific objectives of the Headteacher was *to help primary German teachers abandon the worksheets he had been seeing around since he was a primary teacher himself 25 years ago*. The

author took notice of the requests, and contacted two of the **A**lis trainers and the person in the PED responsible for ITL2 TT Programmes. Sharing the view that any language learning and teaching experience belongs to a cross-curricular area known in Italy as “educazione linguistica”, they decided it was worth continuing along the lines of enabling teachers to *Talk To Each Other*, so at a meeting with the Consortium representative stakeholders they rather cautiously counter-proposed only one course, organised in common sessions for all teachers, to establish the basis for common principles, and separate ones, for MFL and ITL2 teachers respectively, when the need was there to take into account the specifics of teaching ITL2 rather than any MFL. To their surprise, their proposal encountered the agreement of all the parties involved. The course will be another “first time” for Trentino teachers: never before have MFL and ITL2 teachers attended a training course together, where they will have time to talk, explore common issues and agree on possible solutions. The German and English teachers will work in Italian with a team of two **A**lis trainers, whilst the ITL2 teachers will have one tutor from outside the region. The course will end with a common session where the participants will work in mixed groups and will reflect on their experience and on possible ways forward. The “TATEO Approach” is spreading!

8. Conclusion

Two Actions of a politically-mandated Project for “*the professional development of the teachers of MFL [...], with specific reference to innovative approaches and methods*”, have been illustrated, which have started to address the perceived needs of enabling intercultural professional dialogue among what had been before two almost separate language-specific groups of teachers. The Actions leave intangible but important “products” in the form of expertise and experience that go beyond the life of the project, and the beginning of a new and previously almost unheard of professional dialogue among teachers of different and often conflicting professional traditions. The twelve teacher trainers that best embody that professional dialogue remain as an available asset, and it is already a reality that future projects organised by individual schools or networks will see them in action again. It is hoped that they will also be employed in future Programmes mandated by the local government.

In its generative force for improving quality in the whole of the provincial education system the **A**lis Project as a whole will be evaluated more fully in the future. For the time being, we can only start considering some differences in the situation before and after its life. In the perceptions of the actors involved, these differences are already starting to emerge.

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Embedding Intercultural Competences in the Legal English Curriculum in Albania

Luljeta Buza

Law University “Luarasi”

Elida Tabaku

University of Tirana

Nikoleta Mita

University of Tirana

Abstract

The world is rapidly globalizing. The higher education in Albania is facing challenges posed by internationalization and cultural diversity. Graduates of Law Schools will need to be able to work with people that differ culturally. In addition, this is very important at a time when there is a high amount of mobility and when the European labor market is becoming ever more competitive.

The question is: *Do the law graduates get the needed intercultural competences through the Legal English Curriculum for their future profession?*

This paper is based on a research focused on examining the issues related to embedding intercultural competences in Legal English Curriculum in Albania.

In fact, in adopting language policy, law schools recognize the centrality of foreign language in academic, professional, social life and the language needs, which are generated by globalization.

The aim of this paper is to present the findings from analyzing how Legal English can be taught in order to develop not only language proficiency but intercultural competences as well.

The paper concludes in some recommendations related to the implementation of the principles of the intercultural competencies in the Legal English Curriculum, in improving the teaching of Legal English in order to develop the intercultural competences in parallel with linguistic skills, in improving the professional training of the lecturers in understanding and developing intercultural competencies.

Keywords: intercultural competencies, intercultural education, intercultural communication, cross-cultural competencies, multicultural education, Legal English Curriculum, cultural environment, environmental information, environmental awareness, intercultural [sensitivity](#)

Introduction

The recent acceleration in globalization has brought new areas into focus and it should be noted that the development of intercultural competencies concerns not

only domestic but also international encounters. Intercultural competencies are element of intercultural education. Intercultural education becomes especially important in an increasingly global and interdependent world; the ability to enter into a tolerant and respectful dialogue is a vital skill for nations, communities, and individuals. In this context, higher education institutions have an important role to play. Disciplines, teaching, student skills, research and knowledge itself can be developed and strengthened through an intercultural dialogue approach.

According to different surveys, institutions of higher education around the world face many challenges at the beginning of the twenty-first century including the tasks of remaining intellectually and culturally viable in a rapidly changing world. The internationalization of higher education has become one possible response to such challenges. The specification of this anticipated outcome of internationalization is often general and vague, with goals defined broadly that the institution will “become internationalized” or that a goal is to graduate “interculturally competent students” or “global citizens” without giving additional meaning to these terms.

Very few Albanian higher education programs address the development of interculturally competent students as an expected outcome. This lack is because Albanian universities show a weak commitment to internationalization, due to not well-developed curricula documents and due to the difficulty of identifying the specific components of this concept. No institution has designated methods for documenting or measuring intercultural competence.

This paper aims to analyze the main issues surrounding intercultural competencies and presents the recommendations for the embedding of intercultural competencies in the Legal English Curriculum. It is divided into three parts. Part I outlines the key issues related to the understanding of the “intercultural competences” in higher education in Albania. Part II analyzes teaching and learning approaches that develop intercultural communication competence in students in Legal English Curriculum. Part III presents the problems facing teachers in developing intercultural competencies in Legal English subject matter.

The understanding of the “intercultural competences” in higher education in Albania

The question: “what exactly is intercultural competence?” has been on the focus of debate by experts for decades and has generated its own share of contradictory and confusing definitions, due to the existence of a wide variety of academic approaches and professional fields attempting to achieve it as their outcome. Many terms are used including *global competence*, *global citizenship*, *cross-cultural competence*, *international competence*, *intercultural effectiveness*, *intercultural sensitivity*, to list a few.

Definitions have cited some of the same general components of intercultural competence such, as the ability of successful [communication](#) with people of other [cultures](#), empathy, flexibility, emotional competence, intercultural [sensitivity](#), cross-cultural awareness, and managing stress, while some definitions of intercultural competence specifically note other elements such as technical skills, foreign language proficiency, and situational factors.

According to another definition, “a person who is interculturally competent captures and understands, in [interaction](#) with people from foreign cultures, their specific concepts in perception, thinking, feeling and acting”.

Chen and Starosta (1996), in their definition of intercultural competence, stress that cross-culturally competent persons are those who can interact effectively and appropriately with people who have multilevel cultural identities.

Other scholars have written that intercultural competence does not comprise individual traits but is rather the characteristic of the association between individuals and that no prescriptive set of characteristics guarantees competence in all intercultural situations (Lustig and Koester 2003).

UNESCO Guidelines on Intercultural Education (2006) underline that “In order to strengthen democracy, education systems need to take into account the multicultural character of society, and aim at actively contributing to peaceful coexistence and positive interaction between different cultural groups. There have traditionally been two approaches: multicultural education and Intercultural Education. Multicultural education uses learning about other cultures in order to produce acceptance, or at least *tolerance*, of these cultures. Intercultural Education aims to go beyond passive coexistence, to achieve a developing and sustainable way of living together in multicultural societies through the creation of *understanding* of, *respect* for and *dialogue* between the different cultural groups.”

In a publication of the Houghton Mifflin Company, verbal and nonverbal appropriateness and effectiveness are presented as two important qualities of intercultural competence. “Interculturally competent people successfully and effectively adapt their verbal and nonverbal messages to the appropriate cultural context.” There are three necessary and interdependent ingredients of communication competence: knowledge, motivation, and behavior.

Dr. Darla K. Deardorff, Raleigh (2004) stresses that the degree of intercultural competence depends on degree of attitudes, knowledge, comprehension, and skills.

Almost all definitions of intercultural competence include more than knowledge of other cultures, since knowledge alone is not enough to constitute intercultural competence. Intercultural competence also involves the development of one’s skills and attitudes in successfully interacting with persons of diverse backgrounds.

The development of intercultural competences and the promotion of intercultural dialogue are deemed fundamental and are to be treated as transversal or horizontal priorities, especially across the fields of education, youth, culture, sport and citizenship.

Based on the literature review, and information collected by the questionnaires and interviews, the paper presents the following findings on teachers and students’ views on intercultural competences in Law Schools in Albania.

The organization and functioning of the higher education in Albania is an attempt to set up and approximate with a number of standard-setting instruments and documents issued by the Government, European Union and UNESCO.

Albanian higher education system, taking into account the presence of ethnic minorities and multicultural character of the society, aims at actively contributing to peaceful coexistence and positive interaction between different ethnic minorities and cultural groups that live in Albania.

When asked about what they know about intercultural competencies, students and teachers of higher education institutions have different opinions and answers to the question based on their knowledge. Some define it “as the ability to understand and to accept others”, some “as the ability to know how to respond and behave in an environment culturally different from their own”. They say that “having intercultural competence means being able to acquire knowledge, skills and values that contribute

to a spirit of co-operation and mutual respect among individuals and groups in society”, “to be able to better develop one’s personality and be able to act with ever greater personal responsibility in different work and life situations”.

Most of students and teachers consider intercultural competence closely linked to knowledge in a foreign language. The respondents remark that languages are more simple linguistic exercises, than opportunities to understand other cultures, which can serve as a basis for building better understanding between communities and between nations and to reflect on other ways of life, other literatures, other customs.

Survey remarked that no pedagogical document or publication in Albanian explain the meaning of intercultural competencies. The lack of theoretical approach is reflected in the education practice.

Teaching and learning approaches that develop intercultural communication competence and environmental awareness in Legal English Curriculum

Intercultural education cannot be just a simple ‘add on’ to the regular curriculum. It needs to concern the learning environment as a whole, as well as other dimensions of educational processes, such as school life and decision making, training, curricula, languages of instruction, teaching methods and student interactions, and learning materials.

The development of inclusive curricula that contain learning about the languages, histories and cultures of non-dominant groups, attitudes and behaviors toward the protection of environment in society is one important example. The issue of language(s) of instruction and language teaching is another crucial element of effective Intercultural Education and has been described in the UNESCO Education Position Paper “Education in a Multilingual World”.

The skills in intercultural development competences in legal English is considered as an essential tool in future integration of legal professionals to realize the potentials that economic political and legal frameworks of the European Union offer.

English as a foreign language is taught in all Law Faculties in Albania.

The survey found that the curriculum is more focused in developing the linguistic competencies and communication skills than in intercultural competencies. Students acquire theoretical knowledge, but they lack skills and attitudes.

The undertaken curriculum review makes clear that when intercultural competence and is a focus of the curricula it tends to concern knowledge rather than skills and attitudes. This is because of the few possibilities the students have to exchange with representatives of the different groups, foreigners, little internet connection and limited number of library books.

Intercultural competence objectives may be described in the curricula in such general terms that it is difficult for teachers to imagine what they may mean and, more significantly, how these objectives can be put into practice in the language classroom. Greater clarity and detail are necessary in the formulation of objectives in the area of intercultural competence development.

These law graduates may know a lot about the other cultures but they lack the necessary skills and competences to function in other environment.

Foreign language degree courses need to adopt an approach to intercultural learning which prepares students to move with more ease amongst numerous cultures and which is less bound, cognitively, by the notion of the nation-state.

Based on the curriculum analyses, research found that the Legal English curriculum in most Law Schools (10 from 14) is more focused in developing the linguistic competencies and communication skills than in intercultural competencies. In general, the teaching tends to be limited in a variety and restricted classical methods to the development of knowledge, information and environmental awareness, which is not focused on intercultural competence development alongside with the linguistic skills. The majority of the schools use General Language English Texts, not Legal English Texts.

Research found that in four Law Schools the curricula and the new edition of Legal English text and classes reflect these global, regional and domestic cultural changes aiming at achieving the consolidation of the students English proficiency and unfolding the potential to be founded in inter-and intra- national diversity. As the current process of globalization require lawyers'ability to adjust to an initially unknown environment and situation and to function effectively, the Legal English teachers are attempting to adopt new methods and policies to their teaching.

The teachers have increased the usage number of case studies based on real-life experiences with people from other cultures which "depict a controversy or source of conflict that reflects cultural values or other aspects of a culture" are considered as good example to intercultural competences in legal English teaching, but still it is not enough.

Brislin suggests that critical incidents are useful for intercultural communication training and education because they provide an approach whereby students can analyze cases "that depict people in intercultural encounters that involve a misunderstanding or a difficulty" (Brislin, 2002, cited online). The use of critical cultural attitude is suggested here not only for more typical ELT situations but also in more specific course offerings where EFL teachers are often asked to coordinate their English language classes as part of broader fields such as "Intercultural Communication" or "Comparative Culture".

The teachers of Legal English among themselves recommend to have a focus on the development communication skills such as self-awareness and cultural sensitivity, which can be seen as ends in and of themselves. Through, intercultural analysis of this kind help students to recognize, appreciate and accept difference and sets the stage for better linguistic understanding for actual use in English. During their analysis and through research work the students will be able to notice the political, economical, legal and cultural boundaries in the EU Member states and they can easily recognize, appreciate and accept differences and sets the stage for better linguistic understanding for actual use in English. If, as Gieve (1999) hopes, such study "empowers students to co-create an interactive context of their own intercultural space" (p.7), then the teaching approach can be deemed successful and the teachers can develop effective teaching methods and materials for increasing cultural awareness, environmental attitudes and sensitivity among the students.

Working in ESP contexts it is very important to prepare specialists for the future of the Albanian judiciary system but living in a global world it is a specific need to prepare the students for a global market. The students will thus not just learn ABOUT legal systems but also be engaged in a dialogue WITH them.

According to the best practice of four Law Schools, the first year study is focused on the acquisition of selected theoretical foundations for the future lawyers

who are supposed to serve a great number of the Albanian population who have emigrated in the Western countries, which require special efforts for preventing clashes based on cultural differences and developing synergies out of this diversity.

Through the Legal English textbooks 1 and 2 that contain modules on legal history, legal systems and institutions, European awareness, global culture and environmental law, students should learn about the history, development, constitution, different laws, the human rights, rights to be informed, the decisive role of information and legislation in protection of environment, institutional set-up of the European Union, as well as they should learn openness and understanding for differences, including different customs, lifestyles, cultures and religious beliefs. The textbooks inform of the global problems shared by the whole of mankind, as well as the emerging international co-operation to tackle and foster them, and developing an increased sensitivity for the roots of the problems, and learn as well how to explore possible solutions.

The text of “Legal English 1” and “Legal English 2” of University “Luarasi” is based on the tendencies of judiciary and it is a process of change during these last years due to new teaching methods and global tendencies.

The Legal Systems taught in the class help students understand some of the fundamental theories of Common Law, Civil Law as well as the culture's influence on the English language and the legislation. A teaching procedure for analysis on the differences is offered as a means for helping students realize that law is a process of evolution and not a revolution based on economic, social and cultural differences. By explaining the meanings of Civil Law vs Common Law, Civil Law vs Criminal Law, the right to be informed on environmental issues, the students can find out not only the differences of the legal terms but also the differences of historical, legal and cultural behaviours towards environment. There are also some parts of the curriculum that help to find out the differences of the attitudes of the people; they show as well the ways of how to improve the habits and norms to the benefit of majority in a global world. The students learn to anticipate the difficulties they may encounter on leaving their own familiar cultural environment and to handle such situations by drawing on their personal strengths and by finding constructive solutions.

The textbook Legal English 2 has significant aspects closely linked to European awareness which is determined by EU and UN conventions, and the existing international and national regulations concerning the right to information, human rights and protection of environment.

The values are expressed in both written and oral exercises which deal with issues of EU Institutions, UN Conventions (Human Rights, Environment Law, Aarhus Convention, Stockholm Convention etc.) It is necessary to provide the students with these type of information on EU legislation and Institutions, due to the fact that it is considered as a contribution to a better understanding of the controversy surrounding norms of different cultures and attitudes of people.

It is suggested here that encouraging students to reach a minimal level of ethno-relative thinking as exemplified by the acceptance level is a worthy endeavour and appropriate in terms of the developmental level of intermediate-level Albanian students embarking in the field of Environmental Law.

Environmental law is a module which has been recently introduced in the Legal English Curriculum in Albania, because there have been occasional publications on this issue. So it is urgent to reflect on this problem in order to raise the awareness of environmental protection.

At the new millennium, the goal of sustainable, equitable and environmentally sound development takes on even greater importance, as it concerns the very survival of life on Earth. The environmental education, in the genre of nature education is very important as well to expose to the beauties and wonders of nature and how these human interactions become a part of a society's culture, and why it is important to rationalize our relationship with our environment.

A key point in that issue is the strengthening of citizens' environmental rights in order to play a full and active role in bringing about the changes in consumption and production patterns which are so urgently needed. The active engagement of citizens, both in the formulation on policies and in their implementation, is a prerequisite for meaningful progress towards sustainability and intercultural behavior.

The Legal English Curriculum by treating different environment conventions and laws aims to realize the environment education as well. The Aarhus Convention, that is part of this curriculum, for example, through three pillars: access to information, public participation and access to justice links environmental rights and human rights. It acknowledges that we owe an obligation to future generations. It establishes that sustainable development can be achieved only through the involvement of all stakeholders. It links government accountability and environmental protection. It focuses on interactions between the public and public authorities in a democratic context and it is forging a new process for public participation in the negotiation and implementation of international agreements. The subject of the Aarhus Convention goes to the heart of the relationship between people and governments. The Convention is not only an environmental agreement, it is also a Convention about government accountability, transparency, and responsiveness and it contributes to intercultural competencies and above all is a barometer of the functioning of democracy.

It is particularly useful as a model in the sense that it mainly aims at awareness raising with respect to perception of cultural difference in environment protection which is considered nowadays as the policy of the future.

As a model though, it does have limitations not the least of which is that it fails to adequately deal with "difference-within-difference", as Guilherme (2002, p. 136) has noted, and "does not problematise the formation of (inter) cultural identities sufficiently". However, with a critical approach to behaviours and the materials used to help students negotiate and understand apologies across cultures, the discussions have proved useful in determining whether or not students can deal with difference in a culturally appropriate way in this particular context of intercultural learning.

Intercultural competencies is likely to become key professional qualifications. There are some chapters in "Legal English 2" that can clearly show the differences in the attitude of the people with different legislation and their acceptance. In the course of their studies the students should also become aware of how influenced they are by their own culture and language and reflect on this through oral discussions and written essays helping to develop effective teaching materials for increasing cultural awareness and sensitivity among the students.

The comparative method of teaching, sensitive to how the needs of different cultures should be considered, studies factors that can potentially impact on how the information on environment is given or received, and even whether or not the environment information is offered. This kind of comparative analysis has the potential, as Byram (1997, p. 20) notes, to turn "learners' attention back on their own practices, beliefs and social identities".

Noting that critical incidents may be preferable to "presenting prescriptive rules" Meier (1997, p. 26) has called for more awareness-raising activities in language teaching suggesting the potential for the second language classroom as a "venue for culture teaching" (1997, p. 26). Use of a critical incident approach to study apologies is also in line with Meier's.

Intercultural communication is directly affected by the cultures and the legal systems of the parties involved. This is especially the case with English, as the Anglo-American legal system, based essentially on common law, differs substantially from continental law, to which most of the European countries belong. English has become the world's most commonly used lingua franca. By developing the Legal English Curriculum, we aim to foster mutual understanding of and respect for the world's varied and changing legal systems and cultures as a contribution to justice and a peaceful world as well as to contribute to the better preparation of lawyers as they increasingly engage in transnational or global legal practice, and when they pursue careers other than private practice, including governmental, non-governmental, academic, and corporate careers.

Problems facing teachers in developing intercultural competencies in Legal English subject

The teachers are an important actor in intercultural education. According to the survey, English teachers of the Law Schools are left without any guidance and professional development courses when it comes to developing intercultural competence. The development of this kind of competences depends from the individual approach.

The lecturers in Law Schools are General English University graduates. They have a good command of the language and the necessary teaching strategies for teaching with adults.

However, being a Legal English teacher does not require simply a good command of the language, it also requires a thorough knowledge of other aspects of the cultures involved, which have to be taken into consideration in intercultural communication in order to prevent communication problems or even communication breakdowns.

The Faculty of Foreign Languages of University of Tirana, which has been producing most of the Albanian English teachers, has incorporated the intercultural education in its curricula. This curriculum aims at a professional education of the foreign language teacher capable to respond in concrete ways to the demands of the Albanian reality and capable to contribute to the intercultural education for a free movement both through study programs and through employment. The aim of the curricula is to prepare teachers who need to have communication skills, empathy, understanding, classroom management skills, content knowledge, and the pedagogical skills necessary to deliver comprehensible information and instruction to learners who do not speak English.

The Faculty of Foreign Languages of University of Tirana educates teachers for general English and for Special Purposes. The latter do not take any specialized course for teaching English for special purposes. During the four years of university studies, the pre-service teachers take courses in the target language history, literature, civilization and intercultural communication.

Many lecturers responded to the survey questions feel that they need more appropriate training in the field of teaching Legal English. The teachers often report that they need training on methods, techniques, procedures and activities for developing intercultural competence.

An English lecturer trained in Legal English will be able to give the necessary learning strategies to the law students, by giving them the skills to understand the aim of the original text, its cultural context and the way of translating it in the target language. In the long term, it is therefore to be expected that English as a common language used for communication within the EU will contribute to creating a common cultural basis, i.e. elements of a common European culture, which will be shared by all its speakers. This vision, however, drastically changes the approach to language learning and teaching. English should hence not be learned primarily with the aim of interacting with native speakers but acquiring access to a wider (global) community and thus should not be linked exclusively to Anglo-American culture.

The problems of deeper context knowledge, in our case law, the specific nature of translation and sound intercultural knowledge lead to an urgent need for further training of Legal English lecturers. Effective training is needed for two main reasons. One is to help teachers acquire a better conceptual understanding of intercultural competence; and the other is to help teachers improve their methods for developing intercultural competence and raising students' interest.

As the conclusion based on the research we present the following recommendations that believe will have impact in developing intercultural competencies.

- a) Embedding the intercultural competencies in the Legal English Curriculum is a principal that should be applied.
- b) Specification of the target objectives for intercultural competences should be developed.
- c) There is a need to improve the teaching of Legal English in order to develop the intercultural competences in parallel with linguistic skills.
- d) The professional training of the lecturers in understanding and developing intercultural competencies should be promoted.
- e) Preparing graduates for transnational practice by encouraging international scholarly exchange and faculty and student exchange.
- f) Serving as a clearinghouse for exchange of information about perspectives on law and legal education, law schools, curriculum issues, and pedagogy.
- g) Stimulating intercultural and interdisciplinary research regarding law and legal education, law schools, curriculum and pedagogy.
- h) Working with relevant entities to develop guidelines to adapt legal education to the needs of changing societies, including suggested best practices regarding international, transnational, and comparative curricula and teaching methods.
- i) Organizing international meetings on topics of general interest to legal teachers.

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Heuristic reasoning and beliefs on immigration. An approach to intercultural education program

Blanca Olalde Lopez de Arechavaleta
Educational Seccion – Government of Basque Country

Santiago Palacios Navarro
University of the Basque Country

Abstract

In this research we intent to analyze the most common heuristics and biases used on thinking about immigration.

Social cognition is the study of how people select, interpret, and use information to make judgments about themselves and the social world. People use mental shortcuts to simplify the amount of information they receive from the environment. Heuristics reasoning can be included among these mental shortcuts. In general, heuristics are useful for making fast decision and judgment but in certain cases they may lead to systematic errors because some relevant aspects presented in the given information are ignored. One feature of heuristic reasoning is the unconsciousness, that is, people are not aware that they are using them.

The aim of this paper is to analyze in which way these shortcuts affect the construction of judgment about immigration. In fact, if either the wrong strategy is chosen or some relevant information is ignored, we can make decisions and judgment influenced by stereotypes and distorted images of the reality (of immigration).

We examined the relationship between beliefs about immigration and biased generated by heuristic responding on 3 types of reasoning and decision-making tasks (representativeness, availability and anchoring) in the context of immigration. The availability heuristic is a mental rule of thumb whereby people base a judgment on the ease with which they can bring something to mind. The representative heuristic leads people to classify something according to how similar it is to a typical case and the anchoring and adjustment heuristic involves using a number or value as a starting point, and then adjusting one's answer away from this anchor.

A total of 218 students between 13 years 6 month and 20 years 9 month of age participated in the study.

We found out that students' beliefs about immigration range from impeccable ideas to relentless (implacable) ones. Students' beliefs about immigration seem to be related to heuristic reasoning. In fact, our results point out that stereotypical thinking could come from this use of heuristics or, may be, they function much like a "stereotype". These findings are quite consistent with the predominant dual-process accounts of reasoning and making decision as applied to development and education.

We propose a training program whose main objective is not only to become student more aware of biases but also avoid some of them. In this way, we expect to avoid stereotypic thinking about immigration and the negative prejudice coming from the use of heuristic reasoning.

1. Introduction

Migrations have occurred since ever throughout human history, voluntarily or obliged, human beings have always been in motion. Through centuries people have felt the need to travel, that is, to move from their birthplace. Whether at wartime or peace time, human beings have always lived together with other cultures. That's why is striking that the migratory phenomenon should be seen as a degeneration, since it corresponds to such a deeply embedded characteristic of human race (Luciani, 1993).

Migration is a dynamic process that takes place in different contexts (natural disasters, wars...) and at different levels (local, regional or international). It is caused by various factors (search for better economy, workers' demands...) and it has a series of consequences (social, economic...) both for the countries of origin and host societies (Solé, 2001).

In fact, dealing with emigration means dealing with a diverse and multidimensional phenomenon that changes society. The phenomenon of migration means facing constantly new socio-political, economic, educational, ethical and cognitive challenges. Facing these challenges adequately implies being prepared to live in a multicultural society. The school, due to its educational role, is one of the most important scenarios in which society as a whole must face the challenge of cultural diversity in contemporary societies; either from the valuation of that diversity (Aguado, 2004), or as a space for preventing social exclusion (Carbonell, 1999) or even as a possibility of creating an intercultural ethics (Bilbeny, 2002).

The profound shift in the traditional frameworks in a multicultural society demands us the need to build an education for intercultural coexistence (Zanfrini, 2007). Therefore, within the context of cultural diversity in the current society, in this study the aim is to analyse the perceptions and attitudes towards the phenomenon of immigration (De La Corte and Blanco, 2006). We try to explore to what extent we have a full picture of the reality or, conversely, this vision is partial and ignores important aspects in making judgments about this phenomenon (Nisbett and Ross, 1980). In this way, we would use certain biases including those resulting from the use of heuristic.

2. State of the matter

Tversky and Kahneman began to study the heuristics in the early seventies and analyzed three basic heuristics: Heuristic of representativeness (Kahneman and Tversky, 1972), the availability heuristic or accessibility (Kahneman and Tversky, 1973) and anchoring (Tversky and Kahneman, 1974/1986). These authors focused their research on analysing the limited human rationality when it comes to making judgements and decisions. They and other authors have demonstrated how people do not use any normative system in our probability estimations, instead we rely on a limited number of heuristics that simplify the complexity of the tasks (Goldstein. and Hogarth, 2000; Hastie and Dawes, 2001; Gilovich, and Griffin Kahneman 2002).

2.1. The representativeness heuristic

The representativeness heuristic states that we judge the probability that an object or event A belongs to class or process B, by the degree to which A resembles B, that is, probabilities are evaluated by the degree to which A is

representative of B rather than in accordance with the actual probability (Tversky and Kahneman, 1982), (Gilovich, Griffin, and Kahneman, 2002).

Biases like those produced by the heuristic of representativeness are part of the basis of certain social prejudices, which are sometimes used to justify certain behaviors. For example, when we judge or predict the behavior of an individual member of a particular group, such as immigrants, often tend to rely on stereotypes supposedly representative, ignoring objective data on frequency and probability. One limitation of representativeness is the tendency to stereotype, that is, to attribute certain characteristics to all objects or members of a group (Moya and Puertas, 2008).

2.2. Availability or accessibility heuristic

Availability heuristic states that we assess the frequency of a class or the probability of an event by the ease with which instances or occurrences can be brought to mind (Higgins, 1996).

This heuristic has some justification because the most common events are normally best stored and retrieved. The problem is that sometimes what we remember with ease is not the most representative and we ignore the real likelihood of events and this leads us to wrong conclusions (Epley and Gilovich, 2006). The ease with we remember an event is sometimes associated with other factors that have nothing to do with the natural frequency of the event. For example, events with an emotional content are more available than others and there are events more easily imaginable than others. It is also more accessible salient or recent information, and so on. Therefore, the most accessible is not always the most likely.

Thus, pictures of “cayucos” and boats arriving in Spanish coasts appear in the daily news bulletins and that’s why this information is more accessible in our memory but our view is not affected by the actual quantity. Hamilton (1981) argues that certain kinds of stereotypes are formed when people falsely perceive an association or an illusory correlation. The illusory correlation is the tendency to perceive a relationship between two variables where none exists, or the perception of a stronger relationship than actually exists (Chapman, 1967). The illusory correlation is often found in social opinions on immigration. For example, when some subjects argue that immigration increases the number of robberies, they are trying to link two variables: immigration and robbery. This illusory correlation itself is not "natural", it is socially constructed (Wagman, 2002) and can be reinforced, for example, by the overexposure to certain information or certain political discourses made in the media.

2.3. The anchor and adjustment heuristic

It is used when we make judgments about data that create some uncertainty. Indeed, the ambiguity is reduced by choosing a starting point as a reference (anchor), and adjusting it until a plausible estimation is reached.

The main bias that results from this approach is that either the anchor-probability is incorrect and, therefore, all the subsequent estimations are also inaccurate, or else the anchor-probability is correct but the adjustment is insufficient (Cervone and Peake, 1986). This heuristic has influence on making judgements about immigration in different domains: estimation of probability or amounts, negotiation, legal judgements and general knowledge.

3. Research

3.1 Objectives and hypothesis

There are two main objectives in this research. First, knowing which are the beliefs about immigration that our adolescents and youth have. Secondly, making sure if heuristics are used and what biases are utilized in the process of perception and making of judgements on immigration. In this sense, we seek to see if these ideas and opinions on immigration are affected by certain social inferences determined by heuristic reasoning. The hypothesis posed in this study is consistent with the following objectives:

Beliefs and discourse on immigration: It is expected that people move mainly between two extreme discourses: the social impeccable discourse and the implacable one (See table 1). On the other hand, it is expected that levels of contact with cultural minority groups favour a more realistic view.

Heuristics and immigration: It is expected that the heuristic of representativity, availability and anchoring affect judgements on situations related to immigration according to the characteristics of each of them and as it is collected in the previous investigations.

Table 1. Predominant discourses on immigration

Beliefs of the implacable discourse	Beliefs of the impeccable discourse
• There are too many immigrants	• There are never too many immigrants
• The immigration damages work	• The exploitation of immigrants' work is the only problem linked to immigration
• Immigration promotes crime	• The xenophobia is the only major crime linked to immigration
• Our culture is incompatible with that of immigrants.	• All cultural patterns observed in immigrants are respectable and enriching

Adapted from De la Corte, L.; and Blanco, A. (2006).

3.2 Participants

In this study the sample is of 218 subjects, they are students from various Public Schools in the Basque Country (Guipuzcoa and Alava). 105 participants were enrolled in 2nd ESO (Secondary School) and their average age was 13.6 years, 34 participants were in 4th ESO and their average age was 15.7 years and 79 subjects were enrolled in 1st grade at University and their average age is 20.9 years.

3.3 Procedure

These students filled out a questionnaire with 32 items on the views and /or beliefs about immigration and situations or issues related to the use of heuristic in making judgments about immigration. The questionnaire includes both open and closed questions, questions with a weighted scale and also questions with heuristic distractors. Two models were designed: questionnaire A and B, equal in all questions except on two issues where the situations offered different options in order to compare the obtained responses.

4. Results

4.1 Inmigration: beliefs/discourse

The results obtained in the Likert scale, in which subjects position themselves on some beliefs that dominate the social discourse on immigration (Diez, 2004) on a scale of 1 to 10. (Table 1)

Table 1. Average rating on beliefs about immigration

	Contact			Total	Sig.
	Usual	Timely	None		
<i>Immigration is a problem</i>	3,96	5,20	5,18	5,04	,094
It removes jobs	3,65	4,00	3,56	3,75	,533
Immigration is economically beneficial	6,91	5,89	5,38	5,77	,012*
Immigrants do not want to be integrated	3,65	3,86	4,72	4,22	,018*
The presence of foreigners increases crime	4,58	5,46	5,99	5,60	,029*
The immigration enriches us culturally	7,21	6,52	6,34	6,52	,408
They take the money and do not invest here	3,85	5,26	5,13	5,02	,051
They monopolize welfare aid	5,19	5,33	4,99	5,16	,683
They have a low educational and cultural level	4,46	5,06	5,48	5,17	,166

It is noted that the views of subjects in the study move between the two opposite ends of the social discourse: the implacable one (highlighting only negative aspects of immigration and ignoring the positive one) and the impeccable one (valuing the richness the immigration brings in the cultural field, economic, etc.. and sometimes ignoring the problems accompanying the current immigration process).

Thus, three main groups can be distinguished. The first group (59.9%), closest to social impeccable discourse, the second group (22.8%), close to the implacable discourse but with more subtle manifestations, includes the subjects who do not consider immigration as a problem, even though they consider it as competition (for example, when accessing to aid social ...). In their beliefs the positive contributions that may have immigration are no longer included, on the contrary, they stress that immigrants who live here do not invest economically in this country, taking the money to their home countries. They also argue that the cultural and educational level of immigrants is low, even though the actual data show otherwise (see OECD report, 2008). Finally, a third group (17.3%) are those who maintain an implacable and alarmist discourse that contains racist approaches. These subjects believe that immigration is a problem and that it involves competition (in access to a job) and they also blame immigrants for not wanting to be integrated or for increasing the crime.

With regard to the contacts that participants have with members of other cultures, these contacts are still low (45%) or sporadic (41.7%) and relationships are established especially with people of African-Muslims (33.6%) mainly Moroccans and also largely with Latin America (29.6%). Although these relationships are sporadic, it is significant that they are established on friendship grounds and the common bond in all of them is that they share common interests (sports, music and go out and have fun).

The analysis of variance (ANOVA of one factor) applied to the relationship between the level of contact with minority groups and the view they have about immigration (Likert scale) confirms that contact with people from other cultural groups favours a more positive opinion and in this case it is more realistic and probably more free of the biases that heuristic produce (See Table 1). Thus, there are

significant differences on three items. Thus, the lower the frequency of these contacts, the greater is the tendency to think that immigration is not economically beneficial and that immigrants do not want to be integrated or that they increase crime.

4.2. Heuristics and their influence

4.2.1. Representativeness

To examine the effect this heuristic can have on our judgements in the questionnaire half the subjects were asked about this situation:

(Questionnaire model B) In my town 70 people of Italian origin and 30 of German origin have lived for some years. In the waiting room of the doctor a happy, fun and passionate guy talked to me. He spoke about his emotional life and relationships in the past. What is more likely: to be a German guy or an Italian one?

And the other half of the subjects (Questionnaire A) were asked about the same situation but in this case the number of people of Italian origin were 30 and 70 of German origin. Therefore, the only thing that changed is the probability a priori. Statistically the likelihood that the description belongs to a German rather than an Italian is much higher in the questionnaire A than in the B. Still, many subjects based their judgement on the characteristics of the stereotyped Italian and German personality, ignoring the odds in both categories. Results (Table 2) show that in both cases our participants believe it is more likely to be an Italian because his description fits with a certain stereotype or prototype of the Italians.

Table 2. Election according to the probability a priori and the stereotype

	Model A (70% Germans)	Model B (70% Italians)	Total
To be German	34	16	50
To be Italian	59	74	133
Total	93	90	183

The implementation of representativeness heuristic, therefore, slants our judgement in a contrary direction to the way that would result from applying the basic rules of probability and it acts as a stereotype. A judgment in this way, according to Kahneman (1982), is due to the automatic application (immediate, not thoughtful) of the representativeness heuristic.

Moreover, the bias of insensitivity to sample size occurs when people overestimate the power of the information contained in a sample, omitting relevant information provided by the size of it. They draw strong inferences from small number of cases. The questionnaire posed the following question:

A woman who lives in your same city / town asserts that she is considered herself very religious. What is more likely to be an immigrant Muslim or a woman born in the Basque Country?

Given that the Muslim community living in the Basque Country is made up of only 10,000 members (from 2,141,116 inhabitants in the Basque Country) and despite the fact that 41% of Muslims consider themselves very religious (Metroscopia, 2007) compared to 24% of Spaniards, the probability that she is a woman born in the Basque Country is higher. However, in our sample 81.2% ensures that she is probably a

Muslim migrant and only 18.8% seems to pay attention to the sample size. Again heuristic and stereotype appear together.

4.2.2. Availability or accessibility heuristic

Regarding the effect of the availability or accessibility heuristic significant results have been obtained. For example, the questionnaire asked where they think the majority of Africans migrates: to Europe, Asia, America or within Africa. Despite that 75% of Africans migrate within the African continent (Kabunda, 2007), 96.8% of the subjects who participated in the study believe that the majority of Africans migrates to Europe.

Likewise, when they were asked what means of transport the most Africans who emigrate use, more than 94% of the sample stated that they arrive by small boats or “cayucos”. Instead, the arrival of people by boat represents a small percentage, not more than 5%, (reality shows that 55% of immigrants who arrive in Spain use Barajas airport) but this is a sensationalist and an effective image that rarely goes together with elements of interpretation and analysis.

4.2.3. The anchor and adjustment heuristic

The questionnaire asked the subjects if they consider that the number of residents in the Basque Country from other countries is more or less than 13% (anchor). 66% of the subjects estimated that the number of immigrants is higher. This figure indicates ignorance in relation to the reality because the actual percentage is (was) a 4.6% (Ikuspegi, 2007).

However, the presence of the anchoring requires that the given figure is used to adjust the estimation of subjects and in our case this happens only in part. Thus, a large number of subjects (38.6%) estimate the figure between 10% and 20%. However, it is remarkable the significant number of subjects (20%) who estimate the figure beyond 25%, because neither the reality nor the proposed anchorage points in that direction. In our investigation a question was included where subjects were asked to assess whether the value or the amount estimated by them was considered excessive, adequate or scarce (Table 3).

A 35% of the subjects considered an estimated 21% of immigrants excessive, however, it may be more alarming to see that among those who considered the presence of immigrants excessive 10% of them put their estimation on 10%, with the largest bulk (15 %) in the share of 20% of immigrants. These data require further analysis as it also indicates that there is a certain percentage of subjects (20%), who considered that the number of immigrants is appropriate, that believe their presence reaches 19%.

Table 3. Average estimation of the number of immigrants and their subjective assessment

	In your opinion, the number of immigrants who live in the Basque Country is ...		
	Excessive (35%)	Adequate (20%)	Scarce (45%)
Average estimation of the percentage of immigrants in the Basque Country	21 %	19 %	10 %

Therefore, we can conclude that with respect to the phenomenon of immigration, reality and its interpretation (estimation and judgements) often follow different ways.

5. Discussion / Conclusions

Within the discourse on immigration it is remarkable the wide range of views and attitudes that exist. However, in the continuous between the two opposite social discourses, the impeccable and the implacable, the participants are closest to the first one, showing an open attitude to the phenomenon of migration and showing a greater understanding of the topic when intercultural contacts are more frequent. However, some participants have also shown alarmist attitudes and have stressed that immigration is a problem, which causes crime and also that migrants exclude themselves.

Anyway, one can deduce that there is a favourable context to create intercultural spaces among young people because it is remarkable that relations between people from different cultural groups are established on a voluntary basis, that is, based on friendship and sharing the same hobbies.

Regarding heuristic reasoning, the results of the study stress the remarkable importance of being aware that although the use of heuristic sometimes works properly and they are very effective, they often also lead to make errors in judgment and decision making. Indeed, when determining the percentage of immigrants in the Basque Country or assessing the likelihood that the protagonists of different situations are from certain nationality or religion, subjects have used shortcuts and mental biases that lead them to erroneous results and stereotyped reasoning. Thus, it may be assumed that the perception of the number of foreigners living here is related to the heuristic of accessibility because the visibility of some minority groups can lead to overestimate their actual size.

In short, it seems we are influenced by the unipolar vision that gives the media and in many cases they determine our responses. It is easy to think of the example of a given event perhaps because it is striking and then imagine that this is something normal, as it has been seen in the examples of the transport used to immigrate or the places where Africans migrate.

According to the study of Mugak and XenoMedia (2004) the boats or “pateras”, along with crime, are the major themes that address the televisions to cover news on immigration and minorities. The representation of immigrants in boats and “cayucos” reflects a simplified vision of the entry of migration.

Alike, the illusory correlation appears frequently in the social judgments on immigration and our results are a clear example of this.

In general, the use of heuristics is quite common and almost all people use them to make decisions and judgements in the real world. However, it is important to be aware of the need to review these decisions or judgements. Although sometimes they may be useful because they save time and effort, they often lead to incorrect results. A widespread abuse of them can lead us to fall into negative social stereotypes about immigration. Therefore, a training project on heuristic reasoning and immigration would help to expand and change some views and approaches on this issue.

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From multiculturalism to social panics? New challenges for education and teacher training³⁹

Prof. A.L.T. Notten⁴⁰

Summary

In the 1980's multiculturalism was a naïve trend in social sciences and in politics as well, a combination of moralism and social engineering. In the past 25 years, the attendance of several groups of immigrants in our countries made clear that multi- or even interculturalism was an ideology, a warm ideology, which was fully unable to prevent the rising of an underclass which was not integrated functionally. Necessary integration failed, and fails, in the fields of schooling, employment and housing. Today, not only populist politicians and mass media try to take advantage of the related social panics, they even organise resentment.

Education is the core of functional integration. Furthermore, education is the key for economic success. Europe needs much more well-educated people. The time when Europe competed mostly with countries that offered low-skilled work at low wages is long gone. Countries and continents that invest heavily in education and skills benefit economically from that choice. And socially: more investment in school education provides tangible benefits to all, and not just to the individuals who benefit from the greater educational opportunities, the Schleicher Report of the Lisbon Council stated in 2006.

Europe's school systems will have to make considerable headway if they are to meet the demands of modern societies. Some of these changes will require additional investment, particularly in the pre- and early school-years. But money is not a guarantee for strong results. 'Linking high expectations to strong support systems', being the success of the Finnish model, requires the combination of several risky ambitions: integrated and individualised pathways need to replace a fully tracked school system, the school needs to function within the community, and it will be (more) competitive in quality (magnet schools e.g.) as well.

Teacher training institutes play a vital role in this renewing process. They need to become research oriented, or at least to design fruitful combinations of teaching, researching and innovation. So, they will commute between urban social issues, educating professions, the demands of modern society, and the functional integration of newcomers, whether they are invited to come or refugees.

Intercultural dialogue

In 2005, the Commission of the European Communities sent a proposal to the European Parliament concerning the proclamation of a European Year of Intercultural

³⁹. Key-note lecture at the 33rd Annual ATEE Conference, Brussels, 23-27 August 2008.

⁴⁰. Professor of Urban Education and co-leader of the Research Group Growing Up in the City, at Rotterdam University, and professor of Adult Education, Vrije Universiteit Brussel.

Dialogue, the year 2008. As the Commission stated:

“Intercultural dialogue [...] contributes towards achieving a number of the Union’s strategic priorities, in particular:

- by respecting and promoting cultural diversity in Europe and promoting active European citizenship open to the world and based on common values in the European Union;
- by including the renewed Lisbon strategy, for which the knowledge-based economy requires people capable of adapting to changes and benefiting from all possible sources of innovation in order to increase prosperity;
- by promoting the Union’s commitment to solidarity, social justice and greater cohesion in the respect of common values in the European Union;
- by enabling Europe to make its voice heard in the world and to forge effective partnerships with neighbouring countries, thus extending the zone of stability and democracy beyond the Union and thereby influencing the wellbeing and security of European citizens and all those living in the European Union.”⁴¹

In the past three decades, many nice words have been devoted to multicultural communication, not only by the European Commission, but also by national governments and even worldwide organisations like the United Nations, religious conventions, etc. Not always concrete goals or even targets were connected to those ideals; mostly the background or even the foreground idea is about the mutually enriching characteristics of multi- or even intercultural communication. In all those years, it was not made clear fully what was meant exactly by ‘culture’, ‘diversity’, ‘communication’, and the like, and *in which ways* those nice things like the aimed knowledge-based economy, solidarity, social justice and social cohesion might be attained, and *how* the zone of stability and democracy might be extended.

And now, we are more than half-way the Year of the Intercultural Dialogue.

When I started my VUB-career, ten years ago, one of the courses I was asked to deliver was about ‘intercultural dialogue’. The Faculty of Psychology and Educational Sciences was convinced that social sciences students need to become

⁴¹. European Commission, *Proposal for a Decision of the European Parliament and of the Council concerning the European Year of Intercultural Dialogue*. Brussels: Commission of the European Communities, 2005, p. 11.

familiar with the related scientific insights. Now, in 2008, I dare to admit that I experienced it as a horrible theme, in those days. Nevertheless, I presented that course every year, both in Dutch, for Flemish students, and in English, for about 50 students from all over the world, from China (half of the students) to Africa and Canada.

My unpleasantness was rooted, at first, in the somewhat ideological content of ‘multicultural communication’, the same uneasy feelings I had as I studied theology, in the late 1960’s. And secondly, my feeling referred to my irritation about the highly comparable conviction of make-ability or social engineering, which I associated with my social sciences study and its optimistic ‘planned change’ orientation, one decade later. Theory and research about multiculturalism seemed to combine moralism and social engineering.

Due to this pact, I feared I could not succeed in inviting these ‘global students’ to become interested in multiculti-issues. In particular, I noticed a total lack of mutual understanding and mutual interest even among Chinese students from the countryside and urban people, but also among students from different mega-cities in the North-Eastern and the South-Eastern part of the their country, Beijing and Hong-Kong, e.g. Chinese students didn’t show any predisposition at all to transport themselves mentally in the thoughts and practices of their mates, whether they were from Canada, Africa or their own country (and its incomparable languages). My question was: *Why should they do so!?* The Western theoretical perspectives did lack any heuristic power or paradigm for them. Which might be a challenging multicultural theme, of course.

Probably, I was inclined or even *prone* to these temptations, thirty and twenty years before I started teaching multicultural communication in Brussels. *Moral masochism*, as Sigmund Freud explained it.

A short history of immigration

But let’s refrain from psychoanalytical interpretations, as we will look at policies and practices of multiculturalism of those days, and the ones of our days in particular. Before sketching and even justifying my *real* present interest in ‘multiculturalism’, with quotation marks of course, let me explain a bit about half a century history of immigration and the related policies in our countries, the educational policy in particular, and the rise or even the *boom* of multiculturalism, 25 years ago.

Long before the invention of multiculturalism as a practical, a moral, political

and a scientific attitude, Western-European economies were in urgent need of workers in agriculture, coal-mines and in manual-labour. Mostly dirty jobs. People from Greece, Spain, and later on from Turkey and Morocco came to our regions to do that work. In the United Kingdom, the Netherlands, in Germany and in Belgium, e.g., they were labelled as ‘guest workers’, as an explicit indication that they were both welcome and assumed to return to their home-countries after the work was done. These workers were not accompanied by their families, initially, which suggested that the idea of a temporary stay in the guest countries was shared by the visitors themselves as well.

The guest-workers label proved to be a myth, later on, which endured until the mid-1980’s however. Moreover, people from Italy and China arrived in our cities to establish their own small businesses, industries, shops, restaurants etc., and after a successful start, their families joined – since they didn’t want to go back. The third group of immigrants in Belgium, the UK and the Netherlands came from their former colonies, in Africa, from Indonesia, India and Suriname. During the roaring years of decolonisation and independence, they established in their former ‘motherland’, as the idea was cherished initially at both sides that they were neither guests nor immigrants at all. They were looking, primarily, for better living conditions, for themselves and for their children.

From the mid 1980’s on, finally, as the return myth came to an end, the recognition grew that our countries, the Netherlands in particular, got the traits of immigrant-nations (*again*, just like it was in the seventeenth and the eighteenth century). A faint-hearted attempt was made to create a comprehensive immigrants’ policy, which proved to become a never-ending story. From the mid-eighties on, new groups from all over the world – victims of war, extreme poverty and repression – flew to our countries, whether or not welcomed warm-heartedly, living legally here or not, deliberately divided over the EU-countries mostly in risky urban areas however, not seldom anonymously, without too much comfort and scarcely participating socially, with lacking school education and social and adult-educational facilities. These new groups of migrants, varying from ‘global fugitives’ and asylum-seekers to adventurers, run the risk permanently to get shoved under the traditional (‘white’) lower classes, becoming socially excluded and living more or less permanently in struggle with these groups – a growing uneasiness which is stirred up by populist politicians and public media, and not being welcomed and supported by any all-

embracing policy.

Speaking about multiculturalism, the last two decades of the twentieth century became highly interesting. At the end of the guest workers-period, about 1980, a welfare-focused political paradigm came into being. In the Netherlands, the magic formula was: *integration while saving one's own identity*. This formula stressed the cultural and religious identity of the guests from abroad, which was assumed to be safeguarded necessarily in their new country. 'One's own identity' got the status of admiration, sometimes. Social and cultural studies supported this vision with research and methodical approaches to improve 'intercultural communication'. Core-themes were: what are the cultural and religious backgrounds and convictions of the newcomers, how can communication facilities be supported, step by step, in the contexts of work, at school, in public services, in the consulting-rooms of general practitioners, etc. Years and years later, however, a striking aspect of this approach proved to be a gliding scale from admiration to neglect, and to social exclusion or even isolation.

Therefore, at the highpoint of this so-called 'expressive' phase, the conviction grew that the political and juridical rights of the newcomers need to be safeguarded and enforced: the right to vote and to be elected, on the local level in particular, and the civil rights to apply to Court. This episode can be typified as the 'moral' or 'social' phase. Strengthening political and social participation, however, failed to fight or even to prevent the earlier mentioned social-destructive aspects of multicultural cherishing newcomers. Finally, a more determined so-called 'functional-integrative' policy proved to be inevitably.⁴²

So, ten years later, again, at the end of the 1980's, national ethnic minorities policies became focused on fighting social arrears and stimulating integration – on an urban level, primarily. The political conviction grew that categorical, i.e. a minorities' orientation needs to be integrated within the broader context of urban-renewal policies with a threefold variety: economics, physical and urban regeneration, and social and employment incentives.

⁴². These three adjectives – expressive, social/moral, functional – refer to the Enlightenment tradition, from Immanuel Kant to his *great-great-grandson* Jürgen Habermas, *Theorie des kommunikativen Handelns*. Frankfurt a.M.: Suhrkamp, 2 Bd, 1981. (Engl. *The Theory of Communicative Action*. Boston: Beacon Press, 2 Vols, 1984, 1987). Cf. A.L.T. Notten, *Overleven in de stad. Inleiding tot sociale kwaliteit en urban education*. Antwerpen, Apeldoorn: Garant, 2004, p. 57-59.

The end of multiculturalism, ethnic problems and orchestrated resentment

We need to accent the fact that these functional-integrative urban policies – education, employment and housing – are focused really on dramatic ethnic minorities problems. Just like it cannot be denied that there is a *coloured* competition or even a surviving struggle within the lower classes, on these three issues. Every urban agglomeration in the Western part of Europe contains risky city-districts, with a huge amount of bad housing and living environments, high rates of unemployment and youth criminality. And failing schooling facilities contain a sure prediction about the next generations of those city-quarters.

Do we have to admit that serious urban social problems really are *ethnic* problems – not more or less, but *mainly* ethnic? Problems which are rooting in enormous educational backlashes, being the Number One cause of functional disintegration? Why do the Netherlands, e.g., assign nearly 95% of the children of low-educated immigrant parents at the age of 11, 12, nearly automatically to ‘preparatory secondary vocational education’ (VMBO), mostly in black schools, and why is the school drop-out rate, five years later, of those youngsters so dramatically high? What barriers exist for young immigrants (first and second generation) at school today, why do educational systems leave so many immigrant children ‘floundering’, as the OECD concluded?⁴³ Eight years before that fatal selection, these children started their school-career with a huge language arrears, with lacking parental support and challenge and participation in the school-life of their kids; these youngsters have at a pubertal age a responsibility even to learn their parents participate in their highly unfamiliar Western society. Segregated education is followed by segregated housing and segregated employment chances. So far *school* and *family life*. Then the *employment* chances. The ‘ethnicity unemployment rates’ in the Netherlands and Belgium are much higher than those of native Dutch or Belgians. And finally, the related questions about *housing and living environments* can be answered easily: poor and under-educated ‘urban’ immigrants live in areas which are disintegrated – functionally, socially, morally and culturally as well.

A preliminary conclusion. Looking back over 25 years, it may be clear that (1)

⁴³. OECD, *Where Immigrant Students Succeed – A Comparative Review of Performance and Engagement in PISA 2003*. Paris: OECD, 2006. The report can be found at <http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/2/38/36664934.pdf>. (About ‘floundering’: http://www.oecd.org/document/17/0,2340,en_2649_201185_36701777_1_1_1_1,00.html.)

immigration became a structural phenomenon, (2) which cannot be euphemised or belittled by emphasizing a guest-metaphor, (3) whether or not ‘a dam can be cast up against it’, as a usual water-flood-metaphor suggests, and (4) which can neither be ‘(inter)culturalised’ nor reduced by stressing political and civil participation only. On the contrary (5) integration policies and practices must focus on ‘functional’ aspects: education, housing and employment – (6) which are the vital aspects of urban policies, not minorities’ issues exclusively. Equal chances do not exist.

The same questions in other words. In the first month of the new millennium, Paul Scheffer, a Dutch journalist (later on he got a professorship in Amsterdam), wrote an article in a newspaper, entitled ‘The multicultural Drama’.⁴⁴ Why, he asked, why did the Dutch, one hundred years ago, solve the social problems of those days so energetically – and why is everyone staying *now* so resignedly on the falling-behind of several generations of immigrants, and the coming-up of an ethnic underclass? Why do we think we can permit ourselves the complete failing of these groups, as we accept that a full reservoir of talents remains unemployed? Why do we think that these problems will be saved automatically? The societal order becomes being threatened, Scheffer warned. Many reactions from abroad make clear that the symptoms which he described are not exclusively Dutch: look at the unrest in urban agglomerations in France, the US, Canada, Israel, Spain, Germany and Belgium.

Some years later, in 2007, Paul Scheffer continued and sharpened his message. In a fist-thick book, he described, among other things, the growing animosity between ethnic losers, being the real outsiders, and the native Dutch losers and nearly-losers.⁴⁵ Failing contacts, racist resentments and panics, politicians and their vilification of ‘bogus’ asylum seekers⁴⁶, in the Netherlands, Belgium, Italy, France, Denmark, growing social unrest in urban areas ... and the enormous social and educational assignments to be fulfilled.

The dream of intercultural communication, the multicultural indifference and even public apathy – they are all over now.⁴⁷

Education, a challenging panorama...

⁴⁴. Paul Scheffer, ‘Het multiculturele drama.’ *NRC Handelsblad*, 29 January 2000.

⁴⁵. Paul Scheffer, *Het land van aankomst*. Amsterdam: De Bezige Bij, 2007.

⁴⁶. An interesting addition as can be read in the new introduction to the third edition of Stanley Cohen’s famous book *Folk Devils and Moral Panics*. London: Routledge, 2002, 3rd ed.

⁴⁷. As was concluded in a two-pages-article of Roger Cohen in: *International Herald Tribune*, 17 October, 2005: ‘A European Model for Immigration Falter; Dutch Facade of Tolerance under Strain’.

The key-issue for functional integration is *education*, and therefore *teaching* and *teacher training*. Schooling offers more opportunities for getting a job, better housing facilities, and better chances for children to grow up ... as is required above all by the global competitive economy of our days.

Let's start with that broad and economy oriented perspective. A challenging proclamation into that direction was given in 2006 by the Lisbon Council's Report *The Economics of Knowledge: Why Education is Key for Europe's Success*, which was written by Andreas Schleicher⁴⁸, who wrote (p. 2):

“The time when Europe competed mostly with countries that offered low-skilled work at low wages is long gone. Today, countries like China and India are starting to deliver high skills at low costs – and at an ever increasing pace. This is profoundly changing the rules of the game. There is no way for Europe to stop these rapidly developing countries from producing wave after wave of highly skilled graduates. What economists call ‘barriers to entry’ are falling. Individuals and companies based anywhere in the world can now easily collaborate and compete globally. And we cannot switch off these forces except at great cost to our own economic well-being.

The challenge for Europe is clear. But so is the solution: evidence shows – consistently, and over time – that countries and continents that invest heavily in education and skills benefit economically and socially from that choice. For every euro invested in attaining high-skilled qualifications, tax payers get even more money back through economic growth.

Moreover, this investment provides tangible benefits to all of society – and not just to the individuals who benefit from the greater educational opportunities. Faced with a rapidly changing world, Europe's school systems will have to make considerable headway if they are to meet the demands of modern societies.”

“Some of these changes will require additional investment”, Schleicher continues, “particularly in the early years of schooling. But the evidence also shows that money

⁴⁸. Andreas Schleicher, *The Economics of Knowledge: Why Education is Key for Europe's Success*. Brussels: Lisbon Council, 2006. http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/shared/bsp/hi/pdfs/13_03_06_economics_of_knowledge.pdf. (By the way, Schleicher was the man who used the word ‘floundering’.)

is not a guarantee for strong results. Put simply, European school systems must learn to be more flexible and effective in improving learning outcomes. And, they must scale back the inherent class bias and sometimes catastrophically regressive way of funding existing educational opportunities – taxing the poor to subsidize educational opportunity for the rich – in existing systems.” “In short,” the Schleicher Report concludes: “if Europe wants to retain its competitive edge at the top of the global value-added chain, the education system must be made more flexible, more effective and more easily accessible to a wider range of people.”

The Report gives a fine example of a successful school reform, Finland, and it explains:

“A key principle in the Finnish reforms was to link high expectations and strong support systems for schools in ways that encouraged and enabled teachers and school principals to assume responsibility for learning outcomes for each and every student. Extensive content-based prescriptions of what teachers should teach were replaced by a focused set of educational goals that communicated what students should be able to do, leaving it up to schools to craft a learning environment and establish the educational content that would serve their students best to reach these goals. Schools with integrated and individualised pathways replaced Finland’s tracked school system” (p. 9).

According to the Report, Europe’s school systems will have to make considerable headway if they are to meet the demands of modern societies. Some of these changes will require additional investment, particularly in the pre- and early school-years. But money is not a guarantee for strong results, Schleicher explains. *‘Linking high expectations to strong support systems’*, being the success of the Finnish model, requires the combination of several risky ambitions: integrated and individualised pathways need to replace a fully tracked school system, the school needs to function within the community, and it will be (more) challenging and even competitive in quality as well.

... and so many work to be done on a local level

For social scientists, a fascinating panorama manifests itself now. And much work to be done, for social and community workers, teachers and workers in and around the

school, educational professionals and teacher trainers, housing corporations and regeneration professionals, politicians. I would like to make the Schleicher-suggestions less abstract, in particular his true suggestions in renewing pre-school and elementary (and secondary) school arrangements and supporting these by innovative research and professionalisation.

At first some personal experiences. At the turn of the millennium, as the doctrine of multiculturalism proved to be a fiasco and at integration and participation failed on so many levels, the one on school education in particular, I got the opportunity to make connections between the teaching and researching experiences in the field of ‘urban education’ which I had in the United States, the UK and Denmark, and in a few mid-European, former communist countries in the early 1990’s. I became more and more interested in ethnical and immigrants related *urban problems and challenges*, and in particular those about growing up and teaching social and educational workers in multicultural cities like Amsterdam, Rotterdam and Brussels.⁴⁹ So, after the somewhat boring – moralising and over-pragmatic – first phase of about 25 years, *now* the theme became really interesting for me as a social researcher and an innovation-oriented theorist.

In 2002, I got a professorship at Rotterdam University for Professional Education, at the Faculties for Teacher Training and Social Work. The focus of my work became ‘Urban Education’, or even broader ‘Growing up in the City’ which comprises both a Research Centre and a Master of Education course. That new job offered me the opportunity to make it really *custom-made*, a nice combination with my academic work in Brussels.

My Rotterdam research centre and the related master-course represent a complementary and multidisciplinary approach aimed at innovation, urban sociology, urban-educational theories in particular. The backgrounds are highly stimulating. For over ten years, Dutch governmental advisory boards have argued that public institutions for youth welfare and education, especially in urban areas, would show better results if they were part of a ‘linked chain approach’ or what is sometimes called ‘joined-up services’. Institutions need to work together, offering a clear range of shared facilities to young people, parents and guardians, and education

⁴⁹. I offered a short evaluation in: A.L.T. Notten, ‘Urban Education and Youth Policy. Marginal Notes on a Debate about Professional Education for Social Change.’ In: A.L.T. Notten (ed.), *Cities, Youth Policy, Vocational Education, and Training the Professionals*. Amsterdam: UESP, 1996, p. 7-11.

professionals.⁵⁰

Rotterdam really is a great urban area. The greatest harbour in the world. Addicted by the second-city-syndrome, it is the poorest and lowest educated city, nearly half of its population has a foreign, non-Dutch background, and these groups will grow faster in the next decades than the Dutch-born people. The new generation will be a multi-coloured one, more than half of the primary school pupils are second or third generation immigrant children. Exclusion risks, even the unintended ones, within the 'allochthonous' Rotterdam youth, e.g., are very real, as the population of the city is not only greying ('silvering'), as everywhere in the country, but also 'greening'.

In our research and master-teaching work we take opportunities to address the related challenges. The starting point is that problems of child-rearing cannot be divided into discrete and separate parts. Interrelated problems in growing-up, education, free-time etc. are not obedient to disciplinary boundaries. And so do the educational policies and practices.

A typical example of such a broad approach is offered by the so-called *community school*, an extended school programme which refers to a package of facilities to benefit the neighbourhood, being arranged around a school in an area of social disadvantage. In addition to the school itself, both pedagogical and socio-cultural institutions co-operate in the project, along with social work organisations, the police, and basic health care facilities for parents and children. Various sports and leisure facilities may co-operate in the community school, and share its philosophy. District and municipal governments administer the public community school, but there is also enough scope for co-operation with institutes for special education and health and social work facilities.

An intriguing *Idealtipe*, however not completely different from the community school, is offered by the *magnet school*. This school-type can be found scarcely in our Western-European countries, but there is a real magnet school movement in the US, just like the community school in primary and secondary education. Magnet schools, by preference arranged in poor city-parts, are 'attractive', for pupils and their parents (even for well-to-do parents), because of their special

⁵⁰. C.J.M. Schuyt, *Kwetsbare jongeren en hun toekomst. Een beleidsadvies gebaseerd op een literatuurverkenning*. Rijswijk: Ministerie van WVC, 1995. (English version: *Vulnerable Youth and their Future. A Policy Recommendation based on Literature Research*. Rijswijk: Ministry of WVC, 1995.)

focuses, varying from arts, geometry, ICT, economy, nature e.g., they are competitive to a certain extent, and linked to the school-district's (small) economies, and a moderate instrument of desegregation – just like some community-schools.

‘Moderate’, as we know from the work of the famous American school desegregation policy researcher and Harvard Graduate School of Education emeritus professor Charles Willie: neither a busing system nor a racially controlled school assignment policy can solve school segregation, but an income-based school choice controlled system can do so ... to a certain extent.⁵¹

In the Dutch context such a policy is impossible, due to a schooling system, enshrined in Article 23 of the Constitution, which grants parents the right to get government support for schools based on the Christian faith, or any other, and school boards the right to refuse children who do not assume (or: are assumed not) to espouse that belief.⁵² “The Constitution makes educational segregation a fact in the Netherlands, and that is appalling,” the former Amsterdam social-democratic alderman of Work and Income, Education, Youth, Diversity and Urban Policy, Ahmed Aboutaleb (born in Morocco⁵³), said in 2005. His Rotterdam Christian-democratic colleague, Leonard Geluk, a solid Article 23 defender, agrees in 2008 with that: in his city, with 70 percent immigrant children, any desegregation policy which focuses on a fifty-fifty distribution will fail: only quality policy can help.⁵⁴

Community school and magnet school are two nice examples, merely, of experimental situations, which are attractive for multidisciplinary urban research and innovation, for teaching and teacher training and for (mid-career) professionalisation purposes at the same time. Within these contexts, segmented knowledge, which professionals acquire during their initial training, is no longer sufficient for joined-up thinking and action needed for cross-service working. *New professionals are required*, in school classes and in and around the school, professionals who have the ambition to function as intermediaries. The need for such an approach is immense, especially since the vast majority of municipalities in the country who decide to

⁵¹. From 1987 on, e.g. M. Alves & C. Willie, ‘Controlled Choice Assignments: a New and more Effective Approach to School Desegregation’. *The Urban Review*, 19, 2, 1987, 67-88. Cf. Notten (2004), p. 116-139.

⁵². Cf. Article 24 of the Belgian Constitution.

⁵³. From 2009 on, Mr Aboutaleb will become Mayor of Rotterdam. He is the first ‘Dutch-Moroccan’ mayor of the Netherlands.

⁵⁴. Cf. the Roger Cohen article in *International Herald Tribune*, p. 5, and Derk Walters, ‘Het gymnasium is wit. Segregatie in voortgezet onderwijs vrijwel onoplosbaar’, *NRC Handelsblad*, Zaterdag & cetera addendum, 19/20 July 2008, p. 10-11.

implement this approach (80%) admit that they have little or no knowledge of the subject.

More than these two school examples of our Growing up in the City activities can be given, in the field of youth care, youth-at-risk, parental school participation, educational renewal, uplifting the city-districts social quality, tracing and stimulating talented youth, constructing and maintaining longitudinal support systems students (age: 12-23) from preparatory vocational education via advanced vocational education till higher education, urban regeneration, social cohesion projects, etc.

Our Growing up in the City Centre opted to take education, research and the innovation of schools and social services *and* the advanced training of teachers and social workers as *shared focal points*. The centre works on good co-operation patterns, both in relation to the relevant disciplines of Rotterdam University, the municipality and the city districts of Rotterdam, and other participants.

Doing so, the master-course and the research centre duet is a kind of a motorcycle-combination. Master-students are expected to gain knowledge that transcends their own area of expertise.⁵⁵ In our opinion, every highly-educated urban professional must be able to communicate and co-operate with professionals from other services and sectors. They need to have understanding of the variety of differences between areas of expertise, and to transcend these differences of course. The competence to look beyond boundaries is becoming increasingly important – as nearly all problems in youth care organisations can be derived from the *lack of co-operation* between youth-workers and their internal and external colleagues; this type of specialisation is the dark side of professionalism.

As a principle, this crossing-the-borders-ambition is both part of the research centre and the master-programme. Thanks to the small size of the student groups, a collaborative form of teaching, researching and innovation-practicing can be achieved. This is why this kind of advanced studying can be labelled as *a research laboratory for enriching professional experience*, for applying (and restructuring) theoretical insights, and for developing innovative practices within a stretching but, of course, protective environment.

Both the research centre and the master-course are rooted firmly in the Rotterdam social and educational field, so consequently the staff-student relation

⁵⁵. Cf. Schuyt, 1995.

differs quite a lot from a traditional one. Staff and students on the one hand, and Rotterdam professionals and their institutions on the other are *partners* in their study research and innovation ambitions. As noted earlier, the master-course serves as a working-place where practical and policy problems are explored and revised, through research and continual development of the course.

The average age of our master-students is about 33 years. In the first year of the course, students are involved in small research centre's projects in a school or social work field which is familiar to them, for about 25% of the time, in the second year they participate, during nearly two-third of the time in more extensive, 'unfamiliar' or multidisciplinary projects of the centre.⁵⁶

In that research centre itself, about 25 assistant-professors and researchers are employed, all of them part-time, as they work primarily as teacher-trainers and social workers-educators in their own Faculty institutes. In their research time, they are coaching and training (bachelor and master) students, and they are participating in several Rotterdam research and innovation (and some Ph.D) projects. Six years after the centre started, this combination proves to be a challenging one, as the teacher-trainers and social workers educators get and create opportunities (1) to improve their teaching, and (2) to renew continuously their courses, (3) they can contribute to the social and educational quality of the city, and, *last but not least*: (4) they can strengthen the inquisitive and researching orientation of their students, whether these are future or mid-career professionals.

A fifth aspect will be sketched in the concluding paragraph.

A conclusion: from school knowledge via reflection *in action* to reflection *on action*

The American philosopher Donald Schön contrasted a certain epistemology of practice which he labelled as 'school knowledge' with his own proposal of a 'reflection-in-action'. This challenging idea refers to the fact that a professional's knowledge mostly is implied by his practical decisions – just like a pre-professional dentist in his daily work 'thinks with his fingers'. But a dentist needs to keep up his

⁵⁶. More about this Rotterdam researching-and-teaching-arrangement can be found in a British-Danish-Dutch MPA-courses comparison in: J. Benington, J. Hartley, J.C. Ry Nielsen, A.L.T. Notten, 'Innovation, design and delivery of MPA programmes for public leaders and managers in Europe.' *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, 21, 4, 2008, 383-399.

knowledge and his skilfulness, regularly and explicitly, and as a professional he has to deliver his contributions to the maintaining and the modernisation of the profession. Therefore, being or becoming a teacher or a social worker, requires to be(come) a skilful and responsible practitioner, one has to perform a kind of artistry which good teachers and social workers in their everyday work often display (i.e. reflection *in action*).

But any professional is able, or he needs to become so, to reflect about his work and the determinants wherein he is doing his job: reflection *on action*.⁵⁷ He has to contribute to the maintaining and the extension of theories and skills, within a broad societal perspective. And finally, one might expect that full professionals are able to train and to challenge their young colleagues and that they can participate in public debates about the urgency of the work to be done.

Let's put aside hermeneutical deep-thinking, and focus on some reflection-*on-action*-aspects, and as a consequence of a research and innovatory orientation. The question is: how can *teacher training institutes* play a vital role in school renewing processes, how to train future (and mid-career) professionals on several levels – skills, competences, an inquisitive (research) orientation, innovatory capacities, and delivering contributions to the profession?

Everyone can hear in these words the echoes of the so-called *action research*. More than sixty years ago, the word was used at first by Kurt Lewin, who defended the necessity of involving professionals who are interested or concerned in situations to be changed. They need to be involved in the process of planning, elaborating and evaluation. Action research refers, wrote John Elliott, to “the study of a social situation with a view to improving the quality of action within it [...] The total process provides the necessary link between self-evaluation and professional development”⁵⁸ – ‘self-evaluation’ being the development of knowledge through reflection, and ‘professional development’ as the growing competence to improve one’s own professional practice, in a broad sense.

Action research, therefore, has three objectives, and so does an ‘institutionalised’ version (within a research-teaching centre) of action research: professional development of teachers, improving school-practice, and developing and

⁵⁷. Donald A. Schön, *The Reflective Practitioner: How Professionals Think In Action*. New York: Basic Books, 1983.

⁵⁸. John Elliott, *Action Research for Educational Change*. Buckingham: Open University Press, 1991, p. 69.

testing of theories. The classic Teacher-as-Researcher movement refers to the first and the second ambition, prominently. (The third one seems to be a research method, only.)

I would like to broaden the action research typology. According to Donald Schön, the most challenging aspect of action research lies in its widening ambition: “The complexity, uncertainty, instability, uniqueness and value conflicts which are increasingly perceived as central to the world of (current) practice.”⁵⁹ Situations in professional practice are more than easily-to-be-solved problems by a convenient and stepwise goal-means-approach. Mostly they are problematic situations, in which professionals found and enrich their ‘intuitive’ ways of action. These practical and tacit solutions need to be made explicit in action research.⁶⁰

The Rotterdam action research and teacher training combination can be represented within this broader perspective. Both entered into contacts (and contracts) with schools, and urban youth-care and youth-policy institutions. The partners hand over simultaneously. For the benefit of the city partners *and* the Rotterdam University partners: both sides do learn so much from each other that the hasty metaphor in the beginning – an ‘adoption’ of the city’s institutions by Rotterdam University – was left rapidly.

As promised, the fifth aspect of our researching-teaching-innovation-triad, supported by our motorcycle-combination of the research centre and the master course. In 2007 we started a challenging, and sometimes risky innovation project in which teachers and youth and social workers improve their professional competences by doing research *themselves*. Of course, they are not researchers as such, but they get facilities to understand and to interpret their work conditions and to strengthen their performance and outcome. These practitioners-as-researchers are supported by our Research centre’s researchers, as their research work time is being financed by the Dutch Ministry of Education.⁶¹

⁵⁹. Schön (1983), p. 14.

⁶⁰. Cf. P. Ponte, ‘Action Research as a Further Education Strategy for School Counselling and Guidance.’ *Educational Action Research*, 3, 3, 1995, 287-303.

⁶¹. The backgrounds: this Education Department’s programme is abbreviated as RAAK (Regional Attention and Action for Knowledge circulation). It aims to improve knowledge exchange between professional practices and Universities of Applied sciences. Subsidies can be awarded to regional innovation programmes that are aimed at the exchange of knowledge, and are executed by a consortium of one or more education institutes and one or more local institutions (and businesses as well), so-called ‘alliances’. These regional innovation programmes have to focus on innovation demands in the region. In addition to the aim of strengthening the bridging function of the universities

My conclusion is: teacher trainers and their institutes, social workers educators, researchers of our research centre, teachers at primary and secondary schools and school-directors, social workers and politicians in town districts, master-of-Urban-Education-students: they all can learn so much from each other, and they all can contribute to the social and educational quality of the city. Being partners, they can take advantage of each other: researching, improving teachers training, solving problems, professionalisation, and above all: strengthening the immigrants perspectives of functional integration ... instead of pampering them multiculturally, as was proclaimed a quarter of a century ago.

and local and regional professional innovativeness, the RAAK scheme also aims to generate and distribute policy relevant information and best practices regarding new and existing forms of collaboration and activities in the field of knowledge exchange between universities of applied sciences (cf. <http://www.innovatie-alliantie.nl/?id=492>.)

Divide and conquer? Add and subtract?
**Approaches to strengthening the mathematical content knowledge of
teacher education students for primary schools in Ireland**

Elizabeth Oldham

Trinity College, University of Dublin, and Froebel College of Education
Ireland

eoldham@tcd.ie

Ruth Forrest

Froebel College of Education
Ireland

ruth.forrest@froebel.ie

Abstract: This paper addresses the problem of poor mathematical content knowledge among prospective teachers. It considers primary student-teachers attending one College of Education in Ireland. In recent years, students in the college have been randomly assigned to “mixed ability” groups for their Mathematics course; the range of prior knowledge in the groups has caused difficulties. Students entering the programme in Autumn 2007 were eventually regrouped according to their scores on a standardised test of primary school mathematics. The groups were then taught essentially the same material but with somewhat different scope and emphasis. While further investigation is needed, this exploratory study suggests that the positive effects of teaching and learning in less widely divergent groups outweighed the negative effects associated with “setting”. Evidence for raising the entry level required in Mathematics for primary teaching is also presented.

This paper addresses a current issue in mathematics education: the mathematical content knowledge of prospective teachers. It investigates the content knowledge of students attending a teacher education course in one College of Education in Ireland and preparing to teach in primary schools (grades preK – 6).

In addition to studying Mathematics Teaching Methods, all students at the college attend a course in Mathematics. The wide range in the students’ levels of achievement in mathematics, and the limited resources (of time and personnel) available in the college, cause problems in teaching the course. The paper considers two approaches to the problems. One is aimed at improving the situation for students participating in the course by dividing the students into two groups, not (as

heretofore) randomly, but according to performance on a standardised test. The second looks for evidence as to whether increasing the entrance requirements in mathematics, and hence excluding lower-performing students, might improve the relevant mathematical skills that graduates of the programme will possess. As the paper deals only with one cohort of first-year students at one college, its exploratory nature must be emphasised.

1. Review of literature and the Irish context

This section discusses mathematical knowledge, especially the mathematical knowledge of prospective teachers. It relates international findings to the Irish context.

Teachers' knowledge and its implications for teaching have been the subject of many research papers the last two decades. In structuring and reporting research, Shulman's (1986, 1987) categorisation of types of teacher knowledge – in particular, *content knowledge*, *pedagogical content knowledge* and *pedagogical knowledge* – has proved helpful. This is reflected in the use of his classification, or variants of it, in major overviews of the field (for example Brown & Borko, 1992; da Ponte & Chapman, 2006; Hill, Sleep, Lewis & Ball, 2007; Jaworski & Gellert, 2003; and Sowder, 2007). The present paper focuses on mathematical content knowledge, especially of students in teacher education programmes. Evidence from the research overviews shows the importance of such knowledge for teaching, and highlights the inadequacy of knowledge possessed by some prospective teachers. Brown & Borko (1992, p. 220) stated that '[f]indings from several of the research programs confirm the importance of strong preparations in one's content area prior to student teaching.... Unfortunately, research over the period also suggests that prospective teachers often do not have adequate content knowledge when they begin student teaching.' Sowder's more recent account is similar: 'too few classroom teachers have the [appropriate kind of] mathematical knowledge.... Preservice teachers at all levels have been found to know rules and procedures but lack knowledge of concepts and reasoning skills' (Sowder, 2007, p. 163). The type of mathematical knowledge to which Sowder refers is not necessarily that found in senior school, college or university programmes; rather, it includes what Ma (1999) called "profound

understanding of fundamental mathematics” – mathematics such as that in the primary school curriculum.

Deficiencies in mathematical knowledge are not restricted to potential or practising teachers. The so-called “mathematics problem” – poor mathematical content knowledge among school leavers progressing to third-level programmes requiring mathematical competence – has been discussed in the United Kingdom for some years (Engineering Council, 2000; Smith, 2004). Latterly, the description and discussion have become common in Ireland also. At the Second National Conference on Research in Mathematics Education (Close, Corcoran & Dooley, 2007), more than half the papers were concerned with third-level study and/or teacher education, and addressed the mathematical knowledge, beliefs, attitudes and reflections of two categories of students: those taking mathematics-related or technology-related courses, and those in teacher education programmes. The findings echo those in the international literature.

There is an Irish “mathematics problem” at school level also. Studies have identified evidence of undue emphasis on procedural rather than conceptual approaches, with priority given to preparing for overly predictable state examinations (see for example Close & Oldham, 2005; NCCA, 2005). The fact that the Irish school mathematics syllabuses are offered at three levels – described below – leads to early differentiation into ability-related “sets” or “streams” in Irish schools. Elwood and Carlisle (2003), in a study of gender and achievement in the Irish State examinations, note problems with “tiered” levels of examination entry, relating to perception and affect as well as achievement. They highlight the seminal work of Boaler (1997) with regard to teaching styles, gender and setting in the United Kingdom. This referred, *inter alia*, to “top set” mathematics classes having a culture of speed, pressure and competition, and being rewarded for correct answers rather than for developing understanding: hence, encouraging an emphasis on procedures rather than concepts.

It remains to consider the transition from school to college. Entry to third-level programmes in Ireland is based chiefly on performance in the “Leaving Certificate”, the high-stakes examination taken at the end of second-level schooling. In this examination, subjects are offered at three levels, “Higher”, “Ordinary” and (for some

subjects, including Mathematics) “Foundation”. Scores in each subject are reported in terms of “grades”, with grades A, B, C, and D at each level regarded as “passes” at that level, and other grades regarded as “failures”. Students typically offer seven subjects. For the purposes of entry to third-level programmes, each “pass” grade at Higher and Ordinary level is assigned a number of “points” as shown in Figure 1. Assignment of places is then carried out as follows.

- Applicants are awarded points for each of the subjects taken; the sum of their six highest scores constitutes their overall points score.
- Individual programmes may have specific requirements that render some would-be candidates ineligible.
- Places in each programme are offered to eligible candidates on the basis of their points scores; thus, entry is competitive, with standards set by eligible applicants.

For the majority of programmes, a grade of at least D in Ordinary level Mathematics is required. Such a grade can be obtained largely by knowledge of rules and procedures (not necessarily of concepts) in just some syllabus areas – not always areas most useful to candidates later. A study of primary student-teachers by Hourigan and O’Donoghue (2007) found highly significant correlation ($\rho = 0.657$, $N = 159$, $p < 0.01$) between their sample’s Leaving Certificate Mathematics grades and the students’ performance on a test mainly of primary school mathematics, although some good Leaving Certificate performers did remarkably poorly in the test.

Leaving Certificate Grade		Points
Higher level	Ordinary level	
A1		100
A2		90
B1		85
B2		80
B3		75
C1		70
C2		65
C3	A1	60
D1		55
D2	A2	50
D3	B1	45
	B2	40
	B3	35
	C1	30
	C2	25
	C3	20
	D1	15
	D2	10
	D3	5

Figure 1: Leaving Certificate grades and corresponding points

2. The experiment: rationale and execution

The main route into primary teaching in Ireland is via a Bachelor's degree in Education (B. Ed.), with teaching in general taking place in one of five Colleges of Education. In recent years, the mathematical content knowledge of some entrants has been a matter of concern in all five colleges. This section of the paper describes an experimental response at one college (where the authors teach).

As indicated above, the programme includes a compulsory course in Mathematics. This was designed to offer continuing professional development in mathematical content knowledge and to address students' conceptions of mathematics, especially the view of the subject as a set of procedures rather than a meaningful structure. Recently – as a response to the “mathematics problem” – the course has been revised to address profound understanding of fundamental mathematics more directly, while still aiming to broaden students' conceptions of the subject.

The intake of up to 90 students per annum has been split randomly for Mathematics into two groups, taught at present by the two authors. The group sizes and the spread of ability (or attainment) have made it difficult to cater appropriately for all individuals; timetabling constraints obviate forming more than two groups. Attempts have been made to provide tutorials for lower-performing students, but attendance has been disappointingly poor. Lower-achieving students in general have passed the annual examinations in Mathematics; but their success may have stemmed from well-honed skills in procedural learning and practice, rather than conceptual knowledge. To improve the learning environment for the cohort as a whole, an alternative approach was considered: regrouping the students according to their performance on a suitable test, so that the class culture and teaching could be better matched to students' needs.

This approach was tried with the cohort of 80 students entering the programme in Autumn 2007. The test used was one of a set of standardised tests – the SIGMA-T

tests⁶² – designed for Irish primary school classes: in particular, that intended for ten-year-old children. It was administered without prior warning in the fifth lecture of nineteen for first-year students. No student obtained full marks (59); some scored under 40 and demonstrated very poor skill and understanding. This was taken as strong evidence of a need for remedial action.

Issues with regard to differentiation, outlined earlier, indicate that grouping may be regarded as problematic. However, a “straw poll” of students in the first author’s group gave support, and no overt opposition, to differentiation by performance. Subsequently, therefore, the cohort was rearranged into two classes: those scoring over 50 (in this paper called “Group 1”), and those scoring 50 or less (“Group 2”). Eleven students absent for the test selected their own destination. A few “exchanges” were allowed, but there was no pressure for mass migration either way. Group 1 ultimately contained 52 students and Group 2 contained 28, allowing for greater individual attention in the latter. The groups were then taught essentially the same material, with more focus in Group 1 on applications to teaching and on addressing harder problems. The groups were brought together for the final two lectures, problem-solving sessions involving identification and generalisation of patterns.

When the cohort was divided, the lecturer for Group 1 (the first author) noted that the class in general appeared to move fast through the material and seemed confident in addressing challenges. However, it was important to try to obviate a culture of competition and a focus only on speed and accuracy, as identified by Boaler (1997) for “top sets”; so she frequently encouraged students to ask questions. Such encouragement proved necessary. The lecturer’s “log”, written with regard to one lecture, records: *‘there is still a wide spread of attainment in the group, though the “strugglers” were quick enough to get moments of insight from concrete materials or in other ways.’* For the following lecture, the “log” reads: *‘there was no need to work the base six examples with the class ...; I went over the details with a very small group while the rest worked or even zoomed through the worksheet.’* The ‘very small group’ was formed round one courageous student who did ask for help, hopefully providing a role model for other members of the class.

⁶² Wall, E., & Burke, K. (2007). SIGMA-T Mathematics Attainment Tests. Dublin: C. J. Fallon.

With Group 2, taught by the second author, care had to be taken to boost their self-esteem and confidence. From the outset, students made some self-deprecating remarks about their abilities; also, they were concerned about sitting the common end-of-year examination. The second author also re-iterated the importance of students asking questions during and/or after lectures. As the students became more confident in asking questions and feeling less self-conscious, a new energy in the class was palpable and there were several “Eureka” moments.

For the end-of-year examination, as usual, seventy percent of the marks were allocated to doing mathematics (“sums”) and thirty percent to writing about it (“essays”). The “sums” aimed to test conceptual and procedural knowledge of the topics covered: all relevant to primary mathematics. Of the two “essay” questions, one required students to write about (hence, reflect on) critical incidents in their own school mathematics careers; the other involved discussion of problem-solving activities.

3. Research questions and methodology

The main questions explored in the study are the following.

- With regard to the division of the students into groups on the basis of performance:
 - How did the two groups perform?
 - What are the relationships between the students’ Leaving Certificate grades, their standardised test scores, and their scores on the end-of-year Mathematics examination in the college?
 - What relevant information can be found in students’ accounts of their school mathematics careers?
 - What are the students’ reactions to and reflections on dividing the cohort by performance on the standardised test?
 - Based on these data, should the approach to dividing the cohort be continued?

- With regard to entry to the B. Ed. programme, is there evidence in favour of requiring a higher minimum Leaving Certificate grade in Mathematics?

Quantitative data for each student consist of the relevant group label (1 or 2) and four scale scores: the student's SIGMA-T score; the end-of-year examination scores, the "sums" and "essays" components being treated separately; and the "points score" associated with the student's Leaving Certificate grade in Mathematics. Analyses were carried out using SPSS.

Qualitative data were obtained from the autobiographical essays written by the students. Further data were collected by means of a brief questionnaire administered in Autumn 2008. The students were asked to indicate whether they perceived the results of the Leaving Certificate, SIGMA-T test and end-of-year examination to be accurate indicators of their mathematical ability. The questionnaire also requested feedback on levels of contentment at three points in the year: after their initial placement in Group 1 or 2; at the end of the lecture term; and after taking the examination and obtaining their results.

4. Results

This section first describes the results obtained from analyses of the test and examination scores. It then addresses findings from the autobiographical essays, and finally considers the follow-up questionnaires.

Test and examination scores

All but one of the students passed the end-of-year examination by obtaining a total score of 40% or more. The one exception, having passed all other subjects, was deemed to have "passed by compensation". Performance on the four scale variables is summarised in Table 1.

Measure	Variable	SIGMA-T (out of 59)	Sums (out of 70)	Essays (out of 30)	Points (out of 100)
Mean		51.1	49.3	19.8	48.9
Standard deviation		5.1	11.1	3.3	14.7
N		69	80	80	76

Table 1: numbers presenting, means and standard deviations for scores for the whole group

Correlations between the three measures of mathematical performance were all at least moderate and highly significant. The strongest correlation occurred between the Leaving Certificate points score and the end-of-year score on the “sums” ($r = 0.528$, $N = 76$, $p = 0.000$); that between the SIGMA-T and “sums” scores was a little lower ($r = 0.414$, $N = 69$, $p = 0.000$). Correlation between any of these variables and the “essays” score was low (almost zero in the case of the SIGMA-T and essay scores) and was not significant.

Key results for this paper concern the relative performance of the two groups. Descriptive statistics for the variables “sums”, “essays” and “points” for the groups, and the results of carrying out independent-sample t-tests for each of these variables (with the assumption of equal variances justified in all cases), are shown in Table 2.

Group		N	Mean	Standard deviation	Standard error	df	t-test sig. (2-tailed)
Sums	1	52	52.3	10.3	1.4	78	.001
	2	28	43.7	10.5	2.0		
Essays	1	52	19.5	3.6	.5	78	.315
	2	28	20.3	2.7	.5		
Points	1	49	52.0	14.2	2.0	74	.013
	2	27	43.3	14.1	2.7		

Table 2: Descriptive statistics and t-tests for equality of means for Groups 1 and 2

The highly significant difference in the mean “sums” scores – 8.6 in favour of Group 1 – indicates the ongoing different performance level between the groups. However, there were several strong performances by students in Group 2 in the end-of-year examination, often via sound “sums” score and good essay marks, while some students in Group 1 produced undistinguished end-of-year performances. Study of individual cases is outside the scope of the paper, but it is worth noting that a number of the latter students had low Leaving Certificate grades (Ordinary level B2 or below). For the present study, the actual content of the essays is of more interest than the scores, for which there was no significant difference between the groups.

Leaving Certificate results were available for 76 of the students. Their grades were distributed as shown in Table 3.

Level / Grade	N	%
Higher level (grades B1 – D2)	18	23.7

Ordinary level Grade A1 ⁶³	9	11.8
Ordinary level Grade A2	8	10.5
Ordinary level Grade B1	13	17.1
Ordinary level Grade B2	17	22.4
Ordinary level Grade B3	4	5.3
Ordinary level Grade C1	4	5.3
Ordinary level Grade C2	1	1.3
Ordinary level Grade D1	1	1.3
Ordinary level Grade D3	1	1.3
Total	76	100

Table 3: Distribution of Leaving Certificate grades

Just eleven (14.5%) of the candidates had obtained an Ordinary B3 or less, while nearly a quarter had taken the Higher level examination. The effect of filtering out lower-performing students is explored via Table 4.

Grade achieved or exceeded	Points	Yes/No	N	Sums mean (SD)	SIGMA-T mean (SD)
Ordinary level D3	5	Yes	76	49.3 (11.1)	51.1 (3.3)
Ordinary level B2	40	Yes	65	50.6 (10.1)	51.9 (3.9)
		No	11	42.1 (15.8)	46.5 (7.3)
Ordinary level B1 / Higher level D3	45	Yes	48	52.3 (9.3)	52.6 (3.8)
		No	28	43.2 (12.0)	48.6 (5.3)
Ordinary level A2 / Higher level D2	50	Yes	35	54.2 (9.1)	53.1 (3.7)
		No	41	45.3 (11.5)	49.5 (5.0)

Table 4: Statistics for groups defined by different cut-off points in Leaving Certificate grades

In the case of the groups defined by obtaining or failing to obtain at least an Ordinary level B2, the mean difference for “sums” is significant ($df = 74$, $p = .019$), but that for “SIGMA-T” does not reach significance ($df = 7.6$ [equal variances not assumed], $p = .077$). For the requirement of a B1, the mean differences for both “sums” and “SIGMA-T” are highly significant ($df = 74$, $p = .000$ and $df = 64$, $p = .001$ respectively). This may be an argument for requiring a grade of at least an Ordinary B1, as a predictor of better skill in primary mathematics.

Qualitative data: the students' essay answers

The students' answers to the essay question on critical incidents in their experience of learning mathematics revealed several themes. Ones relevant to this paper refer to grouping practices, asking questions in class, and the general culture of second-level education.

⁶³ One candidate who took the examination before the letter grades were divided into numbered bands, and who obtained an Ordinary level A, is included in this category.

With regard to grouping practices, the notion of setting or streaming was not greatly criticised. Rather, many students referring to the ‘relief’ of moving from Higher to Ordinary level Mathematics classes during the Leaving Certificate course. Such a move is often the student’s own choice: *‘I put my foot down and insisted on being moved to the ordinary class, where I was much more comfortable and capable.’* A few criticisms did emerge, for example: *‘Streaming lowers a child’s self-esteem’* and *‘the groups used to be named the “brainy” group and the “thick” group!’* While some students reported feeling like “second-class citizens” as a result of not being in the top stream, there were many exceptions, with reference made to teachers restoring the confidence of lower-performing students.

Issues around questions in class arose in several accounts. Episodes were mentioned with regard to college as well as school experience. One student from Group 2 commented: *‘Looking back, it was silly not to have asked for help but I ... certainly will be asking a lot more questions ... next year.’* The courageous member of Group 1 who asked for assistance, as mentioned above, identified this episode as one of her critical incidents and noted that others benefited from her action.

The final theme noted here throws light on the school “mathematics problem”. A number of students made comments illustrative of a focus on acquiring procedural rather than conceptual knowledge, as discussed earlier.

Questionnaires

Most students in Group 1 reported that the three sets of results represented them accurately, while many of those in Group 2 felt that the SIGMA-T test under-represented their ability. Those same students in Group 2 answered, in the main, that the Leaving Certificate and college results were accurate indicators of their proficiency.

Regarding levels of contentment during and after the academic year, students in Group 1 were pleased to be there, feeling suitably challenged and yet confident enough (mostly) to ask questions. A minority reported finding the pace rather fast and/or the group size intimidating, but in general their worries were removed by their

good examination results. (In case unease persisted in Autumn 2008, students in Group 1 were invited to ask – privately – to move to Group 2 if they so wished; no-one requested a move.) Those in Group 2 had mixed feelings initially, as they feared being viewed as incompetent and worried about passing the common examination. In the end, however, there was a very positive response, encompassing relief that they were encouraged to ask, and praised for asking, questions. They were pleased and often surprised at their results, and many students made recommendations that the class groups remain the same for their second year.

5. Discussion

The results of administering the SIGMA-T test to the first-year cohort of students in the college in Autumn 2007 confirmed the existence of a “mathematics problem” for the group. The poor mathematical content knowledge of some students pointed to a need for differentiating the teaching – addressed by dividing the group according to their test results – and perhaps also for seeking to revise the entry requirements for future intakes.

Differentiation by standardised test score

At first sight, the most notable outcome is that all students passed the end-of-year examination (directly or by compensation). However, as noted earlier, this is not unusual; it does not automatically indicate the success of regrouping according to the SIGMA-T results. A better indicator is provided by the students’ own reported satisfaction, as described above.

The authors suggest that grouping may be advisable, both for the current students and also for their successors. Reasons include the following findings:

- The statistics bear out the ongoing difference in attainment of the groups, reinforcing the idea that students may be suited by approaches pitched at somewhat different levels;
- The atmosphere in the groups, as observed by the authors in their “lecturer” roles and as confirmed by students’ comments, suggested that many students

were functioning at their optimum capacity and felt confident in their respective groups;

- The growth in confidence and notable success of some students in Group 2 point to the benefits of the approach, at least for these students.

Possible disadvantages include the following:

- Despite the lecturers' efforts to develop a culture of openness, co-operation and enquiry, students may still find it challenging to ask for help;
- This may be particularly true of less high-performing students in Group 1, who may be intimidated by the performance of their most able peers and by the size of this – larger – group (timetabling constraints obviating formation of more and smaller groups);
- The self-esteem of some students assigned to Group 2 may be damaged.

The Leaving Certificate points scores were slightly better predictors of performance on the “sums” component of the end-of-year examination than were the SIGMA-T results. This may reflect greater similarity in the style of the examinations and also students' preparation for taking them. (By contrast, the SIGMA-T test was given without prior warning, in order to gauge what primary school content knowledge was immediately available to the students.) However, for grouping in future, the Leaving Certificate grades and the SIGMA-T scores might be considered together.

Entry requirements

With regard to increasing the mathematical attainment level required in order to lower the numbers entering teacher education programmes with poor content knowledge, both this study and that of Hourigan and O'Donoghue (2007) suggest that, although higher Leaving Certificate grades do not guarantee good subsequent performance, they render it more likely. A “points requirement” of 45 might be suitable. (As there are far more applicants for than places in Irish teacher education programmes, this might not reduce the number of entrants overall.) Alternatively, more weight might be given to Mathematics in compiling an “overall points scores” for application to Colleges of Education.

Conclusion

This paper addresses the issue of improving the mathematical content knowledge of entrants to primary teacher education programmes in Ireland, either by differentiating the approaches to teaching students who arrive in the college or by imposing higher entrance requirements in Mathematics. It describes a study of first-year students in one College of Education (in which the authors teach).

With respect to increasing the entry requirements, the findings of the study coincide with those of other Irish investigations in highlighting the poor performance, on tests of even quite elementary mathematical content knowledge, by many students who enter with low grades in Mathematics. The issue of reviewing entry requirements in Mathematics can be regarded as urgent for addressing the “mathematics problem”.

Meanwhile, it is important to give the best possible service to students who arrive in third-level courses with poor backgrounds in mathematics. For prospective teachers, this is necessary both for themselves and for the children they will teach in the future. The study explored effects of dividing the cohort of students by performance on a standardised test of primary school mathematics. It appears that the benefits of teaching and learning in more homogeneous groups outweighed disadvantages associated with “setting”. In both groups, creating a culture that encouraged students to ask questions and obtain help when needed was crucial. The authors plan to continue the experiment of dividing classes, hopefully improving the learning environment for each cohort as a whole and empowering lower-performing students to address their difficulties confidently.

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Teachers' opinion on elementary education and school children's achievements

Prof. Malgorzata Żytka

University of Warsaw
Faculty of Education
Central Examination Board

Introduction

In the paper, I will present the selected results of a nationwide research of the nine-year-old pupils who finish their first key stage in a primary school which was conducted in 2006 by the Central Examination Board. The purpose of this research was to collect information about a level of mastering the basic skills (language and math) by the nine-year-old school children. Apart from that, there were analysed the environmental and school conditions of these educational achievements. The research was financed by the European Social Fund.

Two main research questions were posed:

1. What is the level of the educational achievements of the children who completed their elementary education in the scope of language and math skills?
2. What is the influence of the environment and school on the skills learned by the children?

The school factors included, among others: education and job seniority of a teacher, as well as opinion of the teachers about the fundamental aims and methods of teaching the language and math during the first three years of the primary school. In the research took part 2,500 pupils from the third grades of the primary school from three different environments: rural, urban and rural, urban, as well as 137 teachers.

In this paper, I will try to give an answer to the following question: **is there any relation between the opinions and declarations of the teachers regarding the aims and teaching methods in the elementary education and the achievements of the school children.**

1. Description of the scales that characterise the opinions of the teachers

In order to examine the opinions of the primary education teachers about teaching the language and math during the first three years of the primary school, there were prepared two questionnaires. The first one included 40 statements regarding the aims and methods of the language teaching, whereas, the second one included 40 parallel statements regarding teaching math. The questionnaires were filled out by 137 teachers.

The answers collected from the teachers were subject to a statistical analysis. There were used factor analysis and CLV algorithm (Clustering Around Latent Variables)⁶⁴. As a result of the conducted analysis, at first there were selected 48 statements and out of them were created six scales the features of which are compared in the table 1. below. Here is a detailed description of the received scales.

Name of the scale	Number of items	Reliability (α-Cronbach) Cronbach's alpha test
Educational Pessimism	7	0,677
Anti-group work	5	0,645
Educational Formalism	14	0,796
Child Self - Initiative	6	0,623
Active Participation	10	0,731
Creativity Development	6	0,655

Table 1. Reliability of the scales created from the selected items of the questionnaires designed for the teachers.

⁶⁴ Vigneau E. and Qannari E. M. (2003) *Clustering of variables around latent components*. Communications in Statistics - Simulation and Computation. 32(4): str. 1131-1150.

Educational Pessimism

This scale includes the items that express the conviction about minimal intellectual abilities, as well as skills of the pupils from the first three grades of the primary school. Therefore, it included opinions about lack of cognitive independence of the students, the teachers did not believe that school children could find some interesting solutions to a given task, as well as statements that express reluctance of the teachers to allow the children undertake some less formal and more spontaneous educational activities.

Anti-group work

The scale includes statements according to which the respondents do not believe that performing the task by all children together has any sense. There is a general conviction that the linguistic or mathematical tasks carried out in a group have smaller educational effect because this results in a situation when only the best student is active, while the rest of the school children who cannot cooperate during the task, simply, waste their time.

Educational Formalism

The content of the items included in this scale induces to state that it measures intensity of an attitude which consists of not very reflexive and rigid teaching of simple schemes and rules acquisition which can be verified by means of simple tasks. A teacher who agrees with the statements included in this scale thinks that the most important is to introduce a formal knowledge regarding the language, as well as practice the algorithms of mathematical operations learned by children, while his or her preferred method of conducting the classes requires from the pupils mostly great dose of discipline and subordination.

Child Self - Initiative

The scale includes statements which accept the need to develop self-independence of the pupils during the educational process. Therefore, it is possible to presume that a teacher who agrees with the statements of this scale appreciates and reinforces the

children's' individual and spontaneous initiative both in terms of solving the tasks and their willingness to share their ideas with others.

Creativity Development

The statements included in this scale create a picture of a teacher who is willing to conduct the classes in a creative and elastic way; a teacher who is ready to use various 'unusual' solutions and believes that teaching should be closely related to everyday life, as well as everyday experiences of the children.

2. Hierarchical Structure of the Scales

Some of the scales presented above which describe the opinions of the teachers proved to be quite closely related, with regard to content, and they are highly correlated with each other:

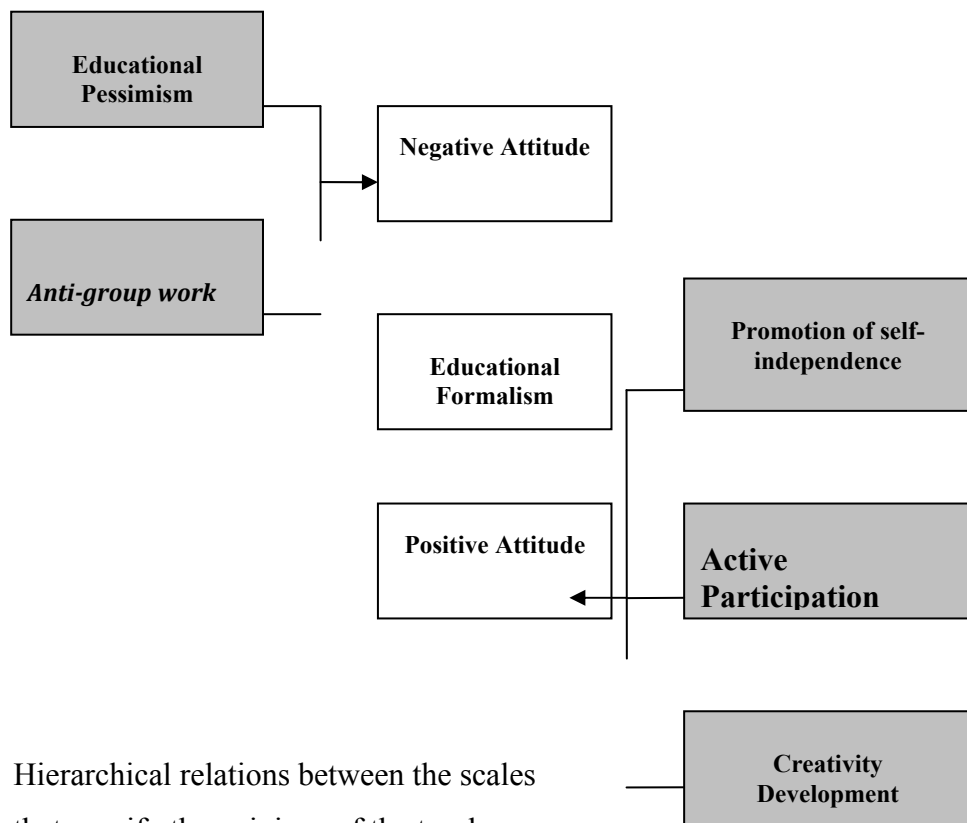
	Educational Pessimism	Anti-group work	Educational Formalism	Child Self - Initiative	Active Participation	Creativity Development
Educational Pessimism	1,00	0,53*	0,25*	-0,16	-0,09	-0,26*
Anti-group work	0,53*	1,00	0,27*	-0,24*	-0,16	-0,29*
Educational Formalism	0,25*	0,27*	1,00	0,19*	0,09	-0,04
Child Self - Initiative	-0,16	-0,24*	0,19*	1,00	0,51*	0,36*
Active Participation	-0,09	-0,16	0,09	0,51*	1,00	0,35*
Creativity Development	-0,26*	-0,29*	-0,04	0,36*	0,35*	1,00

The asterisk (*) signifies correlations which are important at the $\alpha=0,05$ level.

Table 2. Correlations between particular scales of the questionnaires designed for the teachers.

In this situation, it was decided to create a hierarchical structure of the scales (see picture 1.) by combining the most correlated scales:

- From the *Educational Pessimism* and *Anti-group work* scales which characterise by negation of the children’s abilities, as well as approve only the traditional methods of teaching, was created a new scale called ***Negative Attitude***;
- Whereas, from the *Child Self-Initiative*, *Active Participation* and *Creative Development* scales which present constructive approach to the educational process, was created a scale called ***Positive Attitude***.



Picture 1. Hierarchical relations between the scales that specify the opinions of the teachers.

3. Description of a division of the teachers opinions

Finally, in order to describe the opinions of the teachers and analyse their teaching results, there were used 56 from 80 statements included in the questionnaires. The results achieved by the teachers on the above described scales, which characterise their professional opinions, were prescaled to a range from 0 to 1, so that the result ‘0’ applied to a situation when a teacher marks the answer “definitely Yes” with all items included in a given scale, whereas, the result ‘1’ was its opposite, i.e. corresponded to the answer “definitely No” for all the statements.

Consequently, a result '0.5' is a neutral value, the results above 0.5 mean that a respondent agrees with the statements of a given scale which raise with an intensity to 1, while the results below 0.5 mean lack of agreement, with an extreme value in zero. This kind of method facilitates interpretation of the results acquired from particular scales, as well as their comparison.

For the *Educational Pessimism* scale, the results of the teachers spread symmetrically around the average of 0.55, at the standard deviation of 0.11. The extreme quarters of the results for this scale were below 0.46 and above 0.61. Thus, this scale significantly diversifies the teachers, however, on average, the teachers turned out to be slightly more pessimistic (compare the picture 2.). Whereas, the division of the results for the *Anti-Group work* scale clearly shifts to the left: 75% of the respondents' results were below the neutral point of 0.5, at the average of 0.42, and the same dispersion of the results. Therefore, most of the teachers gave negative answers to the statements included in this scale.

Results of the *Negative Attitudes* scale, added above the previous two scales, in connection to the relations described above, spread almost perfectly around the centre of the 0-1 range (median and the average amounted 0.52). Therefore, it is possible to assume that the teacher who participated in the research partially agreed and partially disagreed with the statements included in this scale.

Division of the *Educational Formalism* scale seems almost identical as the division of the *Educational Pessimism* after shifting it by 15 points to the right. Thus, most of the teachers were characterised by the "formal attitude" and the average in this scale amounted 0.69, while 75% of the results was above 0.61. However, it is clear that there is significant intensity of "formalism" among the teachers. The range of the results was from 0.39 to 0.95, and the standard deviation amounted 0.11.

A completely different division is in the case of the four other scales that are combined with each other: *Promotion of Self-Independence*, *Active Participation*, *Creativity Development* and *Positive Attitude*. All of them characterise by slight dispersion and clear shift to the right edge of the 0-1 range. The lowest results for the *Promotion of Self-Independence* and *Active Participation* amounted 0.58, and for the *Creativity Development*, as well as the aggregate *Positive Attitude* scales as much as

0.71 and 0.72, respectively. This means that all the examined teachers agreed with most of the statements that defined the considered scales of opinions.

4. Relations between the results of the school children and opinions of the teachers

The main purpose of the presented research was to diagnose the level of skills of the pupils from the third grades, as well as analysis of the environmental and school conditions on the results that they achieved. Therefore, there was conducted an analysis of correlations between the created coefficients of the teachers' professional opinions and the average level of their pupils' skills. The analysis was conducted with the use of two methods: by counting the Person's correlation coefficient between the results of the school children and opinions of the teachers, as well as by comparing the students' results with the extreme, due to their opinions, groups of teachers. The both methods provided similar results.

Correlations between the achievements of the school children and opinions of the teachers

The table 3. presents values of the correlation coefficients between the results of the teachers on the created scales of opinions and the average results of their pupils⁶⁵.

Name of the Scale	Math Study Skills				Language skills		
	Typical methods	Unusual methods	Communication	Research	Methods	Communication	Research and Creative
Educational Pessimism	-0,13	-0,18*	-0,19*	-0,01	-0,25*	-0,07	-0,12
Anti-group work	-0,06	-0,12	-0,17	-0,01	-0,15	-0,10	-0,11
Negative Attitude	-0,02	-0,12	-0,15	0,01	-0,16	-0,05	-0,12
Educational	0,14	0,14	0,05	0,12	0,03	0,07	0,05

⁶⁵ Description of the examined categories of skills: Study of the primary skills of the pupils from the third grades of the primary school. A report on the quantitative studies, part I, pages 12-109, CKE, Warszawa 2007.

Formalism							
Promotion of self-independence	0,22*	0,21*	0,23*	0,21*	0,18*	0,11	0,09
Active Participation	0,21*	0,11	0,10	0,11	0,08	0,12	0,10
Creativity Development	0,05	0,04	0,01	-0,01	0,04	0,06	0,07
Positive Attitude	0,23*	0,15	0,15	0,14	0,12	0,12	0,12

The asterisk (*) signifies correlations which are important at the $\alpha=0,05$ level.

Table 3. Correlation between opinions of the teachers and average results in their classes.

Among all of the scales that describe the opinions of the teachers, the most statistically important correlations with the results of the pupils has recorded the *Promotion of Self-Independence* scale. Its correlation with all the spheres of examined skills was positive, only for the research and communication language skills they were not statistically significant. Correlation of this scale with the all four groups of math skills was on a similar level and amounted from 0.21 to 0.23, whereas, correlation with the language skills was slightly lower (0.18).

The other scale that turned out to have significant relation to the level of pupil's skills is the *Educational Pessimism*. This group of opinions correlates negatively with all the ranges of skills. The important correlations included math instrumental skills in the unusual situations (-0.18), mathematical communication skills (-0.19) and language skills (-0.25).

The *Active Participation* and *Positive Attitude* scales correlated significantly only with the math instrumental skills. With regard to the remaining coefficients of the teachers' opinions, there were no important correlations with the results of the pupils. It is worth to notice that there is no relation between the *Creativity Development* scale and, for example, the level of math research skills or language research and creative skills of the school children.

Differences in result of the school children from the teachers with extreme diverse opinions

In order to receive deeper insight into correlations between the teachers' opinions and the results of the school children, it was decided to compare, for each of the scales, the results achieved by the children of two groups of teachers, the group which achieves 25% of the highest results for a given scale and a group that achieves 25% of the lowest results.

For the teachers who were divided with regard to the *Promotion of Self-Independence* scale, the differences in the results were the most important. The statistically important results were related to the math skills and language instrumental skills. The pupils of the teachers from the highest four of this scale received, in the sphere of the math research skills, a result which on average was higher by 5.6%, slightly lower difference was in the math instrumental and communication skills (5.2% and 5.1%, respectively). In the sphere of the language instrumental skills, they received a result which was higher by 4.2%.

It is worth to pay attention to the fact that all the teachers in this scale characterised by the results above 0.5, which indicate that they agreed with the statements included in the scale. The average level on the *Promotion of Self-Independence* scale in the 25% of the teachers with lower results for this scale amounted 0.775 (in the higher quarter the teachers' average amounted 0.977). One of the interpretations of this result is as follows: the teachers who gave an answer "I agree" for a statement that was included in this scale can intentionally declare such opinions, but they do not necessary have to agree with them. This can result from a certain method or social pressure, as well as conviction that they should choose this and no other answer. Consequently, they declare something, but do not put these declarations, which could have influence on the results of the pupils, into practice.

Also the *Active Participation* scale showed a statistically important difference, as far as value is concerned (+4.9%), in the pupils' results. In contrast to the previous one, this scale indicates a peculiar influence only on the math instrumental skills. The same effect was received during a study of correlation between the opinions and the school children's results.

In the remaining cases, the difference in the pupils' results, for the extreme group of teachers, did not reach the threshold of the statistical importance. However, when analysing value of the differences, it is necessary to state that, due to small

number of teachers in the extreme groups, the test that were conducted did not exclude a possible existence of potential differences in the pupils' results that have a real and practical importance. In order to verify this kind of possibility, it would be necessary to examine a bigger number of teachers, so that the validity of the tests was higher.

5. Relation between a job seniority, education, as well as level of a teacher's professional promotion and results of the school children

The examined teachers worked as teachers, on average, for 20 years, however, in the 1-3 grades the job seniority amounted, on average, 16.4 years, at the standard deviation of 7.4 and 7.2, respectively. The average achieved results of pupils were counted for each of the teachers. Dependence of force between the job seniority and the results of the school children were estimated by means of correlation coefficient. **In most of the examined spheres of skills, there was no relation between the pupils' level of skills and a teacher's job seniority.** The only statistically important relation regarded the job seniority, as well as research and creative language skills. However, the direction of relations is negative ($r = -0,19$) which means that the pupils of the teachers with longer job seniority achieved considerably worse results in these skills than students of the teachers who worked shorter.

The table 4. presents the achieved results.

	Math Skills				Language Skills		
	Typical methods	Unusual Methods	Communication	Research	Methods	Communication	Research and Creative
Job seniority in general	-0,05	-0,07	-0,04	-0,03	-0,07	0,01	-0,19*
Job seniority in the 1-3 grades	0,04	-0,06	0,05	0,03	0,00	0,05	-0,10

The asterisk (*) signifies correlations which are important at the $\alpha=0,05$ level.

Table 4. Correlations between a job seniority of the teachers and the average results in their classes.

Most of the teacher who took part in the research had Master's Degrees (117 of the respondents: 85.4% on the whole), 9 people had higher professional education and few people chose the category "other". Most of the teachers who participated in the research had a position of a nominated teacher (83 people: 60.6% on the whole), the certified teachers constituted 32% of the research group, 7% either did not give an answer or were at some other level of the professional promotion. For none of the seven spheres of skills that were examined, neither difference between the teachers' education nor diversity between the level of the professional promotion between the teachers did not provide an important result of the test t at the $\alpha=0,05$ level. **Consequently, there was not found any relation between the education, as well as level of the professional promotion and the level of the children's examined skills.**

Conclusion

Description of the received results impels to draw a conclusion that opinions of the teachers are ambiguous and they are not consequent in their declarations. This has been also proved by the distribution analysis of the answers of many teachers that filled out the questionnaires. It often happened that they gave answers which were contradictory with each other and from which resulted that, for instance, they think it is necessary to constantly stimulate the intellectual activity of the children, as well as create conditions that would enable them to develop their creativity, but at the same time, they are supporters of traditional, formal methods of working with children. Therefore, it is possible to assume that part of the answers given by the teachers were only statements. They underlined such statements because they thought that they should behave like that, yet this very often did not have much in common with their real opinions. Consequently, there were difficulties with describing the collected results and necessity to conduct a multi-aspect research of the professional opinions of the teachers, together with a need to observe their work at school.

It is worth to pay attention to the fact that the results of the research show that there is no relation between an educational level of the teachers' education (most of them had higher education), level of their professional promotion, as well as the language and

math skills of the school children. This problem requires deeper analysis regarding teaching and professional training of the teachers that teach children at the primary level.

Evaluating evaluation: a study carried out on 6th grade Natural Sciences' written tests

Cláudia Rodrigues (1) and José Precioso (2)

1- School EB1/JI Quinta de S. Gens, Senhora da Hora, Matosinhos

2- Institute of Education and Psychology, University of Minho, Braga

ABSTRACT

Introduction: Several authors say that tests are the main and, sometimes, the sole mean of evaluating students. If these instruments are frequently used during the evaluation process, than it is essential that the teachers formulate them with technical quality, as on its application often depends the students' obtained grade and, consequently, their future. It was the importance of tests as a (still) privileged tool in the evaluation process and the chance to know its quality that took us to develop this thesis. **Objectives:** 1) To determine if the teacher-formulated tests are conceived to evaluate the specific skills required for scientific literacy; 2) To determine whether those tests evaluate the achievement of the educational goals proposed by Bloom's taxonomy; 3) To analyze the summative evaluation sheets for the 6th grade of Natural Sciences, in what concerns their technical requirements. **Methods:** Recurring to a process of convenience sampling, we used a sample of 24 summative evaluation sheets concerning "Human Reproduction and growth" unit and we performed a content analysis. **Results:** The data brought on by this study states that the largest percentage (90%) of the tests' questions is part of the substantive knowledge skills' category. Items that evaluate other kinds of skills are almost non-existent in the tests; 90% of all of the tests' questions concern the domains of "knowledge" (50%) and "understanding" (40%) – that asserts that the evaluation practices are often reduced to mere memory exercises.

Conclusion: So the results obtained by this study testify the need to improve the process of initial and continuous training of teachers under evaluation.

1. Introduction

Basic Education's Curricular Reorganization has introduced several modifications into the education system in Portugal. All these modifications go in the sense of establishing as the teacher's and school's main mission "not the teaching of disciplinary contents, but the personal competences' development." (Machado, 2002, *in* Perrenoud *et al*, 2002, p.137).

Understood by the 2001 Basic Education National Curriculum as "knowledge in action" or "knowledge in use", the concept of "skill" integrates knowledge, capacities, attitudes and values, and it expresses itself in a rational mobilization of knowledge so as to solve daily common problems (DGEB, 2001).

The document previously referred to encloses skills in a big group named "essential skills", since they are indispensable to the student's growth as an critical, autonomous, reflexive and social individual who needs to integrate a society constantly transforming itself and evolving (DGEB, 2001). These **essential skills** which, in their turn, comprise ten **general skills** that students should develop throughout basic education in all disciplinary and non-disciplinary curricular areas, and **specific skills** to be developed by each of those areas.

In the particular case of the Natural Sciences' area, the essential skills specific for scientific literacy, in its four domains, are designated as: knowledge (substantive, processual and epistemological), reasoning, communication and attitudes.

Although it recommends some methods and strategies to be adopted in the development of those skills, the referred publication does not contemplate, however, the process of evaluating skills and, consequently, the means to be used.

The use of tests' fame as the almost unique and exclusive formal means of evaluation has so generalized that Valadares and Graça (1998) affirm that the test "constitutes the dominant and, sometimes, almost exclusive means of evaluating students" (Valadares and Graça, 1998, p.69).

If tests are determinant in the evaluation process, it is then fundamental that teachers elaborate then with technical quality, for on its application often depend the marks given to students and, consequently, their future.

Basing ourselves on and sharing Cardoso's discourse (*in* Estrela and Nóvoa, 1999, p. 84), "if tests (...) end up determining (...) what is taught and what is learned, then it is possible to infer, via observation of the tests effectively applied, the objectives which effectively have guided teachers and students", then we considered to be pertinent to proceed to their analysis, that is, to verify whether tests elaborated by teachers evaluate the skills specific for scientific literacy and the attainment of Bloom's educational goals, in such a way as to insure the achievement of one of education's general principles – to form "citizens capable to critically and creatively judge the social environment they integrate and to engage themselves in their progressive transformation. (LBSE, article 2, point 5)

2. Study's objectives

- To determine whether the tests elaborated by teachers are built so as to evaluate the skills specific for scientific literacy, proclaimed by the Physical and Natural Sciences Curriculum in its different domains.
- To determine whether the tests elaborated by teachers evaluate the attainment of the educational goals proposed by Bloom's taxonomy;

3. Method

Sample

The sample is constituted by a set of concerning 24 summative evaluation sheets concerning the 6th grade's program unit "Human Reproduction and growth" applied in schools from Vila Nova de Gaia and Oporto. The tests' selection was performed based on a sampling system of the non probabilistic type and of convenience (also known as non intentional or accidental sampling).

The tests' sample collected and selected, an analysis of content was done, which consisted in: 1) the elaboration of analysis grills constituted by two-entry tables. In the first column the tests' numbers were placed and in the ones left the skills relevant to the scientific

literacy (substantive knowledge, processual knowledge and epistemological knowledge, reasoning, communication and attitudes). In the second grill the columns contained Bloom's taxonomic category's objectives (knowledge, understanding, application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation); 2) the random attribution to each one of the tests of a alphabet letter, an individual analysis of each one's questions and the register, in each of the grills' categories, of the test questions fitting in it; 3) the determination of each category's absolute and relative prevalence.

The questions'/items' categorization cannot be assumed as rigorous and inflexible, nor was it an easy task, since we do not know the context in which the classes may have occurred and, consequently, the depth level of each sub-theme's exploration. The ignorance of each sub-theme's approach type may lead us to an item's wrong classification. Figure 1 presents one of the tests' questions.

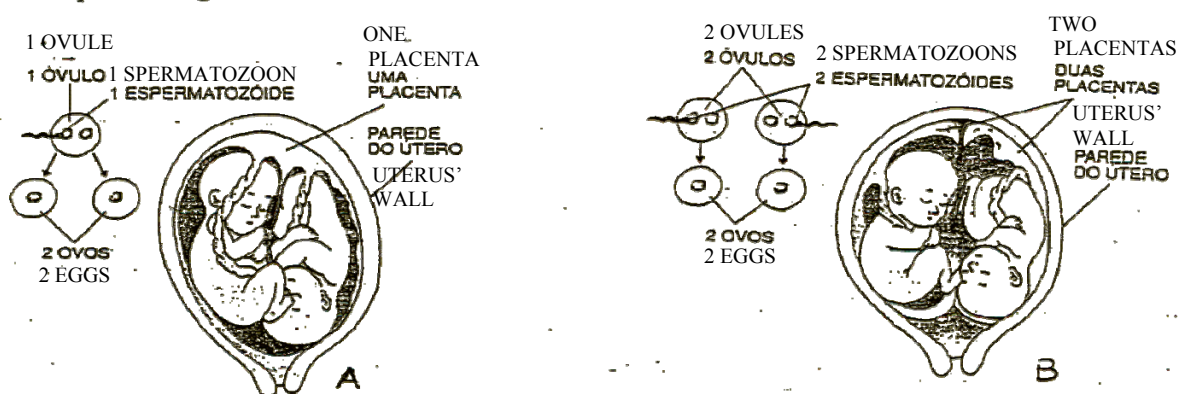
This item's categorization, as it happened with others, constituted an enormous challenge. If the teacher did not cover this topic, the question might be considered as of the reasoning kind and placed in the skills grill, in the column concerning the "reasoning skills". If the teacher had covered this theme, the question might be placed in the substantive knowledge column (question/skills grill). In the second grill (question/objectives grill), if the teacher had covered the twins' formation theme, this item might be placed in the understanding or, at most, in the application column (in the Bloom's taxonomy objectives' grill); if the theme had not been developed, the question might be placed in the column of the analysis' objectives.

Figure 1

Question put in one of the sample tests

7. The following schemes refer to the formation of true twins and false twins:

7. Os esquemas seguintes referem-se à formação de gémeos verdadeiro e falsos:



Which of the schemes-A or B refers to true twins?

Justify.

Qual dos esquemas A ou B se refere a gémeos verdadeiros?

Justifica.

4. Results

4.1. Tests' composition regarding the evaluation of scientific literacy skills

Through the table 1's analysis we can verify that of the 365 questions (corresponding to the sum of the number of all tests' questions): 332 are of substantive knowledge; 0 of processual knowledge; 1 of epistemological knowledge; 12 of reasoning; 20 of communication and 0 of attitudes. The following are an example of substantive knowledge domain questions present in the tests evaluated: "Label the figures 1 and 2 (*feminine and masculine reproductive systems*)"; "What is the common organ to the masculine reproductive

system and the excretory system?"; "What is the name of this process (*ovulation*)?"; "Order the sentences so as to obtain the labour's stage sequence". The following are example of reasoning questions: "Relate fecundation with menstruation"; "Why is a pregnant woman advised to exercise physically?"; "Miss Berta had two twins, a girl and a boy. Will these be true or false twins? Justify your answer"; "Comment the following statement: "Even before birth a Mother ought already to take care of her baby.""

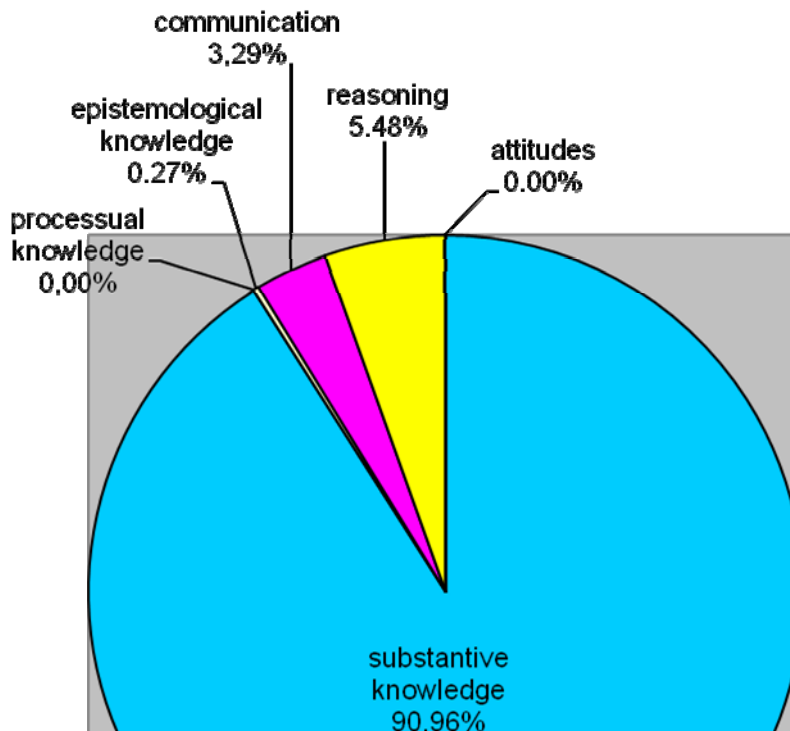
An example of a question which was put in the tests aiming to evaluate the communication skills is the following: "Try to describe how it is that, from just one cell, we become beings constituted by millions and millions of cells".

Table 1 – Tests' items' absolute and relative frequency, according to the domains of skills specific for scientific literacy.

TESTS	SKILLS											
	Substantive Knowledge		Processual Knowledge		Epistemological Knowledge		Reasoning		Communication		Attitudes	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
A n= 14	14	100	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
B n= 20	18	90	0	0	0	0	1	5	1	5	0	0
C n= 25	24	96	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	4	0	0
D n= 13	13	100	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
E n= 16	14	88	0	0	0	0	1	6	1	6	0	0
F n= 10	14	100	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
G n=15	10	86	0	0	0	0	1	7	1	7	0	0
H n=15	15	100	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
I n= 13	13	100	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
J n= 18	16	89	0	0	0	0	2	11	0	0	0	0
K n=14	12	86	0	0	1	7	0	0	1	7	0	0
L n= 18	16	89	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	11	0	0
M n= 12	12	100	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
N n= 19	14	74	0	0	0	0	1	5	3	16	0	0
O n= 14	11	79	0	0	0	0	2	14	1	7	0	0
P n= 21	17	81	0	0	0	0	1	5	3	14	0	0
Q n= 20	17	85	0	0	0	0	1	5	2	10	0	0
R n=18	17	94	0	0	0	0	1	6	0	0	0	0
S n=10	9	90	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	10	0	0
T n=17	16	94	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	6	0	0
U n= 10	10	100	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
V n=9	7	78	0	0	0	0	1	11	1	11	0	0
X n= 14	14	100	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Z n= 10	9	90	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	10	0	0
TOTAL n = 365	332		0		1		12		20		0	
n = test's number of questions												
%	90,96		0,00		0,27		3,29		5,48		0,00	

As we can verify in graph 1, 90,96% of the 332 belong to the "substantive knowledge" skill domain, which means that the almost totality of the tests' questions have as objective to evaluate students in what concerns scientific knowledge acquisition and concepts' and laws' interpretation. The promotion of processual knowledge (planning and performing experimental work), of epistemological knowledge (questioning Science), of reasoning, of communication and of attitudes is little significant, corresponding, respectively, to 0,00%, 0,27%, 3,29%, 5,48% and 0,00%, as graph 1 clearly shows:

Graph 1 - Tests' sample percentage of questions (items) by skills specific to the teaching of Sciences



4.2 Tests' composition regarding Bloom's taxonomy's educational objectives

Through the analysis of table 2 we can see that, of the questions' total present in tests: 191 are questions of knowledge; 146 are questions of understanding; 5 are questions of application; 2 are questions of analysis; 20 are questions of synthesis; 1 is a question of evaluation.

The following are examples of questions of the knowledge domain: "Provide two examples of sexually transmissible diseases", "Of the previous statements, indicate those which concern: a) Primary sexual characters; b) Man's secondary sexual characters; c) Woman's secondary sexual characters."

Following there are examples of questions of the understanding domain: "Make the correspondence between column A's terms and column B's expressions. (*reproductive systems' organs and their respective functions*); "Relate fecundation with menstruation."; "During pregnancy the mother ought not to smoke, drink alcohol nor take drugs. Justify this statement."; "Explain what the umbilical cord is for."; "Explain what you understand by sexually transmissible diseases."; "The seminal vesicles and the prostate produce liquids very important for spermatozoons. What are those liquids for?"; "Indicate the spermatozoon's way until it reaches the ovule (write in the boxes the number of the organs in order)."

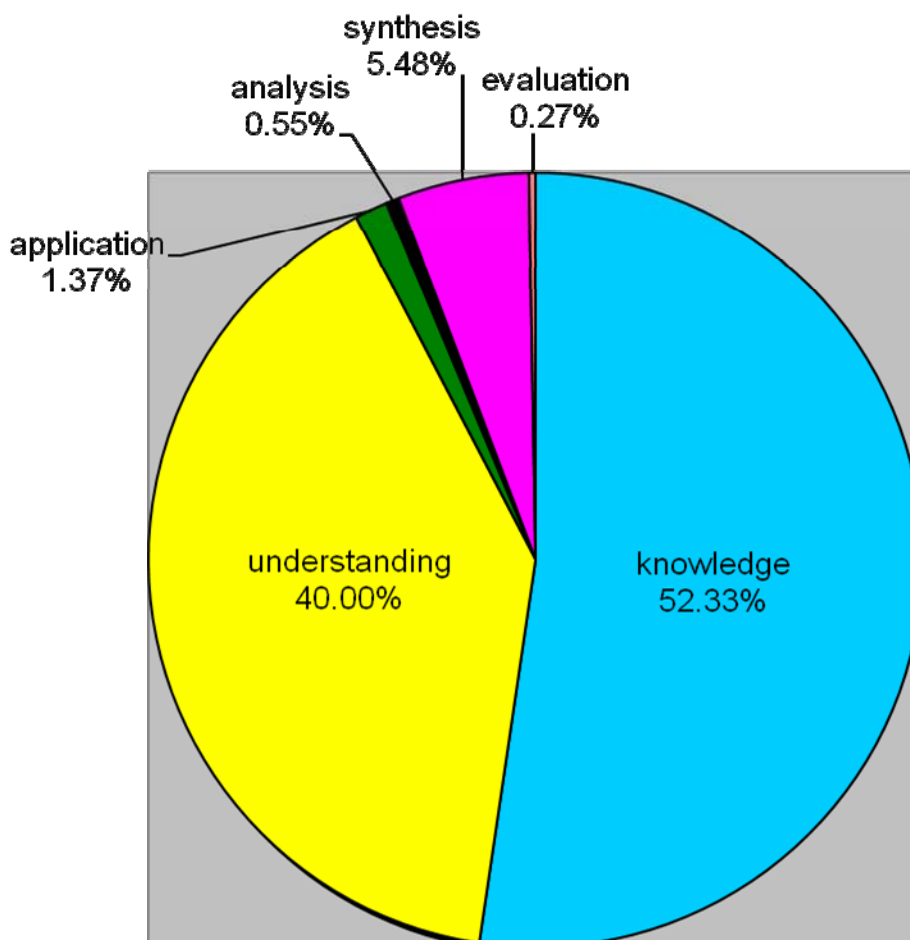
Among the questions of the application domain we point out the following ones: “Supposing that the spermatozoon represented in scheme A was a chromosome Y carrier. What will the babies’ sex be?”; “Indicate which figures represent risky AIDS transmissible behaviours.”. We have selected the following as an example of analysis domain questions: “Indicate two differences between them. (*gametes*). The following are examples of questions of the synthesis domain: “Explain what is the importance of reproduction for human being.”; “Explain the difference between false twins and true twins.”; “Based on the table, indicate the ingredient which should be increased during lactation. Justify your answer.”. Example questions of the evaluation domain are the following: “Comment the following statement: “Even before birth the mother ought already to take care of her baby.””

Table 2 – Tests’ items’ absolute and relative frequency, according to the educational objectives of Bloom’s taxonomy

TESTS	OBJECTIVES											
	Knowledge		Understanding		Application		Analysis		Synthesis		Evaluation	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
A n= 14	11	79	3	21	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
B n= 20	10	50	9	45	1	5	0	0	0	0	0	0
C n= 25	11	44	12	48	0	8	0	0	2	8	0	0
D n= 13	6	46	6	46	0	0	0	0	1	8	0	0
E n= 16	6	38	5	31	1	6	0	0	4	25	0	0
F n= 10	6	60	4	40	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
G n=15	7	46	6	40	0	0	1	7	1	7	0	0
H n=15	10	67	5	33	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
I n= 13	10	77	3	23	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
J n= 18	10	56	7	39	0	0	0	0	1	5	0	0
K n=14	10	71	3	22	0	0	0	0	1	7	0	0
L n= 18	13	72	5	28	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
M n= 12	10	83	2	17	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
N n= 19	7	37	10	53	0	0	1	5	1	5	0	0
O n= 14	5	36	7	50	0	0	0	0	1	7	1	7
P n= 21	7	33	8	38	0	0	0	0	6	29	0	0
Q n= 20	10	50	8	40	2	10	0	0	0	0	0	0
R n=18	12	67	6	33	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
S n=10	6	60	3	30	1	10	0	0	0	0	0	0
T n=17	5	29	12	71	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
U n= 10	3	30	7	70	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
V n=9	5	56	3	33	0	0	0	0	1	11	0	0
X n= 14	7	50	7	50	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Z n= 10	4	40	5	50	0	0	0	0	1	10	0	0
TOTAL n = 365	191		146		5		2		20		1	
n = test's number of questions												
AVERAGE X	52,33		40,00		1,37		0,55		5,48		0,27	

In terms of percentage, 52,33% (191) of the questions present in the tests are of the “knowledge” domain, which means that more than half the questions aim to evaluate students in what concerns the scientific knowledge’s acquisition. Tests are equally conceived to evaluate phenomena’s, concepts’ and laws’ understanding. We can see through the analysis of graph 2 that 40,00% of the questions correspond to the “understanding” domain. The evaluation of knowledge application in new situations, of analysis, synthesis and evaluation is little significant, corresponding, respectively, to 1,37%, 0,55%, 5,48% and 0,27% of the questions present in the body of tests, as it is evident in graph 2.

Graph 2 - Tests' sample percentage of questions (items) by cognitive domain's objectives, according to Bloom's taxonomy



5. Conclusions/implications

Based on this study no generalizations concerning the evaluative practices at the national level can be done (especially regarding the tests' quality), nor can be done any inferences concerning other themes' and subjects' tests. In spite of the generalization difficulties, this study's results seem to show that evaluation tests present a clear prevalence of questions aiming to evaluate substantive knowledge, there rarely being questions to evaluate the skills left. No questions related to the processual and epistemological and reasoning knowledge are made. We can acknowledge that Science questioning and evaluating attitudes are performances that teachers who have carried out the sample's tests have not yet introduced in their evaluative practices. Despite the regulations' in force defense of a teaching centered in the development of skills (knowledge mobilization to real life concrete situations), truth is that evaluative practices' analysis allows us to infer that teachers do not meet the development and evaluation of some important skills, as processual knowledge and reasoning.

Questions of the knowledge and understanding domains prevail, there being quite inferior the prevalence of questions related to the attainment of objectives of higher cognitive domains. From the analysis of the sample of tests used in this study, we can equally admit that Natural Sciences teachers continue to "privilege more the reproductive aspects and less the critical spirit" (Pacheco, 1994, p. 68), leaving to oblivion exercises which require knowledge

application in different situations, analysis, synthesis and evaluation/reflection, that is, which involve superior level of abstraction mental operations. Most of the questions placed in the tests show a concern with the attainment of low cognitive level (knowledge) objectives, leaving to second plan the themes' understanding and leaving farther the concern with objectives placed at superior levels, such as analysis, synthesis and evaluation.

These data reveal that tests and evaluative practices are very often reduced to mere exercises of remembrance or memorization (even because the "knowledge" category is also named "memorization") and of understanding of concepts ("understanding"), without the exigency of applying them to different contexts ("application"), of analyzing their organization, their elements and relations ("analysis"), of developing hypotheses, reflecting, planning ("synthesis") and of criticizing and evaluating knowledge ("evaluation").

On the other hand, tests evaluate topics and objectives which, in most of the cases, seem not to have any interest for students' lives and which are fundamentally related with contents' memorization. It is foreseeable that after the test's elaboration those should be forgotten because they had no practical interest for the student. This factor may constitute one of the school failures' causes. Learning contents without any meaning, sometimes useless for life, may lead to disinterest and, logically, to the school failure referred to.

This work seems to provide data which support the common-sense thesis that we are forming students, some of which with exemplary results, but who are incapable to respond to the challenges presented to them by society.

Furthermore, this study's results reveal the importance of teachers' initial and continuous training in what refers to evaluation. We defend the skills' thematic integration and their evaluation at any training level: initial, continuous and post-graduate. This training should be assumed as a need for, as Jordão (*in* Leite, 1995, p. 62) states "without an aware, informed and motivated faculty there is no possible change!".

We underline that evaluation should be integrated in the study plan of teachers' training courses, for the results allow the inference that this constitutes a deep lacuna in Licentiate' degree and post-graduation courses.

With this work we intend to encourage teachers to critically analyzing their evaluation means and to reformulate or conceive another type of tests, which evaluate knowledge acquired but also the problem-solving capacity, the creativity, etc...

However we would like to make clear that students' evaluation should not be materialized in tests only, because these means, on their own, do not evaluate the student in all of his/her aspects. We emphasize the need for the use of other evaluation means capable of evaluating aspects which otherwise become difficult with the exclusive use of tests.

It is up to the teacher to define strategies, to diversify and adjust different means to the characteristics of the students with whom he/she (re)builds knowledge and with whom he/she develops attitudes and values. To take into consideration and to value the student's participation, his/her interest, enterprise spirit and autonomy, his/her relation with others and with his/her material, the classroom work (elaborating reports, compositions, worksheets, self-evaluation...) and the homework, assiduity and punctuality, his/her critical sense and attitudes, behaviours and even reflections: "a reflection performed by the student in the end of a work day and its noting down in the notebook can be rich in content." are only some examples of the universe of aspects we ought to measure and that we hardly will do by recurring to a test.

Thus we suggest that teacher should develop a method which involves an active participation in tasks, that is, that works for projects and problems and which promotes the realization of portfolios which, according to Freire (2006), consists in a means which develops innumerable skills, from the organization of ideas, to systematization, problematization, argumentation and self-reflection and evaluation. Besides the portfolios we advise teachers to make use of observation grills and of registers of critical incidents to evaluate the students' diligence, interest and performance.

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**Secondhand smoke (SHS) exposure among children.
Implications for a smoke free home educational programme.**

**José Precioso ^{(1)*}, Catarina Samorinha ⁽¹⁾, José Manuel Calheiros ⁽²⁾,
Manuel Macedo ⁽³⁾, Henedina Antunes ⁽³⁾, & Hugo Campos ⁽¹⁾**

Education and Psychology Institut – Minho University⁽¹⁾; Health Sciences
School – Beira Interior University ⁽²⁾; S. Marcos Hospital – Braga ⁽³⁾

E-mail: precioso@iep.uminho.pt

Abstract

Background: SecondHand Smoke (SHS) exposure among children represents a major cause of serious health problems. Children exposed to SHS are at an increased risk of serious health problems like sudden infant death syndrome, pneumonia, ear infections and more severe asthma. Studies have shown that SHS exposure is quite common, occurring frequently at home and in the car. A previous study conducted in Portugal (2002) with 1141 children with 12-15 years old revealed that 38% of them were daily or occasionally exposed to SHS due to the smoke of parents or siblings at home. No information was available for 9-10 years old. **Objectives:** 1) To determine parents smoking prevalence in the sample; 2) To determine the prevalence of parents smoking at home. **Methods:** An anonymous self-administered structured questionnaire was submitted to 793 students (aged media 9.14 years; 48.6% girls; 51.4% boys), enrolled in Portugal's Northern Region' schools. **Results:** 15.5% of the mothers and 37.0% of the fathers are daily smokers; 11.4% of the mothers and 25.8% of the fathers are daily or occasional home smokers. 14,2% of children report that at least one of the co-inhabitants (father, mother, brother/sister or other) smokes daily at home and 28.0% refer they smoke occasionally at home. **Conclusions:** Almost half of the children evaluated are daily or occasionally exposed to SHS, because a high proportion of parents or other people like brother/sister regularly smoke at home. Health professionals, especially Pediatricians, should systematically inquire and advise parents about the health risks of SHS and advise them to quit or even forward to a specialised query.

Keywords: Second-hand smoking; Smoking prevention; Health Education.

Introduction

There is a consistent, robust and consensual evidence that exposure to environmental tobacco smoke is harmful to health at all stages of human beings life (United States Department of Health and Human Services [USDHHS], 2006).

The SHS exposure among is associated with a series of health problems ranging from coughing, wheezing and dyspnea, to a greater risk of acute infections of the lower airways (bronchitis and pneumonia), respiratory infections of repetition and also induction and exacerbation of asthma (USDHHS, 2006).

Despite the seriousness to children's health, studies reveal a high prevalence of children exposed. The World Health Organization (WHO) estimated that in 1999 about half of the children in the world (700 million) were breathing contaminated air by the SHS, especially at their homes (WHO, 1999).

Parents are the primary cause for the exposure of children to environmental tobacco smoke at home. A study of large population (Third National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey, NHANES-III), conducted in the U.S. between 1988 and 1994, with 11728 children aged between 2 months and 11 years, showed that 38% were exposed to SHS, due to their parents smoking; 23% had been exposed to passive smoking during pregnancy and 19% were exposed to both (smoking and gestational SHS) (Lieu & Feinstein, 2002).

A study conducted in England in 1988 (n = 1179) and 1996 (n = 576), with children aged between 11 and 15 years, found that in 1988, 52% of children were exposed to SHS at home and, in 1996, it was registered a slight reduction of this value to 45% (Jarvis, Goddard, Higgins, Feyerabend, Bryant & Cook, 2000).

According to the last report of USDHHS, almost 22 million (60%) of American children, aged between 3 and 11 years, are exposed to the SHS. According to another US study, by the WHO and the Center for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), with teenagers between 13 and 15 years, belonging to 132 countries, it is estimated that 43.9% of them are exposed to the SHS at home and 55.8% in public spaces (GTSS The Collaborative Group, 2006).

A study carried out in 7th, 8th and 9th grade portuguese students, in 2002/2003 (in a sample consisted of 1141 students from 12-15 years old), showed that 38% were daily or occasionally exposed to environmental tobacco smoke, because their immediate family (father, mother or brother) smoke daily or occasionally at home. Data from this study allow us to conclude that the consumption of tobacco by parents, particularly at home, is a microsocial risk factor, strictly related to the latter consumption of tobacco by children (Precioso, Calheiros, & Macedo, 2005).

Objectives

Despite the seriousness of the passive smoking exposure, there aren't any studies in Portugal about the prevalence of SHS exposure among children aged 7-10 years. That is why this study was held with students of these ages. Its main objectives were: 1) determine the prevalence of smoking fathers / mothers; 2) determine the prevalence of parents, students and other co-inhabitants smoking at home; 3) present a description of the views of students regarding tobacco consumption and secondhand smoke.

Methods

This study is observational and analytical cross kind and it was administered at the end of the academic year 2006/2007. It consisted in the implementation of an anonymous questionnaire for self fulfillment in a sample of 793 students from four grades (among a population of about 2000 students), belonging to 35 primary schools, integrated into five groups of schools of the county of Braga. 48.6% of students were girls and 51.4% were boys. The average age was 9.14, with a standard deviation of 0.65.

This study analysed data collected in schools participating in the, a preventive program aiming to reduce the SHS exposure among children at home.

The questionnaire administered to students was made by 6 multiple-choice questions, which were intended to measure socio-demographic parameters, the students, their parents and others tobacco use, as well as the students' views regarding the tobacco consumption.

The collected data were introduced and analysed using the statistical package SPSS. To determine the pattern of tobacco consumption of parents of students, especially at home, distributions were made in frequency.

Results

As can be seen by data in Table 1, it appears that 15.5% of the students perceived that their mother smokes and 37.0% that their father smokes. Compared to a study carried out by Precioso and others (2005), with a sample of 1141 students attending the 7th, 8th and 9th grades (3rd Cycle of basic education), in Braga, these results show a slightly below prevalence of fathers / mothers smoking. In the other study, the percentage of students who perceived that their mothers smoked was 17.6%, while 40.1% perceived that their fathers were smokers.

Table 1. Prevalence of smoking mothers and fathers, as stated by the students of the sample.

		N (787)						
		Smoker				Non smoker		
Relative	n	%	IC (95%)	f	%	IC (95%)	f	
Mother	(760)	15.5	(13,0 18,3)	– 118	84.5	(81,7 87,0)	– 642	
Father	(745)	37.0	(33,6 40,6)	– 276	63.0	(59,4 66,4)	– 469	

Through analysis of Table 2, we find that 5.1% of students stated that their mother smoke every day at home and 6.3% occasionally. 11.4% of students perceived that their mother smoke daily or occasionally at home. With regard to fathers, 9.2% of students stated that they smoke at home every day and 16.6% occasionally. In summary, 25.8% of students perceived that their father smoke daily or occasionally at home.

Data in Table 2 can also estimate that 42.2% of students are daily or occasionally exposed to environmental tobacco smoke, because at least one of their co-inhabitants (father, mother, brother or other) smoke daily or occasionally at home.

Data from Precioso and others (2005) showed that the percentage of mothers who smoked daily (8.4%) or occasionally (7.2%) at home was higher than in this study. The percentage of fathers who smoked daily (14.4%) or occasionally (16.9%) at home was also much higher than in this study.

Table 2. Prevalence of regular and occasional smokers at home, stated by the students of the sample.

Relative	Daily smoker at home				Occasional smoker at home			Non smoker or non smoker at home		
	n	%	IC (95%)	f	%	IC (95%)	f	%	IC (95%)	f
Mother	729	5.1	(3,6 – 7,0)	37	6.3	(4,7 – 8,3)	46	88.6	(86,1 – 90,8)	– 646
Father	727	9.2	(7,2 – 11,6)	67	16.6	(14,0 – 19,6)	121	74.1	(70,8 – 77,3)	539
Mother, father or brother/Sister	774	11.5	(9,3 – 14,0)	89	18.7	(16,0 – 21,7)	145	69.8	(66,4 – 73,0)	– 540
Mother, father, brother/Sister or other	793	14.2	(11,9 – 16,9)	113	28	(24,9 – 31,3)	222	57.8	(54,2 – 61,2)	– 458

As shown in table 3, it appears that 32.2% of students whose mothers smoke report them to smoke every day at home and 34.8% report them to smoke occasionally, which means that 67.0 % of the students with smoking mothers perceive them to smoke daily or occasionally at home. Regarding fathers, 25% of the students whose parents smoke report that they smoke daily at home and 43.7% report they smoke occasionally. So, 68, 7% of the students with smoking fathers perceive them to smoke daily or occasionally at home.

In a study performed by Precioso and others (2005), it was found that 46% of the students whose mothers smoke report that their mothers smoke every day at home and 37% report they smoke occasionally, or around 83% of students perceive their mother to be a daily or occasionally smoker at home. 35% of the children state that their smoking fathers smoke everyday at home and 40% say they smoke occasionally. In other words, 75% of the children of smoking fathers perceive that the father smoke daily or occasionally at home. Comparing these data with that of this study we can conclude that the percentage of mothers and fathers smoking at home is also greater.

Table 3. Prevalence of smoking fathers and mothers, who smoke at home, stated by students.

		N(119)								
		Daily smoker at home			Ocasional smoker at home			Non smoker at home		
Relative	n	%	IC (95%)	f	%	IC (95%)	f	%	IC (95%)	f
Mother	115	32.2	(23,8 – 41,5)	37	34.8	(26,1 – 44,2)	40	33.0	(24,6 – 42,4)	38
Father	268	25.0	(19,9 – 30,6)	67	43.7	(37,6 – 49,9)	117	31.3	(25,8 – 37,3)	84

Table 4 outlines the views of students in the sample regarding tobacco consumption and secondhand smoke. 99.0% of students think that smoking is bad for

health; 96.8% of students state that if parents smoked at home it would be harmful to their health; 93.0% of students consider that the attitude of smoking makes people more beautiful and only 1.8% of children think they'll be smoking in the future.

The results in Table 4 are similar to results obtained by Lotufo and Rozov (2006). According to the study carried out by these authors, 98.3% of children think that smoking is bad for their health; 95.5% believe that smokers annoy other people with smoke, 99% do not consider the attitude of smoking as being beautiful and 1.7% think in becoming a smoker in the future.

Table 4. Students' views regarding active and passive smoking.

Question	N(788)									
	Yes			No			Doesn't Know / Doesn't Answer			
	n	%	IC (95%)	f	%	IC (95%)	f	%	IC (95%)	f
Q7.1	77	1.0	(0,4 – 2,0)	8	99	(98,0 – 99,6)	769	0.0	(0,0 – 0,5)	0
Q7.2	77	0.9	(0,4 – 1,8)	7	96.8	(95,3 – 98,0)	754	2.3	(1,4 – 3,6)	18
Q7.3	77	93.0	(91,0 – 94,7)	72	5.4	(3,9 – 7,3)	42	1.6	(0,8 – 2,7)	12
Q10	78	1.8	(1,0 – 3,0)	14	85.5	(82,9 – 88,0)	674	12.7	(10,4 – 15,2)	100

Legend: Q7.1- Is smoking good for your health? Q7.2- Does smoking makes people more beautiful? Q7.3 - Is smoking bad for your health if your parents smoke at home? Q10 – Do you wish to smoke cigarretes when you grow up?

Conclusions

Data allow us to infer that over 40% of children who attend the 4th grade, in the City of Braga, are daily or occasionally exposed to the secondhand smoke at home, because their father / mother / or other co-inhabitant smokes inside. It is also shown that among smoker fathers and mothers, there are very high percentages who

smoke daily or occasionally at home (67.0% and 68.7 respectively), threatening their health and the others, including their children. Comparing the data of this study with others conducted in our country by Precioso and others (2005), there is a slight decrease in the prevalence of smoking among the parents and consumption at home. Although we consider that more rigorous studies are needed to further characterize the secondhand exposure among children, for example, using biological markers, such as cotinine, we can infer from the evidence expressed in this study that a high percentage of children is exposed to environmental tobacco smoke by the fact that the closest relatives (father, mother or brother) smoke at home.

Taking into account the risks to the health of SHS exposed children, efforts should be made in order to take public health measures to protect this particularly vulnerable population. The most effective way to protect SHS smoke exposure among children at home is to promote the smoking cessation of parents or at least make them not to smoke at home. **Parents should be the "target" of the main measures of prevention and treatment of smoking.**

The health system combating the secondhand smoking exposure among children

The health system must have a particular role in the diagnosis and treatment of smokers. The following measures, among others, should be engaged to reduce the prevalence of smokers (Becoña, 1995):

1. The assumption by all of the health care professionals (doctors, psychologists, nurses, social workers and so on) of the health risks of smoking.
2. Being aware, it is important that the health care professionals lead by example, stop smoking (if they do) or at least avoid to do so in the presence of their patients. We need health professionals to take on board that they can act as social models for many people. They may constitute themselves as an example in good or bad sense to others, so, they must act responsibly.
3. It is imperative that doctors of various specialties (family doctors, medical work, cardiologists, pulmonologists, obstetricians, pediatricians, nurses, psychologists) are involved in the treatment of nicotine dependence, as it is already

done concerning the control of other risk factors for health (Ministry of Health, 2002). It is important to be aware of the possibility that all patients are able to quit smoking and that there are effective methods to help them. Basically, it is recommended that the WHO guidelines to promote smoking cessation are followed and applied: systematically **address** all users of tobacco in each consultation; **advise** all users to quit; **assess** whether the patient wants to do an attempt to abandonment; **help** the patient in their attempt to abandon; **schedule** follow-up consultations. Portuguese doctors can find detailed information on diagnosis and treatment of smoking in the publication “Ministry of Health (2002): Treatment and Use of Tobacco Dependence: Clinical Standards for Action”.

Regarding children, pediatricians should ask parents about smoking; if they are smokers at home and recommend them to stop smoking and especially not to do so at home because it is a way to inflict cruelty to children.

The role of the education system in the promotion of smoking cessation by parents

Schools also have an important role in the prevention of parental smoking especially regarding domestic consumption. Parents of those children attending “Promotion and Health Education” classes should be involved through the Class Director, who shall organize meetings, seminars and other activities at school. The school newspapers are a way to reach parents. Many responsables for education do not read newspapers or weeklies but certainly read the school publications because they know it may have relevant news on the activities of their children at school. Parents should be sent the message of how important is not to smoke in the presence of their children, not so smoke at home and that they should have a negative attitude toward the possible tobacco consumption by their children. It is also important to monitor their daughters’ activities and control the money given. This message can also be passed by the students themselves (children or students) through their involvement in campaigns organized at school, for example, within the subjects of Civics or in the Project Area. It is also a way to teach students how to participate in social life and community. The Associations of Parents should help schools in their preventive efforts organizing awareness sessions for parents of students.

The Household Without Smoke Program / Homes Without Smoke

This program was created in order to protect children from the secondhand smoke at home. It aims to ensure that fathers and mothers do not smoke or do not allow smoking at home and in the car. Basically it consists in training students to protect themselves from this aggression. In the classroom teachers should develop the following strategies with pupils:

1. A small approach to the resulting problems of active and secondhand smoke (teachers will be given a presentation on the topic).
2. Preparation of small works (letters, leaflets, or basically a sign of not smoking ...) to be sent by school to the smoking parents.
3. To role playing exercises, in which a student plays his/her role of child and another (or the teacher) plays the role of the father, mother or another smoking relative. The child tries to convince the parent not to smoke at home.
4. Sending the parents a leaflet on active and passive smoking.
5. Signing of a declaration between father and son, in which the first is committed to the creation of a home without smoke.

We believe that this program will be a small step for the father / mother smoker and a giant leap in the health promotion of the co-inhabitants.

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Facing the Intercultural Dialogue by Using Humor In The Training of Mathematics and Science Teachers

Elsa C. Price, Ed.D.

Professor of Education and Biology
Faulkner University
5345 Atlanta Hwy.
Montgomery, AL 36109-3390
(334-386-7517)
E-Mail: ecprice@faulkner.edu

Maryann J. Ehle, Ph.D.

Professor (Retired)
Department of Education
Shotwell Hall
West Liberty State College
West Liberty, West Virginia 26074
(304-336-8080)
E-Mail: ehlemann@wlsc.edu

Preservice teachers in the areas of mathematics and science have the tremendous task of presenting a wide variety of topics as they cover the basic concepts and principles of their content discipline. The use of humor in presenting the materials and in managing the possibly diverse classroom can increase the students' interest and enthusiasm as the topics are presented. Performance Learning Systems (2002) in the organization's e-newsletter stated, "Effective teachers use humor in the classroom to motivate students to learn, enhance group cohesion, and defuse tense situations."

Humor is "something that is or is designed to be comical or amusing," according to Webster's Dictionary (1991.) The purpose of using humor in the classroom is not to entertain but to engage the students in the process of learning. According to Abbott and Lewis (2007) students are encouraged to develop a group identity when allowed to have fun together as they support each other in the task of learning. Once the students have a "group identity" and are comfortable working together the teacher can then more easily lead them through very difficult material in the curriculum. Kher, et.al. (1999) identified guidelines for the appropriate use of humor especially in " 'dread courses' which are courses that students avoid due to low self-confidence, perceived difficulty of the course or a prior negative experience in a content area such as mathematics."

The use of laughter and humor has many physiological and psychological benefits. These include exercise of both skeletal and visceral muscles, the release of

endorphins/enkephalins that are the body's natural painkillers or natural morphine. The release of these positive chemicals also enhances the person's positive mental state-- similar to the "runner's high." The students will gain these same benefits when laughter and humor are used in the classroom.

Quite frequently the professor may feel uncomfortable in changing his/her regular routine or method of presenting material to students. If the use of humor is not a regular component of the professor's method he/she may be reticent in trying new techniques. There are methods to ease the professor's hesitancy and avoid possible 'pitfalls' associated with change. According to Weaver and Cotrell (2001) there is a ten-step procedure to help reluctant or hesitant instructors introduce humor to their classrooms. The ten steps are as follows:

1. Smile and be lighthearted.
2. Be natural and spontaneous by relaxing control a little in the routine occasionally and be willing to laugh at yourself—don't take yourself too seriously.
3. Be conversational fostering an informal environment.
4. Begin class with a thought for the day or humorous example.
5. Use personal experiences and ones that emerge from the subject matter.
6. Relate things to the everyday life of the student—music, movies, and student newspaper articles.
7. Plan lectures in short segments with humor inserted—give commercial breaks in the lecture.
8. Learn students' names and encourage a give-and-take climate in the classroom.
9. Ask students to supply jokes, stories, or antidotes.
10. Tell a joke or two—appear human (Weaver and Cotrell, 2001.)

Hellman (2007) presents guidelines in using humor in the classroom regardless of the subject matter covered. One of his suggestions is to use what he calls "guerrilla humor" —you get in, make your point, and get on to the next topic (p. 37.)" The other guidelines that are very similar to the ones by Weaver and Cotrell (2001) he calls "Stu's Seven Simple Steps for Success." These are as follows:

- Step 1: Be Yourself. If jokes are not easy for you to tell then don't tell them use other forms such as visual-cartoon on screen or wear a humorous tie or scarf, auditory—sound file a portion of a lecture or a PowerPoint presentation;
- Step 2: Pick Your Spots. It is important to build rapport but keep a professional atmosphere;
- Step 3: Be Politically Correct. Never marginalize a person or a group, never use sexist remarks but do use euphemisms for different situations such as 'chances to excel' for tests;
- Step 4: Know Your Audience. Be aware of different cultures and other diversities represented;
- Step 5: Use Oxymorons, Alliteration, and Acronyms. Use such terms as 'tax return,' or funny names for files;

Step 6: Sometimes, You Need to Be Quiet. Often students say very humorous things inadvertently when this happens use it;
Step 7: Acknowledge Others' Humor. Don't try to have the last word (Hellman, 2007.)

There are some types of humor which would never be appropriate—"off color" humor, sarcasm or the use of sarcastic statements or statements based on assumptions and beliefs that exclude someone (Abbott and Lewis, 2008.) If this type humor or humorous statements are used in the class it could destroy the camaraderie and positive energy, which the instructor wants to create.

The best type of humor is that which develops in the classroom from the students and is in tune with the topic. It is natural and will be appreciated by students and teachers alike. This type may develop as a mnemonic or naming device is developed by an individual student or by the group to simplify the learning of a body of material. The following are examples of using mnemonics.

A student learning the carpals (bones at the wrist) developed one example, Carpals Cafeteria= Try turnips, collards, ham, salad, lemon, tea, and pie (Dobbs, 1978). These terms stand for trapezium, trapezoid, capitate, hamate, scaphoid, lunate, triquetrum and pisiform [starting with the distal row from thumb to little finger side then proximal row from thumb to little finger.]

Another example created by a student relates to the listing of the white blood cells or leukocytes in descending order, "Nellie loves men, especially Bernard." (Nellie Smith 1975.) This stands for the leukocytes in descending order [from the most numerous to least numerous], neutrophils, lymphocytes, monocytes, eosinophils, and basophils.

Other humorous mnemonics include the sentences for learning the names of the twelve cranial nerves and whether or not they are sensory, motor, or both. The sentence for the names is "On old Olympus towering tops a Finn and German viewed some tops." This represents Olfactory, Optic, Oculomotor, Trochlear, Trigeminal, Abducens, Facial, Acoustic, Glossopharyngeal, Vagus, Spinal Accessory, and Hypoglossal. The second sentence for recognizing whether the nerve is sensory, motor, or both is a twelve word sentence which begins with either S, M, or B representing sensory, motor, or both. It is as follows: "Some say marry money but my brothers say bad business marry money." The class can be told, "You don't have to agree with the sentence statement but it will help you remember the functions" [Olfactory = Some, sensory for the sense of smell, etc.]

Using a known nursery rhyme or song and replacing the words with something related to the subject matter is another way that humor can be inserted into the classroom and help the students learn. The song, "Row, Row, Row Your Boat" is one that most students learned in childhood. Mathematical symbols and procedures can be used in making a new tune to introduce the pre-service teachers to use in their elementary mathematics class. An example to the tune of "Row, Row, Row, Your Boat" is:

MATH IS HERE TO STAY

Math, Math, Math we need;

Each and Every Day;

Addition, Subtraction, Multiplication and Division;
Round and Round We Go;

Math, Math, Math we need;
Each and Every Day;

Fractions, Decimals and Percents too;
Keep Us On Our Way;

Math, Math, Mathematics we need
Each and Every Day

Oh, Oh, Mathematics is
Surely Here to Stay. (Price, 2008.)

In today's modern world rap music is quite popular among many students. After several general biology class lectures on DNA (Deoxyribonucleic Acid found in the cell nucleus) when the students expressed difficulty in remembering and understanding the concepts involved, the author wrote and performed a "rap" as a way to encourage the students. It is as follows:

DNA RAP

DNA is here to stay; DNA Hey-Hey-Hooray!

Nucleotides Are What You See; A with T, T with A, C with G or G with C!

Nucleotides from A to T; This is What Makes You and Me.

Nucleotides for DNA—Yeah, Yeah; Nucleotides for RNA—What Do You Say?

DNA is Here to Stay; DNA—Text That Nay!

Sugar, Phosphate and a Nitrogen Base: Makes the Nucleotide of Your "Taste."

DNA's Sugar is Deoxyribose You See: But RNA has Ribose for You, Me, and a Tree!

Nucleotides Make DNA or RNA for Us All: No Matter if We Are Short or Tall.

DNA is Here to Stay; DNA Hey-Hey-Hooray (Price, 2008.)

Another fun way to teach different topics would be with music or a song. Chose a tune or song that most of the students would recognize and write new lyrics using the concepts and/or facts that students need to learn. The author composed a song for the

topic of mitosis or somatic cell division to the tune of “On Top of Old Smoky.” It is as follows:

MITOSIS

Inside of the Nucleus in Each Eucaryotic Cell
We Find the Chromatin, We Find it so Well;

The Chromatin is Unwound and Stringy As Can Be
No Matter if Found in a Mouse, You, or Me!

In Making More Cells the First Step You See
Is to Look at the Cell Cycle Whether in the Elbow or Knee.

The Cell Cycle has Many Steps the Longest in Interphase,
G1, S, and G2 Go by in a ‘Daze;’

Followed by Prophase as We Shortly See
Chromosomes Visible as Fine As Can Be.

In Metaphase They Line Up at the Equator Don’t You See.
The Centromere Divides in You and in Me;

Spindle Fibers Attach, Pulling Each to a Side
The Anaphase Stage Now Visible in the Ride.

Next is Telophase -We have 2 New Cells
Each One is 2N-Diploid—Do Tell!

Each Nucleus Will Show Chromatin; Then Start Over and Over Again.
Please Learn Our Song and Learn It So Well;
The Mitosis Story—Oh Do Tell (Price, 2008.)

Sometimes songs can be used to illustrate an event as it is occurring. A kindergarten class was not allowed to watch the historic event of John Glenn’s 1962 trip into space because the principal thought the students were too young to understand its importance. The teacher, Dr. Frances Cannon, told them not to be upset because they would write a song about the event. Later, the principal after hearing their song, apologized to the class and allowed the class to sing the song to the entire elementary school at the next assembly program. The lyrics which were written to the tune of “Are you Sleeping Brother John” are as follows:

WHERE’S JOHN GLENN

Where’s John Glenn?
Where’s John Glenn?

He’s in outer space

He's in outer space

Where is he now?

Where is he now?

He is in orbit;

He is in orbit

Beep, Beep, Beep.

Beep, Beep, Beep (Cannon, 2008.)

Humor can be used to emphasize a point in a lesson, reduce students' stress, and create a comfortable classroom environment if used well. By using the positive guidelines presented and avoiding the negative aspects related to using humor in the classroom, college and university teachers training mathematics and science teachers can model the correct use of humor in teaching. The pre-service teachers or interns in mathematics and science will then be equipped with additional teaching tools.

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Mondialisation, multiculturalité et formation des enseignants: des défis inédits.

Perspectives africaines.

Dr. Cheikh Tidiane SALL

Faculté des Sciences et Technologies de l'Éducation et de la Formation
Université Cheikh Anta Diop de Dakar. BP 5036 Dakar Fann. Dakar, Sénégal.
Courriel : chetisall@yahoo.fr

RESUME

Prise dans la tourmente de la production, de la consommation et de la compétitivité, et grisée par les possibilités offertes par la science et la technologie, l'humanité s'est retrouvée dans l'état d'un système économique complexe appelé mondialisation, défini comme un mouvement d'internationalisation des économies et des sociétés. Une des conséquences les plus visibles de ce contexte, même pour l'observateur le moins averti, est la mobilité des personnes qui se traduit par de véritables flux migratoires. Contrairement à de nombreuses analyses, ces flux migratoires ne concernent pas seulement l'Europe si préoccupée par les conséquences culturelles de son élargissement économique. L'Afrique, malgré la portion congrue qui lui revient dans une économie mondiale articulée par des « liens hypertextes », est également concernée par les brassages de cultures et de croyances, qui se déroulent partout à travers le monde. La gestion de ces cohabitations inédites est peut-être, au même titre que les problèmes d'environnement, un des grands défis du 21^{ème} siècle. Les systèmes éducatifs qui ont en charge la préparation des jeunes générations aux mutations sociales sont ainsi interpellés. La formation des enseignants doit accorder la plus grande importance à cette nouvelle donne. Dans cette communication nous tenterons de montrer en quoi l'Afrique est concernée par cette problématique et présenterons quelques pistes susceptibles d'être partagées par d'autres parties du monde.

Mots-clés : mondialisation – multi culturalité – formation des enseignants – pédagogie multiculturelle.

I. INTRODUCTION

De nombreux concepts, expressions ou formule sont proposés pour caractériser les dynamiques sociales, économiques et politiques de la fin du 20^{ème} siècle et de ce début du 21^{ème} siècle. Mais ces différentes terminologies ou néologismes ne renvoient pas toujours aux mêmes champs disciplinaires. C'est ainsi qu'on parle tantôt de société postindustrielle, de société de l'information, de village planétaire, de mondialisation, de globalisation...

Le concept de société postindustrielle (Bell, 1973), s'inscrit dans une perspective sociologique de l'analyse de l'évolution du capitalisme, pris dans ces contradictions culturelles et idéologiques. Le sociologue américain annonçait d'ailleurs dès 1960,

dans un ouvrage majeur, la fin de l'idéologie, résultats des multiples contradictions entre les différentes sphères de son modèle d'analyse.

Quant au modèle qui décrit le monde comme une société de l'information, il met surtout l'accent sur le rôle de l'information dans les sociétés humaines à la suite du développement fulgurant des technologies numériques, des possibilités extraordinaires d'accumulation et de traitement de données en vue de la prise de décisions ponctuelles ou stratégiques. La conséquence logique de ces nouvelles possibilités est la relativisation de la notion de distance, le rapprochement des différentes parties du monde qui serait devenu une sorte de village planétaire. Un exemple d'illustration de cette nouvelle donnée est perçue par toute personne qui organise une rencontre internationale à l'image de la présente 33^{ème} conférence de l'ATEE : la création du site de la conférence, les inscriptions à distance, le mode d'acheminement des contributions, les réservations d'hôtel qu'on peut visiter virtuellement et l'émission des titres de transport numériques, toutes ces procédures n'étaient pas possibles et avec une telle efficacité il ya moins d'une trentaine d'années.

Mais c'est le concept de mondialisation qui semble le plus s'imposer. Articulant les différentes dimensions identifiées plus haut, la mondialisation met l'accent sur l'interdépendance économique des différentes parties du monde, résultat d'un mouvement d'internationalisation des économies et des sociétés. L'économie étant le fait d'acteurs sociaux, d'hommes et de femmes caractérisés par leur capacité à faire fonctionner les modèles productifs, la mondialisation a des corollaires inévitables: la mobilité des personnes, le développement de flux migratoires rarement observés dans l'histoire du monde avec son lot d'interférences culturelles inédites et qui se développent à un rythme exponentiel.

Un des aspects de la mondialisation est la recherche de la rentabilité et de l'efficacité, sans trop se faire d'états d'âme sur les problèmes culturels. Or ceux-ci finissent toujours par surgir et reprendre le dessus. Chassez le naturel, il revient au galop ! L'être humain quelque soit son niveau d'éducation reste toujours attaché à ses valeurs culturelles malgré des possibilités de compromis conjoncturels, et contre toutes les velléités ou prétentions d'uniformisation. Paradoxalement le développement des nouvelles technologies de l'information et de la communication, en même temps qu'il esquisse des tendances pour imposer des valeurs culturelles des sociétés les plus développées, permet à des cultures jusqu'ici marginalisées, par la magie des caméras, des claviers d'ordinateurs et des sites, de mieux se faire connaître et s'apprécier. La perspective d'une culture uniforme épousant les contours d'une hiérarchie bâtie sur des critères économiques semble montrer ses limites. Les conditionnalités qu'on a souvent voulu imposer aux migrants économiques par le biais de la nécessité de l'intégration culturelle, ont eu souvent pour effet une volonté encore plus marquée de vivre ses propres singularités.

Dès lors les brassages culturels, les nécessités de cohabitations éthiques inédites suggèrent d'autres formes de traitement des différences. Même si le monde ne peut fonctionner sans un minimum de convergences, le moment semble venu de se mettre, dans ce contexte de mondialisation, à l'ère de la cohabitation et du dialogue des cultures. Mais en quoi devrait consister le dialogue des cultures ? Sans être exhaustif, il nous semble que ce dialogue devrait reposer sur les principes suivants :

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- Reconnaître l'existence de cultures différentes basées sur des systèmes de valeurs
 - Reconnaître à chaque citoyen le droit de vivre sa culture dans le respect des autres cultures et des valeurs fondamentales du genre humain
 - Faire l'effort de comprendre la logique interne des autres cultures
 - Admettre la possibilité de trouver des espaces de convergence entre cultures différentes au-delà des formes d'expression et des singularités

La mise en œuvre de ce dialogue culturel suppose des actions en milieu adulte, mais surtout des initiatives au niveau des jeunes générations. Celles-ci sont en effet condamnées à vivre dans un monde de brassages de cultures. Les systèmes éducatifs sont ainsi naturellement placés en ligne de front. En effet, malgré l'atténuation de la dissymétrie par rapport au savoir entre le maître et l'apprenant, du fait des possibilités offertes par les technologies numériques, les enseignants restent encore des acteurs stratégiques de l'école. Leur formation doit intégrer une nouvelle exigence professionnelle, celle d'exercer leur métier dans un contexte de cohabitation de cultures différentes, parfois en apparence contradiction.

Dans cette contribution, nous montrerons brièvement dans un premier temps, comment la mondialisation se traduit par des brassages culturels inédits aussi bien en Europe qu'en Afrique. Nous aborderons ensuite successivement les acteurs du dialogue culturel, la place de l'école et plus particulièrement les implications pour la formation des enseignants en termes de contenus et de méthodes. Quelques pistes pour la prise en charge des aspects culturels dans la formation professionnelle des éducateurs seront ensuite présentées avant de conclure sur la nécessité de jeter les bases d'une pédagogie culturelle.

II. MONDIALISATION ET BRASSAGES CULTURELS : UNE PROBLEMATIQUE EUROPEENNE QUI INTERESSE L'AFRIQUE

Au même titre que les problèmes environnementaux, la prise en charge des brassages culturels apparaît comme un défi majeur d'un monde économiquement viable et socialement stable. La 33^{ème} conférence de l'ATEE en choisissant comme thème le dialogue des cultures en rapport avec la formation de l'enseignant, semble avoir pris la pleine mesure de cette urgence. La pertinence de cette problématique, dans une communauté qui s'élargit inéluctablement de jour en jour, malgré quelques hésitations ou refus, à l'image du récent NON irlandais ne souffre d'aucune contestation. On pourrait cependant s'étonner des difficultés rencontrées dans le processus d'élargissement pour une Europe souvent décrite comme le vieux continent assis sur des bases culturelles et religieuses longtemps stabilisées. En réalité le socle culturel commun à l'Europe n'a jamais réussi à éclipser les fortes particularités qui en déterminent la dynamique sociale. Quant à l'Afrique, au-delà d'un prisme uniformisant, il suffit d'une loupe aux performances moyennes pour distinguer toutes les subtilités culturelles d'un continent encore méconnu.

II.1. L'Europe : une unité culturelle macroscopique assise sur de fortes particularités culturelles

Il ne viendrait à aucun observateur averti l'idée de nier l'unité culturelle de l'Europe. Tant du point de vue de l'histoire, des arts et des lettres, du mouvement des idées, le vieux continent n'est comparable à aucune région du monde par sa cohésion. Certes la

construction de ce socle commun est le fruit d'un processus non linéaire, avec ses hauts et ses bas, avec ses périodes fastes et ses tragédies dont les deux guerres mondiales du vingtième siècle constituent une illustration encore vivace dans la mémoire collective. Mais cette unité culturelle au niveau macroscopique ne semble pas avoir réussi à occulter des différences culturelles locales qui sont souvent déterminantes dans les dialogues intercommunautaires. Des nuances sont encore nettement perceptibles dans la plupart des aspects de la vie entre anglophones, germaniques, néerlandophones, francophones, latins, nordiques... Cette situation s'est complexifiée pendant la longue période de la guerre froide et la logique des blocs qui a opposé pendant une bonne partie du 20^{ème} siècle le monde dit alors « libre » et le bloc de l'Est, jusqu'à la chute historique du Mur de Berlin. L'élargissement éventuel de l'Union Européenne à des pays comme la Turquie, les clins d'œil encore timides mais intéressés aux pays non européens de la Méditerranée associés à la nécessité économique de commercer avec d'autres régions du monde fait du vieux continent, un espace d'interférences culturelles qui pourrait dépasser l'autre galaxie culturelle que représente les Etats-Unis d'Amérique. Il faut d'ailleurs remarquer que les Etats-Unis ont ceci de particulier que les réalités multiculturelles se déploient dans un consensus alimenté par le rêve américain. Un grand défi se pose donc à l'Europe. Seul le développement d'une culture de dialogue des cultures lui permettra d'assurer une stabilité sociale à ses différentes composantes tout en tenant compte des interactions inévitables avec des cultures venues d'ailleurs. En effet le système de production et de consommation dominés par les multinationales devenues transnationales du fait de la mondialisation, impose de faire appel à la main d'œuvre la plus qualifiée où qu'elle se trouve sur la planète Terre, et au meilleur prix. L'Afrique est également concernée.

II.2. L'unité culturelle de l'Afrique : l'arbre qui cache la forêt ?

Alors que l'Europe pouvait se prévaloir d'une continuité culturelle, l'Afrique Noire a été longtemps présentée comme une juxtaposition de petites sociétés autarciques, sans liens entre elles, n'ayant aucune conscience de leur appartenance à une base culturelle commune. Naturellement, ce n'était pas le point de vue des nationalistes africains pour qui l'explicitation d'une unité culturelle fondamentale était un enjeu stratégique, dans leur combat pour l'indépendance et l'émancipation.

En effet, un système de domination d'un peuple n'est stable que lorsqu'il s'appuie sur une domination culturelle. Les idéologues de la colonisation de l'Afrique au début du XIX^e siècle ne s'y sont jamais trompés. C'est ainsi que par des mesures administratives et juridiques, ils ont agi sur les trois facteurs qui selon Cheikh Anta Diop déterminent la personnalité culturelle : les facteurs historiques, linguistiques et psychologiques⁶⁶.

Ainsi, les petits écoliers africains francophones apprenaient dans leurs leçons d'histoire que leurs ancêtres étaient des Gaulois. Il leur était interdit de parler leur langue maternelle à l'école. Certains comportements propres à leur psychologie culturelle étaient considérés comme des signes d'arriération mentale et culturelle.

Devant cette négation de la culture locale, les premiers africains diplômés des écoles françaises, se donnèrent comme mission de prouver l'existence d'une personnalité culturelle nationale en insistant particulièrement sur le facteur historique. Cela

⁶⁶ Diop, C. A., *Civilisation ou barbarie, Présence Africaine.*

explique que les programmes d'histoire dans l'enseignement élémentaire et secondaire aient été les premiers à avoir subi des modifications notables dès l'accession à la souveraineté nationale.

Ainsi, les militants de la Négritude avec les têtes de file que furent Aimé Césaire et Léopold Sédar Senghor se sont surtout intéressés aux facteurs culturels et psychologiques en exaltant la culture « nègre ». En même temps et presque à l'opposé, des chercheurs tel le Sénégalais Cheikh Anta Diop cherchèrent à élever le débat à un niveau scientifique, en ciblant les facteurs historiques et linguistiques par le biais de l'égyptologie⁶⁷. La formation d'une conscience historique et l'explicitation de l'unité linguistique africaine au-delà de la diversité des dialectes, furent considérées comme des conditions indispensables à une renaissance culturelle, politique et économique de l'Afrique. La démarche adoptée ici consiste à établir des aspects fondamentaux unificateurs au delà des spécificités pour les besoins d'une lutte idéologique. Dans cette perspective, s'appuyant enfin sur des bases scientifiques, les chercheurs africains s'attelèrent à construire l'unité culturelle africaine. On mit alors en avant les concepts de « civilisation africaine », de « culture africaine », de « valeurs africaines ». Mais du point de vue épistémologique, les concepts scientifiques ne sont pas des réalités: ce sont des outils de pensée construits par les chercheurs pour rendre intelligible un système complexe. Ainsi, cette unité culturelle revendiquée était plus une arme de lutte idéologique étayée au besoin par des données scientifiques, qu'une réalité psychologique, celle-là même qui détermine la dynamique des peuples malgré le poids important des réalités économiques. Mais aucune société ne peut échapper à la marche de l'histoire. Sous les coups de boutoir des événements ressentis avec des ampleurs variables et interprétés différemment, les sociétés africaines ont subi, même dans des limites territoriales réduites, un processus de différenciation culturelle. Ainsi, au-delà de la vision macroscopique qui tend à uniformiser, les sociétés africaines contemporaines sont en réalité des sociétés multiculturelles. En effet, les trois facteurs historiques, linguistiques et psychologiques n'ont pas varié de la même manière d'une région à une autre.

Mais même si le fait de reconstituer, sur la base d'une recherche scientifique, l'unité culturelle africaine peut contribuer à l'émergence d'une véritable conscience historique, les individus, dans leurs rapports de tous les jours, prennent position, acceptent ou rejettent à partir de leurs particularités culturelles. Celles-ci sont le résultat d'un long processus de différenciation culturelle.

En effet, le phénomène colonial qui a petit à petit succédé au commerce triangulaire Europe-Afrique-Amérique est intervenu à un moment où certaines parties de l'Afrique étaient déjà bien différenciées. Dans certaines régions de véritables Etats organisés pouvant se prévaloir d'une administration forte étaient déjà créés et cela depuis le 10^{ème} siècle après la naissance de Jésus Christ. L'écriture arabe avait permis à certains souverains africains de développer de véritables foyers littéraires et culturels, entourés par de véritables érudits et s'appuyant sur des mécènes. Certains de ces foyers se présentaient comme des universités. Les récits de chroniqueurs arabes sont édifiants à ce propos, confirmés plus tard, dans une large mesure par des explorateurs européens tel le français René Caillé qui découvre pour l'Occident, Tombouctou, « la Cité mystérieuse ».

⁶⁷ Diop C. A., Nation Nègre et Culture, De l'antiquité Nègre-Egyptienne aux problèmes culturels de l'Afrique noire, Présence Africaine

La colonisation sera ainsi vécue différemment selon que les peuples étaient déjà suffisamment bien organisés, culturellement forts, jouissant à la fois d'une conscience historique et d'une unité linguistique, ou selon qu'ils vivaient en petits groupes isolés, politiquement et psychologiquement fragiles. Certaines régions côtières ont vécu plus de trois siècles de commerce avec l'occident tandis que d'autres, continentales, n'ont été totalement soumises qu'après la première guerre mondiale.

La religion a également joué un grand rôle dans le processus de différenciation culturelle. Certains peuples ont connu l'islam depuis le 10^{ème} siècle et ont fini par intégrer une bonne partie des valeurs islamiques dans leur patrimoine culturel, aboutissant à un syncrétisme que certains historiens de l'Occident ont appelé «l'Islam noir», alors que dans certaines parties du continent africain, la conscience historique se confond avec l'arrivée des premiers missionnaires blancs. Certains peuples sont restés animistes, ce qui se traduit par des repères éthiques et cosmogoniques très différents de ceux des peuples monothéistes.

Les rapports conflictuels ou pacifiques avec le système colonial, les formes de résistance culturelle ou l'effort d'assimilation, l'insertion plus ou moins réussie dans le nouveau système économique a conduit, petit à petit, à des combinaisons très complexes qui définissent de nouvelles personnalités culturelles différenciées d'un groupe à un autre.

Alors que dans le discours et dans les écrits par une approche macroscopique globalisante on se réfère à une société africaine ou sénégalaise, nous assistons en réalité à la superposition de plusieurs sociétés, résultats des différentes contraintes exercées sur les trois facteurs fondamentaux de l'identité culturelle.

Ainsi que ce soit l'Europe ou l'Afrique la mondialisation est un contexte qui amplifie la complexité des structures multiculturelles et impose des brassages qu'il faut nécessairement gérer.

III. L'ECOLE, UN ACTEUR-CLE DE LA GESTION DES BRASSAGES CULTURELS

Créer les conditions d'un dialogue des cultures, permettre un brassage fécond source d'enrichissement mutuel, voilà des tâches qu'impose la mondialisation de l'économie et son corolaire que constituent les importants flux migratoires. De nombreux acteurs peuvent contribuer à ce nécessaire dialogue des cultures.

III.1. LES DIFFERENTS ACTEURS

Le pouvoir politique:

En tant qu'institution ayant reçu mandat de gérer la cité, d'organiser et de réguler les interactions sociales et au besoin d'arbitrer, le pouvoir politique a sans doute de grandes responsabilités dans la définition d'un cadre réglementaire de ce dialogue des cultures. Il ne serait sans doute pas superflu d'imaginer l'adoption dans les chartes fondamentales des différents pays ou communautés économico-politiques, de dispositions générales qui reconnaissent le dialogue des cultures comme un principe fondateur des sociétés modernes à l'image de la déclaration universelle des droits de la personne humaine. En effet, même s'il y a souvent un écart entre l'expression d'intentions au niveau politique et leur mise en œuvre, une telle initiative aurait entre

autres avantages, l'appropriation de cette problématique par les citoyens et la définition de repères pour la gestion des conflits.

Les communautés:

Dans des pays où se déploient des communautés bien distinctes, l'irruption de cultures différentes du fait de la mobilité des personnes et des biens dans un contexte de mondialisation pourrait constituer un facteur aggravant des tensions identitaires. L'adhésion des communautés au dialogue des cultures apparaît ainsi comme une condition nécessaire. On pourrait faire l'hypothèse d'effets induits positifs dans la mesure où la cohabitation avec de nouvelles communautés pourrait créer des chances d'atténuer le face à face historiquement conflictuel entre des communautés nationales.

La société civile qui souvent adopte des postures qui transcendent les clivages communautaires devrait jouer dans ce processus un rôle important.

La presse:

A une époque où on parle de société de l'information, la presse dans ces différentes composantes exerce de plus en plus un rôle important dans la gestion des conflits entre les cultures. Il arrive même qu'elle soit à l'origine d'un conflit culturel. En effet, un fait isolé, anodin peut parfois être transformé par un médium communicationnel en un événement culturellement chargé avec son lot de passions et parfois de violence. Il suffit d'un commentaire superficiel ou orienté, d'un document vidéo circulant sur la toile mondiale (Web) pour qu'un échange entre deux personnes appartenant à des cultures différentes soit à l'origine de manifestations violentes. Le manque d'informations sur les autres cultures, les caricatures et réductions et parfois la simple mauvaise foi sont des facteurs déterminants de l'impact de la presse sur le dialogue des cultures.

L'école:

Parmi les différents acteurs de cette gestion de la cohabitation de différentes cultures, l'école devrait occuper une place de premier choix. L'école est devenue une obligation pour la plupart des pays dits développés, alors qu'ailleurs on se fixe encore des échéances pour la scolarisation universelle. C'est à l'école que revient la préparation des nouvelles générations à l'insertion dans des sociétés qui seront de plus en plus marquées par la cohabitation de plusieurs cultures. Les nombreuses critiques formulées à propos du manque de pertinence de la formation dispensée à l'école ont abouti aujourd'hui à l'émergence dans les méthodes d'enseignement de l'approche par les compétences. Une compétence est entendue ici au sens de capacité à faire face à une famille de situations spécifiques. Dans cette approche les acquis des apprenants devraient prendre du sens dans des situations socialement significatives. Une des compétences-clés dans un contexte de mondialisation et d'interactions culturelles est sans doute la capacité du citoyen du monde à exercer un commerce social basé sur l'acceptation des différences, et de construire des espaces de convergence. L'école est donc attendue au tournant.

III. 2. QUELLE CONTRIBUTION DE L'ECOLE AU DIALOGUE DES CULTURES

L'école peut contribuer au dialogue des cultures suivant plusieurs axes dont: les contenus, les méthodes, la formation des enseignants.

III.2.1. Les contenus et méthodes d'enseignement

L'école est une structure qui fonctionne sur la base d'intentions exprimées à plusieurs niveaux. La formulation de ces intentions, l'évaluation de leur pertinence et de leur réalisation a été à l'origine de plusieurs mutations. Par exemple l'approche par les compétences qui s'impose dans de nombreux projets éducatifs novateurs peut être considérée comme une réponse au constat du manque de pertinence d'intentions exprimées en termes d'objectifs morcelés, sans liens explicites avec des situations sociales vécues. Mais la poursuite de ces objectifs ou la construction de ces compétences se fait toujours à travers des contenus. On peut concéder que le niveau de développement atteint par l'humanité est tel qu'on s'accorde sur l'élaboration et la validation de savoirs universels qui transcendent les cultures. Mais en même temps les contenus d'enseignement, ne serait-ce que par la forme ne peuvent être exempts de toute charge culturelle. L'école devrait accorder la plus grande attention au contexte culturel, devenu multiculturel, dans lequel on cherche à amener les apprenants à s'approprier des contenus pour construire des compétences. Mieux, l'école, malgré la pression des préoccupations d'efficacité et d'efficience devrait inclure de nouveaux contenus culturels dans tous les programmes de formation, pour mieux faciliter le dialogue culturel.

Au-delà des contenus, l'école peut préparer le dialogue des cultures à travers ces méthodes d'enseignement. En effet, du fait de la mondialisation, les publics scolaires et universitaires seront de plus en plus culturellement hétérogènes. La situation du Sénégal est déjà révélatrice. L'Université Cheikh Anta Diop de Dakar, doyenne des universités francophones au sud du Sahara avec des effectifs de l'ordre de 50 000 étudiants compte plus de 40 nationalités venant du Maghreb arabe, de l'Afrique Noire, de pays francophones, anglophones et lusophones. Dans l'enseignement privé, des lycées et collèges, des instituts d'enseignement supérieurs ont parfois des effectifs qui renferment jusqu'à près de 50% d'étudiants non sénégalais. Depuis une dizaine d'années un grand complexe scolaire sénégaloturc a vu le jour avec un succès certain. De plus en plus des universités de l'Amérique du Nord, de l'Europe occidentale ouvrent des campus à Dakar avec comme objectif de capter toute cette jeunesse africaine avide de savoir, malgré les images de boat-people qui ont fini de faire le tour du monde. L'espace scolaire et universitaire du Sénégal tend à devenir un des espaces les plus cosmopolites d'Afrique au Sud du Sahara.

Ainsi l'école ne peut plus se permettre d'ignorer cette réalité multiculturelle des situations d'enseignement-apprentissage. Au Sénégal il est heureux de constater que de plus en plus les structures d'enseignement ont intégré dans leur agenda des journées culturelles annuelles qui donnent l'occasion aux différentes cultures de s'exprimer, de mieux se connaître et de s'enrichir mutuellement. La prise en compte des différences culturelles entre les membres d'une même cohorte d'apprenants devrait aller au-delà de ces journées ponctuelles, s'inscrire définitivement dans les pratiques quotidiennes des enseignants. Mais la conception et la mise en œuvre de méthodes d'enseignement intégrant la dimension multiculturelle devrait être le résultat d'une formation appropriée des enseignants pour la promotion du dialogue des cultures.

III.2.2. La formation des enseignants

La formation des enseignants dans une perspective de dialogue des cultures devrait répondre au moins à deux questions :

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- Comment former des enseignants capables de prendre en charge des groupes d'élèves ou d'étudiants culturellement hétérogènes ? Ce seront des enseignants capables de concevoir et de conduire des situations d'enseignement-apprentissage ouvertes, sensibles aux différences culturelles tout en étant finalisées vers la maîtrise de compétences citoyennes, scientifiques et techniques partagées.
 - Comment alors concilier l'exigence d'efficacité et de compétitivité des systèmes éducatifs modernes et la nécessité de préparer les apprenants à évoluer dans un environnement multiculturel et à s'engager dans le dialogue des cultures ?

Pour développer ces profils de compétences il sera donc indispensable de s'appuyer sur des contenus spécifiques et de mettre en œuvre des stratégies appropriées.

La formation des enseignants se fait suivant plusieurs modèles. Dans de nombreux pays les maîtres des enseignements préscolaire et élémentaire et les professeurs de lycées et collèges sont formés dans des institutions différentes. Au Sénégal par exemple, les instituteurs sont formés dans les Ecoles de Formation d'Instituteurs (EFI), alors que les professeurs sont formés à l'Ecole Normale Supérieure(ENS) devenue en 2006 Faculté des Sciences et Technologies de l'Education et de la Formation(FASTEF), et à l'ENSETP pour l'enseignement technique. En France, la formation professionnelle de toutes les catégories d'enseignants (les maîtres au sens général) est prise en charge par les IUFM.

Au-delà des modèles, la formation professionnelle comporte généralement une partie théorique et une partie pratique. L'articulation temporelle et spatiale de ces deux composantes est également variable. Mais de plus en plus on privilégie une alternance théorie/pratique.

La partie théorique est principalement axée sur la didactique de la (des) discipline(s) à enseigner et des disciplines qui permettent de comprendre les fondements des pratiques d'enseignement : psychopédagogie, philosophie, psychologie, et sociologie de l'éducation... Des activités intermédiaires permettent de préparer la partie pratique de la formation: planification d'un cours, conception et conduite d'une situation d'enseignement-apprentissage et évaluation. Dans le cas spécifique des disciplines scientifiques, l'accent est mis sur la connaissance du matériel et les pratiques expérimentales. L'intégration des TIC semble être le nouveau défi des institutions de formation des enseignants.

La partie pratique de la formation est constituée par des leçons d'application et des stages. Les élèves professeurs sont ainsi mis dans des situations d'intégration où ils vont s'exercer à faire face à des situations réelles d'enseignement-apprentissage. Des activités parascolaires peuvent parfois compléter ce panel avec notamment des enquêtes et visites de terrain pour une meilleure connaissance de l'environnement technologique social et culturel des apprenants.

La plupart des structures de formation ont institué la finalisation d'un travail de fin d'études prenant des formes diverses. Au Sénégal par exemple, les élèves professeurs sont tenus de réaliser un travail de fin d'études qui peut être une recherche en éducation, l'expérimentation d'une démarche, la conception d'un support de cours théorique ou expérimental ou d'un document de vulgarisation, une monographie sur des contenus scientifiques.

La présentation des modèles de formation et des contenus classiques nous amène à nous poser la question suivante: quels contenus spécifiques introduire ou renforcer

dans la formation des enseignants pour préparer ceux-ci à apporter une contribution importante au dialogue des cultures ?

Pour répondre à cette question centrale de la 33^{ème} conférence de l'ATEE nous partons des hypothèses suivantes à propos du dialogue culturel :

1. le dialogue culturel nécessite une base minimale de culture générale
2. le dialogue culturel nécessite des compétences en communication interpersonnelle et en dynamique de groupe
3. le dialogue culturel nécessite un consensus minimal sur certaines questions sociétales : démocratie, genre, citoyenneté, éducation à la paix
4. le dialogue culturel exige des compétences dans la gestion des conflits

Ces quatre hypothèses suggèrent d'introduire dans la formation des enseignants des contenus transversaux susceptibles de favoriser le dialogue culturel. Il s'agit de mettre à la disposition des enseignants des outils conceptuels et des démarches leur permettant d'organiser les situations d'enseignement-apprentissage dans une perspective multiculturelle.

De manière pratique, quatre modules optionnels peuvent être élaborés avec des crédits définis dans le cadre du système LMD. Les candidats au métier devraient au moins choisir et valider 2 de ces quatre modules pour prétendre à la certification au métier d'enseignant. Les modalités de validation de ces modules peuvent être très diverses : cours théoriques, participation à des projets, séjours d'imprégnation culturelle, enquêtes auprès de groupes minoritaires... Il serait même envisageable de fondre les quatre dimensions en un seul module. L'essentiel est d'amener les institutions de formation d'enseignants à s'approprier de manière systématique la problématique du dialogue des cultures.

Etant donné la diversité des contextes, les stratégies à mettre en œuvre ne peuvent être définies de manière rigide. L'idée de base est de consacrer la place des cultures et du dialogue des cultures dans les différentes approches de l'enseignement et de l'apprentissage. L'enseignant ne doit plus être comptable uniquement de la maîtrise d'une ou plusieurs disciplines académiques, c'est également un acteur multiculturel qui prépare les futurs citoyens des sociétés multiculturelles. On pourrait suggérer le passage d'une démarche purement pédagogique avec comme préoccupation essentielle la maîtrise de compétences utiles à l'insertion dans le monde du travail, à des démarches intégrant le dialogue des cultures. Nous allons tenter dans ce qui suit d'en présenter une illustration.

III.3. Perspectives africaines : l'approche ASSFOR, une démarche pédagogique transférable au dialogue des cultures

III.3.1. Présentation de l'approche ASSFOR

Notre expérience d'un quart de siècle dans la formation des enseignants a été surtout consacrée aux professeurs de physique et chimie des lycées et collèges au Sénégal. Mais à partir de 1996, pour répondre à une commande de l'Office National de la Formation Professionnelle (ONFP) nous avons été amenés à prendre en charge, dans le cadre d'une équipe pédagogique, des groupes hétérogènes de professionnels de

l'éducation et de la formation pour un renforcement de capacités en pédagogie: professeurs de l'enseignement général ou technique, animateurs pédagogiques, administrateurs de structures éducatives, ingénieurs reconvertis dans l'enseignement technique...

Face à une situation inédite nous avons cherché à faire preuve de créativité. Notre analyse nous a alors conduit à formaliser une démarche que nous avons appelée : Approche Socioconstructiviste d'une Situation de Formation (ASSFOR). La méthode ASSFOR a été l'objet d'une publication dans les Actes du Colloque International sur « Constructivismes, usages et perspectives en éducation » tenu à Genève (Suisse) du 4 au 8 septembre 2000. Vol. II pp.607-613

L'approche s'appuie sur une articulation entre les théories de l'éducation et les pratiques de formation. L'approche est qualifiée de socioconstructiviste. Ce qualificatif englobe deux aspects :

1. D'une part, l'approche se réfère à un paradigme de l'apprentissage postulant que les connaissances s'acquièrent de manière durable par un processus de construction (Piaget, 1970)

2. D'autre part, cette construction a une dimension sociale, c'est-à-dire qu'elle intègre les variables de groupes avec ses conflits et sa dynamique interne (Doise et Mugny, 1984 ; O'Loughlin, 1992)

L'approche ASSFOR est d'abord un cadre méthodologique pour la mise en œuvre d'une action de formation. Elle a été conçue pour répondre au problème posé par la mise en œuvre d'une formation ayant pour cible des groupes d'adultes par essence hétérogènes. Notre hypothèse ici est qu'il est possible de la transférer au dialogue des cultures.

III.3.2. L'approche ASSFOR : d'une approche pédagogique à un guide au service du dialogue des cultures

Nous avons abouti à la conclusion que l'hétérogénéité des groupes pris en charge dans l'approche ASSFOR induisait des conflits d'ordre culturel. En effet chacun des participants, du fait de son parcours personnel, de sa discipline d'origine, de son statut administratif était porteur d'une culture. La culture ici n'est pas seulement rattachée à une race ou à une zone géographique. Elle traduit un parcours plus ou moins long jalonné d'expériences diverses, générant un système de valeurs jouant le rôle de grille de lecture. Notre hypothèse est qu'au niveau qualitatif, il n'y a qu'une différence d'échelle entre le dialogue culturel au sein d'un groupe de formation hétérogène et le nécessaire dialogue à l'échelle de la société dans un contexte de mondialisation.

Les éléments constitutifs de la démarche ASSFOR pourraient ainsi être transférés à une démarche de dialogue des cultures, dans un contexte de mondialisation. Alors que l'approche ASSFOR se réfère à une situation de formation, le dialogue des cultures devient indispensable dans ce que nous appelons des situations sociales. Celles-ci sont constituées par toutes les situations de la vie courante, du monde du travail notamment, où des personnes de cultures généralement différentes, particulièrement dans ce contexte de mondialisation, sont amenées à travailler ensemble pour atteindre des objectifs définis.

Dans le tableau suivant en nous inspirant de la philosophie qui sous-tend l'approche ASSFOR, nous mettons en évidence des balises pour le dialogue des cultures au sein de groupes culturellement hétérogènes engagés dans la poursuite d'objectifs communs.

La première colonne est consacrée aux différentes étapes de l'approche alors que la deuxième colonne indique des repères pour des activités de dialogue des cultures.

ASSFOR : approche pédagogique	Balise pour une démarche de dialogue des cultures
Situation de formation	Situation sociale
<p><u>Etape 1. Entrée par les attentes et les enjeux d'une situation de formation</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - une dimension affective - une dimension cognitive - une dimension pragmatique (utilitaire) - une dimension conative - une dimension sociale <p><u>Etape 2. Adoption d'une grille d'analyse du futur programme et des activités de formation à mettre en œuvre</u></p> <p><u>Etape 3. Ateliers d'analyse de besoins</u></p> <p><u>Etape 4. Négociation pédagogique et adoption d'un programme de formation</u></p> <p><u>Etape 5. Déroulement des activités de formation</u></p> <p><u>Etape 6. Evaluation de la session de formation</u></p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Partager et s'appropriier les objectifs poursuivis à travers la situation sociale 2. Partager l'idée de la diversité et de la richesse des expériences et des cultures des formations reçues par les membres du groupe 3. Partager l'idée selon laquelle chaque culture est porteuse de préjugés vis-à-vis de cultures différentes 4. Accepter la possibilité de l'émergence de conflits apparents ou réels entre membre du groupe 5. Partager l'idée selon laquelle, au-delà des différences objectives ou formelles, les cultures partagent un espace de convergences 6. Définir des règles de communication interpersonnelle 7. Organiser des activités culturelles d'enrichissement mutuel 8. Construire et partager des mécanismes de gestion des conflits culturels 9. Elaborer en commun un dispositif de suivi du dialogue culturel au sein du groupe 10. Mettre à la disposition du groupe un tableau de bord sur la diversité culturelle (éventuellement un site Web) 11. Faire appel au besoin à un spécialiste des questions multiculturelles comme observateur ou modérateur

CONCLUSION

Le dialogue des cultures a été d'abord théorisé dans une perspective purement humaniste. Il n'est pas exagéré de dire que le poète, académicien et homme d'Etat sénégalais, Léopold Sédar Senghor a été un des porte-drapeau du dialogue des cultures, au 20^{ème} siècle. Senghor en effet a émis depuis les années 1940, l'hypothèse selon laquelle l'avenir du monde est dans le dialogue et le métissage culturels. Cette position a suscité des débats passionnants et passionnés au sein de l'intelligentsia africaine. Mais le temps semble avoir donné raison à Senghor, l'Immortel.

Le sport semble être le cadre le plus explicite du brassage culturel qui caractérise le monde d'aujourd'hui. L'Equipe de France de football remportant la coupe du monde de 1998 préfigure-t-elle la structure des prochaines générations ? Un capitaine d'équipe originaire du Ghana a brandi une coupe au nom de la France, à côté de Patrick Viera, enfant de Dakar, de Makélélé venu du lointain Congo, après deux buts somptueux de Zinedine Zidane consacré pendant des années personnage préféré des français. Des athlètes noirs à la peau d'ébène courent sous les couleurs de pays

nordiques acclamés par des têtes blondes aux yeux verts ou bleus. Mais le sport n'est-il que la partie visible de l'iceberg ? Qu'en est-il des laboratoires de recherches, des sociétés informatiques, des banques internationales ? Un scientifique malien Cheikh Modibo Diarra, né et grandi à Bamako s'invite dans les équipes de la NASA chargées de concevoir et commander à distance des engins lancés sur la planète MARS. De plus en plus le savoir scientifique, les compétences managériales, le charisme et le rayonnement transcendent les frontières géographiques et/ou culturelles. Nelson Mandela n'est-il pas devenu l'une des icônes mondiales les plus célébrées ?

Le dialogue culturel est donc devenu dans le contexte de la mondialisation une exigence politique et économique et une condition nécessaire à la stabilité sociale des pays engagés dans la construction de grands espaces économiques et politiques. L'Europe se préoccupe des conséquences culturelles de son élargissement. L'Afrique bien avant les indépendances avait jeté les bases d'un panafricanisme agissant porté en bandoulière par des leaders charismatiques à l'image de Cheikh Anta Diop du Sénégal et de Kwamé Nkrumah du Ghana. Cette dernière décennie a vu cette idée revenir en force. L'Union Africaine (UA), malgré les hésitations semble avoir marqué des points significatifs, le processus ayant été accéléré par la prise de conscience d'une marginalisation progressive de l'Afrique au profit des anciens pays de l'Est et de l'Asie émergente. Mais l'Afrique devra également faire face à des problèmes multiculturels. Le dialogue des cultures n'est donc pas une problématique spécifique à l'Europe.

La contribution des systèmes éducatifs au dialogue culturel doit se manifester dans la formation initiale des citoyens d'un monde globalisé, de l'élémentaire au supérieur, dans les contenus et les méthodes. La formation des enseignants devra désormais intégrer cette problématique mondiale. Les pratiques pédagogiques ont tiré profit de nombreuses disciplines contributives : philosophie, psychologie, sociologie, biologie, histoire... Dans ce contexte de mondialisation, la culture devra de plus en plus occuper une place importante. Les conditions sont peut-être réunies pour jeter les bases d'une pédagogie culturelle!

Mais des initiatives devront être prises en dehors des systèmes scolaires pour que le dialogue des cultures devienne une compétence citoyenne des temps modernes. Dans cette entreprise l'Afrique, riche de sa multiculturalité traditionnelle et moderne, de sa générosité spirituelle et de ses mécanismes subtils de cousinage à plaisanteries et de gestion des conflits interpersonnels, à coup sûr, sera, pour parler comme Léopold Sédar Senghor le poète président, présente, au banquet du dialogue culturel, « au rendez-vous du donner et du recevoir ».

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How student teachers' educational beliefs and self-efficacy translate to their prospective ICT use in education.

Guoyuan Sang, Martin Valcke, Johan van Braak

Department of Educational Studies, Ghent University

Abstract

Student teachers should be prepared to integrate information and communication technologies (ICTs) into their future teaching practices. The present study centres on influences of student teachers' educational beliefs (traditional teaching, constructivist teaching), teaching self-efficacy, computer self-efficacy (outcome expectancy, self-efficacy) and personal computer experiences on their interests of ICT integration ($N = 727$). Results showed that interests of ICT integration significantly correlated to all of the independent variables. However, for a Regression model, only three independent variables (constructivist teaching, outcome expectancy, self-efficacy) were included as predictors.

Keywords: Student teachers; Educational beliefs; Self-efficacy; ICT integration

1. Problem statement

Since the introduction of educational technology into schools, teacher education has faced the challenge of improving in-service teachers and preparing pre-service teachers for successful integration of computers into teaching practices. Subsequently, schools are increasing access to technology tools by adding more hardware and software, connecting classrooms to the Internet, and providing cable and satellite capabilities (Zehr, 1997, 1998). Efficient and successful use of ICT in education also becomes a worldwide focus of educational researchers. However, despite the increased availability and support for ICT use in education, and teachers have recognized the importance of integrating technology into their teachings activities, relatively few teachers have fully integrated ICTs into their teaching (see Becker, 2000).

Various kinds of barriers block teachers' implementation efforts (Ertmer, 1999), including hardware and software access at schools, computer literacy of teachers students, working pressure and technical support (Albion, 1999; He, 2005). However, according to Ertmer (1999), even if those kinds of (external) barriers were resolved, "teachers would not automatically use technology to achieve the kind of meaningful outcomes advocated" (p.51). As an important internal barrier, teacher beliefs and efficacy may play an important role on ICT integration. Teacher beliefs have been reported as a major factor in understanding the frequency and success with ICT use (Compeau & Higgins, 1995; Compeau, Higgins, & Huff, 1999; Potosky, 2002). Teachers' teaching efficacy and computer efficacy may also influence their classroom computer use, since self-efficacy has repeatedly been reported as a major factor in understanding the frequency and success of computer use in education (Eachus & Cassidy, 1999). Prior research consistently indicates that computer self-efficacy is positively correlated with an individual's willingness to choose and participate in

computer-related activities, expectations of success in such activities, and persistence or effective coping behaviors when faced with computer-related difficulties (Compeau & Higgins, 1995; Murphy, Coover, & Owen, 1989). Compeau and Higgins (1995) found that participants with higher self-efficacy beliefs used computers more often and experienced less computer-related anxiety. On the other hand, teachers who have lower self-efficacy beliefs about computers become more frustrated and more anxious working with computers and hesitate to use computers when they encounter obstacles. This statement can find theoretical foundation from Bandura (1977). He states that an individual's sense of expectations based on personal mastery affects both initiation and persistence in performing that behavior, and plays an important role in completion of a task or behavior.

Computer experience has also been associated with determining personal and educational use of computers. Computers are intensively used in education by teachers who have more years of computer experience (Hill et al., 1987; Ertmer et al., 1994; Bradley & Russell, 1997; Rozell & Gardner, 1999; van Braak et al., 2004). Hill et al (1987) found a significant positive correlation between previous computer experience and computer self-efficacy beliefs of female undergraduates. They claim that positive past experience with computers will increase self-efficacy beliefs and computer use. Ertmer et al (1994) also found that positive computer experience increased computer self-efficacy. Bradley & Russell (1997) demonstrated that the quality of prior computer learning experiences was related to computer use. As for student teachers in Chinese educational settings, however, even if most of the student teachers' have experience of personal computer use, they don't have enough opportunities of using computers for educational purposes (Chen, 2004). Even so, computer experience of student teachers is still worthy of examining as a variable.

The present study aimed to examine the impact of teachers' educational beliefs and self-efficacy on student teachers' prospective ICT use in education. Specifically, the study was guided by the following research hypotheses:

- (1) Student teachers who were exposed holding more constructivist (progressive) beliefs would be much more interested in integrating ICTs into teaching practice.
- (2) Student teachers who were exposed strong self-efficacy would be much more interested in integrating ICTs into teaching practice.
- (3) Student teachers who were exposed high constructivist beliefs and strong self-efficacy would be much more interested in integrating ICTs into teaching practice.

2. Theoretical background

2.1 Defining teacher beliefs

Belief is defined as a tenet or body of tenets held by a group, and as a conviction of the truth of some statement or the reality of some being or phenomenon, especially when based on examination of evidence (Merriam-Webster, 2001). A belief is a representation of the information someone holds about an object, or a "person's understanding of himself and his environment" (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975. p 131). Beliefs and beliefs system serve as personal guides in helping individuals define and understand the world and themselves (Pajares, 1992). Different substructures of the belief system are not necessarily logically structured (Richardson, 2003). Contrasting beliefs remain within the belief system as long as they are not examined against each other (Bryan, 2003).

Researchers agree that scientific definition of teacher beliefs is a perplexing process. For instance, Pajares (1992) labeled teacher beliefs as a “messy construct”, “the difficulty in studying teachers’ beliefs has been caused by definitional problems, poor conceptualizations, and differing understandings of beliefs and belief structures” (p. 307). Even so, researchers have been trying to give an acceptable definition to teacher beliefs. Clark and Peterson (1986) argue that teachers’ beliefs can be classified as some kinds of teachers’ thought processes. According to Calderhead (1996), teacher beliefs, as well as teacher knowledge and teacher thinking, comprise the broader concept of teacher cognition. Researchers state that teachers’ beliefs are relatively stable conceptual representations that act as a filter through which new knowledge and experiences are screened for meaning (Fang, 1996; Kagan, 1992; Nespor, 1987; Pajares, 1992).

Teachers have both constructivist and traditional beliefs about teaching and learning (see Woolley et al., 2004; Hermans et al., 2007). But this does not imply that beliefs have to be approaches as contrasting and exclusive constructs. Kerlinger and Kaya (1959 a, 1959b) e.g., put forward the idea that the bipolar discord between teacher-centered “traditionalistic” and more “progressive” or student-centered educational beliefs is false. This has been confirmed in a number of empirical studies (e.g. Tondeur et al., in press). Teachers can adopt a pattern of different belief constructs.

Researchers believe that teachers’ beliefs play a critical role in defining behavior and organizing knowledge and information in classroom activities (Abelson, 1979; Bandura, 1986; Nespor, 1987; Posner et al., 1982; Schommer, 1990). The theoretical and actual influences of teachers’ educational beliefs on ICT integration have been also explored by researchers (Higgins & Moseley, 2001; Riel & Becker, 2000; Tondeur et al., in press).

2.2 Defining teacher self-efficacy

Self-efficacy refers to one’s belief in his or her capabilities to be an active agent on and in the environment (Bandura 1977, 1982, 1997). “Perceived self-efficacy is not a measure of the skills one has but a belief about what one can do under different sets of conditions with whatever skills one possesses” (Bandura, 1997, p37). It describes a system of beliefs that a person holds regarding his or her self-perceived ability to change, alter facilitate, and/or function in a specific or general task. Self-efficacy beliefs are significant because they are highly predictive of human behavior (Pajares, 1997). As proposed by Bandura, self-efficacy is specific to a particular set of behaviors and comprises two components, efficacy expectations and outcome expectations which respectively relate to belief in personal capacity to effect a behavior and belief that the behavior will result in a particular outcome.

A teacher’s efficacy belief is a judgment of his or her capabilities to bring about desired outcomes of student engagement and learning, even among those students who may be difficult or unmotivated (Armor et al., 1976; Bandura, 1977). It is related to teachers’ behavior in the classroom. Teachers with a strong sense of self-efficacy are open to new ideas and more willing to experiment with new strategies (Guskey, 1988, Stein & Wang, 1988).

Bandura’s theory of self-efficacy also provides a basis for understanding the behavior of individuals with regard to their acceptance or rejection of technology (Olivier & Shapiro, 1993). Self-efficacy regarding computers refers to a person’s perceptions of and capabilities for applying computer technology (Compeau & Higgins, 1995).

Teacher self-efficacy is correlated to ICT integration (Compeau & Higgins, 1995; Compeau, Higgins, & Huff, 1999; Hasan, 2003; Marakas, Potosky, 2002).

3. Method

3.1 Instruments

Teachers' educational beliefs were measured through two sub-scales of "Teacher Beliefs Survey (TBS)" by Woolley et al. (2004): "traditional teaching" (TT) and "constructivist teaching" (CT). "Traditional management" (TM) was excluded, since we aimed to measure teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning. The TT scale contains 7 items such as, "*I base student grades primarily on homework, quizzes, and tests*" or "*I teach subjects separately, although I am aware of the overlap of content and skills*". The CT scale includes 10 items such as "*I believe that expanding on students' ideas is an effective way to build my curriculum*" or "*I involve students in evaluating their own work and setting their own goals*". The recommended translation procedure "back-translation" (Brislin, 1970) was applied to the development of the instrument. The related two instruments were translated from English into Chinese; a different translator translated that version back into English, and then an English speaker compared the original instruments with the back-translation. The participants were asked to rate their levels of agreement (from 1- strongly disagree to 5- strongly agree). Internal consistency was measured with Cronbach's α : CT scale ($\alpha = .81$) and TT scale ($\alpha = .57$). The reliability of TT is not strong enough, but, as an exploring study, it sufficed (Nunnally, 1967). The results also suggest that there is a positive association between both beliefs scales ($r = 0.24$, $p < .01$).

Teachers' teaching self-efficacy were explored by "Ohio State teacher efficacy scale" (OSTES; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). The OSTES contains 3 subscales (efficacy for instructional strategies, efficacy for classroom management and efficacy for student engagement) and 12 items (short version), such as "*How much can you do to adjust your lessons to the proper level for individual students?*" For student teachers, only one construct was suggested. "Subscale scores may have little meaning for prospective teachers who have yet to assume real teaching responsibilities" (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). Principal-axis factoring revealed one factor, using the response of student teachers ($n = 727$). The reliability of 0.84 was acceptable compared to the original instrument (0.90).

The Microcomputer Utilization in Teaching Efficacy Beliefs Instrument (MUTEBI) (Enochs et al., 1993) is utilized to explore student teachers' self-efficacy about computers. It included subscale measurements for Outcome Expectancy (OE, 7 items) and Personal Self-Efficacy (SE, 14 items). 1 item from SE was suggested to remove for future analysis by exploratory factor analysis, since it loaded with low structure coefficients lower than .40. Outcome Expectancy was described as teachers' beliefs regarding their responsibility for students' ability or inability to use computer technology in the classroom. Personal Self Efficacy was defined as "teachers' beliefs in their own ability to utilize the microcomputer for effective instruction" (Enochs et al., 1993, p. 258). These scales were consistent with self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1981). Our study, like the original scales, utilized a 5-point Likert scale format (1 for strongly disagree, 5 for strongly agree). Negatively worded items were scored in the opposite direction with strongly agree receiving 1. The internal consistency was .77 for the OE scale and .86 for the SE scale.

The normal training system in China provides educational practice of 6-8 weeks for student teachers in their 4 years academic career (Chen, 2004). Considering few student teachers have experience of educational computer use, we decided to examine student teachers' *computer interests* on educational use, instead of *computer use*. This exploration was based on "Two types of computer use" (van Braak et al., 2004). And the Likert items of "computer use frequency" were changed into "computer interest" (not at all interested, some interest, interested, very interested). Exploratory factor analysis suggested one factor by accounting for 40.2% of the shared variance among the items. The internal consistency was .87.

3.2 Sample Characteristics

Participants in the study included 727 pre-service primary teachers (93.5% were female) from 7 universities (or teacher colleges) in three regions (Beijing city, Hunan province and Zhejiang province). Most of the respondents were juniors (246, 34%). 128 (18%) of respondents were freshmen. A further 154 (21%) were sophomores and the remainder 199 (27%) were seniors. 123 (17%) of them were majoring in Chinese, 80 (11%) in mathematics, 55 (8%) in English, 100 (14%) in science, 51 (7%) in educational technology, 33 (3%) in arts and 286 (40%) in "other" (187 of them responded "primary education" or elementary education). Most (351, 48%) of the respondents had 1-5 years of computer experience. 326 (45%) of them had more than 6 years of computer experience. However, 50 (7%) of the respondents reported that they had less than 1 year of computer experiences.

4. Results

4.1 Adapting of the instruments

Localizable revision of scales is an important step in cross-cultural studies (Gao et al., 2005). The instruments had been adapted after a series of exploratory factor analysis.

Principal-axis factoring with varimax rotation on TBS suggested that 2 items from TT could be deleted as they loaded in CT sub-dimension: "*To be sure that I teach students all necessary content and skills, I follow a textbook or workbook*" and "*For assessment purposes, I am interested in what students can do independently*". The former item is about the role of textbooks. It is not incomprehensible under Chinese context. Textbooks still play authoritative role in Chinese education. Traditionally, teachers were in awe of textbooks. And this kind of tradition is still influencing teaching strategies of teachers (Chen, 2006). The later item is about "independent learning" and "cooperative learning" (Pei, 2004). Students' abilities of independent learning and studying independently are emphasized under "subjectivity educational experiment" and "new curriculum reform" (Pei, 2004). As a result, it is understandable that teachers can assess students by observing what they can do "independently". The cultural differences of educational strategies in Western and Chinese contexts also can explain some extent of those confusions. For instance, Ma (1999) found that Chinese teachers generated more correct answers and more complete explanations in response to math problems than US teachers.

4.2 Correlations

This study sought to investigate any possible effect on different variables on computer use, Pearson product moment correlation coefficients were computed for pairs of measures. The results are shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Correlations coefficients for pairs of variables (N= 727)

	1	2	3	4	5	6
{1} computer experience						
{2} traditional teaching	.072					
{3} constructivist teaching	-.091*	.244**				
{4} teaching efficacy	-.019	.144**	.513**			
{5} outcome expectancy	.023	.228**	.080*	.199**		
{6} self-efficacy	.122**	-.091*	.255**	.321**	.223**	
{7} computer use	.077*	.099**	.421**	.351**	.151**	.452*

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Several significant can be found from Table 1. For the purposes of this study, the correlations involving computer use are of primary interest. It can be read from Table 1 that computer use was significantly correlated with the other variables. Furthermore, many of those variables were significantly correlated with each other. The potential effects of other variables on computer use were important.

4.3 Regression

In order to clarify the relative predictive influence of different variables on computer use, backward multiple regression was carried out. Computer use was used as the dependent variable, computer experience, the two sub-scales of teacher beliefs, teaching efficacy, the two sub-scales of computer efficacy were entered as the independent variables. Only three variables were retained by the analysis in a model which accounted for 35.1% of the variance ($F[6,699] = 64.647$, $p < .001$). Table 2 shows the results for the final model. Teachers' traditional teaching beliefs, teacher self-efficacy and computer experience were excluded from this model.

Table 2: Overview of the direct effects on educational computer use: regression coefficients (β) and p-values ($n = 713$)

Model		B	S.E	Beta	T	Sig
Computer efficacy	outcome expectancy	.196	.027	.228	7.23	.000
	self efficacy	.409	.031	.428	13.12	.000
Teacher beliefs	constructivist teaching	.301	.032	.298	9.40	.000
(Constant)		-5.540	4.360		-1.27	.204

5. Discussion

Our study produced empirical evidence supporting the hypothesized that student teachers who were exposed holding more constructivist (progressive) beliefs, or who were exposed strong self-efficacy, or who were exposed high constructivist beliefs and strong self-efficacy would be much more interested in integrating ICTs into teaching practice.

Computer experience has been associated with influencing educational use of computers. Hill, Smith and Mann (1987) found a significant positive correlation between previous computer experience and computer self-efficacy beliefs of female undergraduates. They found that experience only influenced behavioral intentions to use computers indirectly through self-efficacy. Positive past experience with computers will increase self-efficacy beliefs. Ertmer et al (1994) found that although positive computer experience increased computer self-efficacy, the actual amount of experience (i.e. time on task) had no correlation to student teachers' self-efficacy beliefs (see Hakverdi et al., 2007). In our study, student teachers' computer use interest in education was significantly correlated with their computer experience. It means that if the student teachers have more years of computer experience, they have more interest on educational use of computers. However, for our regression model, the predictor variable computer experience was excluded as it did not significantly strengthen the model.

Teachers' efficacy beliefs also relate to their behavior in the classroom. As mentioned earlier, teachers' self-efficacy has repeatedly been reported as a major factor in understanding the frequency and success of computer use in education. Compeau et al. (1999) conducted a longitudinal study to test the influence of computer self-efficacy beliefs, outcome expectations, affect, and anxiety on computer use. They concluded that computer self-efficacy beliefs had a significant positive influence on computer use. The present research also suggests that teachers' self-efficacy about teaching and computer are directly related to their potential ICT use in education. In the present study, student teachers' self-efficacy about teaching and computer were analyzed to check the relationships with student teachers' computer interests in education. The findings showed that student teachers' computer interests were positively correlated to their report of efficacy about teaching and computer (outcome

expectancy and self-efficacy). However, only the two computer efficacy sub-scales were in the final regression model. The implication is that the more confident student teachers are about their capacity to use computers in education, the more likely they are to be interested in teaching with computers. And this is consistent with hypothesis of Bandura (1977): people high on both outcome expectancy and self-efficacy would act in an assured, decided manner. Furthermore, it seems that student teachers' confidences in instruction do not influence their interests in integrating computers in their teaching.

6. Implications and limitations

As social expectations for integration of ICTs into daily teaching activities, student teachers should be prepared to integrate technology into their future instruction. According to our findings, ICT integration may be influenced by student teachers' constructivist teaching beliefs and their outcome expectancy and self-efficacy of ICTs. A training program of integrating curriculum, instruction and technology may be expected by Chinese primary student teachers. This program should be carried out in constructivist learning environment. And from the standpoint of self-efficacy theory, the ideal method for influencing teachers' self-efficacy about ICTs would be to provide them with training and support to teach successfully with computers in their classroom activities (Albion, 1999). Wang et al. (2004) claim that vicarious learning experiences increase student teachers' self-efficacy for technology integration. Considering chances of educational practice in Chinese settings, ICT integration experiences of in-service teachers should be helpful for increasing student teachers' computer efficacy and interests.

Our study indicates that personal computer experience of student teachers can not influence their interests in teaching activities with computers. However, according to this, we can not conclude that student teachers' experiences of teaching with computers don't have effect on their technology integrating interests. This should be examined in the further studies.

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Problem solving by use of blended learning in a teacher's netforum

Jarle Sjøvoll

Bodo University College, Norway

Summary

This article is based on an action research project that aims to implement blended learning as a tool for practical problemsolving in basic education in Norwegian, age level 6 to 19 years. The project concerns professional counselling, by the establishment of a new teachers' forum, a net-based resource centre for practical problem-solving. The net-forum is built on the simple principle; asking question and getting answer. Teacher's questions are based on their own definition of a practical problem experienced by themselves - here and now.

This forum is also a contribution towards developing the school as a learning organization, and it will help to strengthen student-teachers' competence in obtaining help - and themselves giving help - by use of modern communication. The resource centre shall to a great extent contribute to the wider development of the guidance service and teacher training by establishing this professional net service for teachers in basic training. To attain this, our intention also is to contribute to the school's learning-culture by putting into practice the principles within "blended learning".

The online-based service will thus also focus on the teachers' health, proficiency, well-being, and answer to all kinds of work-related questions. Guidance by this net-forum has as its goal to give teachers the ability to solve their own practical workday problems in a better way by using the synergy that can be gained by coaching in the teachers' forum. The meaning of this must be specially emphasized for the teachers in district schools.

Results after a one year introduction period show us that the net-forum has much more visitors than users. The visitors mostly look for general information. They are looking for knowledge of didactical, methodology and educational character. The visitors also can have access to information of ethics and laws.

The users make their problem explication themselves. They expect to get an answer to the questions they have been putting into the forum. Here we can find questions expecting need for information, advise on methods, and help with declaring situations. The net-forum seems to have a potential for guidance and consultation on practical problems. Very few users write about more serious personal problems.

At the end of the project period this project will collect up the most important experiences undergone and discoveries which have been made in the work of the previous sections of the project. The final evaluation will also include an external evaluation of the project. The report relates to the aim of the project in its entirety. Problems to be put: (1) Evaluation of the online service - how can practical and problembased counselling online be regulated – possibilities and limitations in the widest sense? 2) How suitable does this electronic service show itself to be in practical problemsolving, seen in relationship to the use of resources? 3) An evaluation of possibilities and limitations as a means of communication and research: the cost of this service?

1. Introduction

“Blending learning” is used as a concept to illustrate that both traditional training methods – such as are experienced in direct contact between teachers and pupil – and newer long-distance communication are used side by side within modern teaching (Valiathan 2002). This is the main principle which forms the basis when the professional “Virtual Teacher Advice and Learning system” (VITAL) is adopted. The general target for which this school project is aimed is two-fold:

1. To develop an online-based service for teachers and student-teachers in Norway. The counselling service will offer support with regard to all practice-related problems which teachers bring in to the forum.

The basic reason for this is that:

The school encounters an ever greater variety of pupils and employees. All pupils and student-teachers have a need for suitable and fitting training, according to their own expectations and needs. This is challenging, and it entails the fact that teachers often encounter practical problems which are difficult for them to solve on their own.

2. To gather information on essential sides for the online-based counselling service, in particular with the aim of evaluating the possibilities of the medium in this field. The project shall contribute to the strengthening of both research-and-practice-based teacher training, and shall be concerned with using the possibilities that offered when one uses the electronic net to a greater extent.

The technological platform for the website “Learerforum” is built on an integrated counselling and research platform, which in addition to communication-solutions has also the inbuilt functions connected with text analysis and the generating of statistical data. By this means, it is possible to focus on development work and also on research.

The concrete innovation-and research-work consists of establishing an online-based counselling service for teachers based upon the counselling – advice-personnel in StatpedNord (special education), the PP-Service (pedagogy and psychology), and the College- and University staff engaged in practice-teaching.

The *aim* of the project can be thus specified:

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- To research into what teachers and other users define as practical problems which they themselves require professional and/or their colleagues' support to solve.
 - To give student-teachers, at all levels, the opportunity for continual updating about what teachers experience and define as practical problems in school, and the experience of seeking guidance (2) and advice (1) via the net while they are pursuing their education.
 - To give newly-trained teachers the chance to seek advice immediately they meet practical problems which are difficult to handle alone.
 - To develop knowledge about those tasks within the scope of the PP-Services' field of work which lend themselves to being carried out with the use of e-communication. In this connection we wish to focus, also, on which PP-Services lend themselves to being executed by VITAL and, in contrast, which services demand direct contact between the counselled and the counsellor.
 - The electronic service will also be tried out with the aim of the use of a website as a means that can overcome the problem of distance for the district schools.
 - To analyse and evaluate the usefulness of the platform as a means in the development the new service offer, and to evaluate practical problems in the Norwegian school, compared with the situation in partner-countries which are taking part in the parallel international project

2. Theoretical references in learning-and counselling theory.

The theory for learning – whether explicitly expressed or held implicitly – usually includes a view of what knowledge is. The building up of knowledge occurs both as an individual and as a social process, in that the personal acquisition of knowledge happens whenever an individual interprets another's utterance. An assertion will, according to constructivist theory, be interpreted in accordance with the background of an individual's understanding of the topic, and will be taken in to the individual recipient's system of concepts. Knowledge, therefore, is not "transferred" unaltered from one individual to another, but is mediated, and "construed" anew by the recipient. Mason claims that successful online-based learning must build upon a constructivist theory of knowledge. (Mason 2003, Imsen 1998, Lund 2005)

Sorensen asserts that any pedagogical design, including designs of online learning, implies a latent, and sometimes unconscious theoretical perspective on learning. She emphasizes the meaning of the fact that the underlying theoretical understanding needs to be brought up the level at which we can make a conscious deliberate choice of ways of approach

A *social constructivist* approach to learning understands it as a process between people. Vygotskij claims that "learning happens when the culture is incorporated with the person" (Bråthen 1996). Language is the central means to ensure a shared cultural heritage, and understanding is handed on at the level of the individual. It lies in the constructivist perspective that knowledge is not something of a given size, but something that is construed in a meeting between people, with language as the medium.

The social-constructivist approach emphasises that the construction of knowledge is not an individual but a collective process, with language as the bearer of the collective understanding. (Imsen 1998, Lund 2005)

In online-based counselling and collaboration, some features are significantly typical: the participants bring forward their formulated questions from their own working situation. A large group enters a “discussion” and it is seldom that one person by virtue of his position or competence is expected to give a certified “right” answer. The dialogue is typified more by questioning reflection over compound problems than by simple questions and unambiguous answers. There is more emphasis on the shared learning process than on the individual progress/learning acquisition of any single person. A social-constructivist perspective on learning seems to be a fruitful and relevant angle of approach to take up the main sides of the phenomenon of online-based learning. Schön, also, (1987) pointed out that the working out of a task often involves ways of posing problems which are ambiguous, holding uncertainties, unknown elements and possible value-conflicts. The situation cannot be simply defined from training and earlier experience. In such situations, knowledge gained from previous work-experience is inadequate.

These posed questions don't present themselves within a framework that is instantly recognizable for the worker in practice. What happens is that the aforesaid worker construes the situation, and chooses an interpretation which makes it appropriate to use earlier experience in connection with the new situation.

On-line learning as a phenomenon contains so many forms of collaboration that they cannot be placed directly within the traditional categories of guidance. However, it is interesting to look at on-line guidance in relation to different aspects that traditional guidance-theory relates to: instruction, therapy, consultation, and work-based, practice-based, and personal guidance, for example. (Caplan 1970, Lauvås and Handal 1990, Schön 1987, Argyris 1992, Lund 2005). “Traditional” guidance theory, as exemplified by Lauvås and Handal, is also useful for the understanding of different forms of on-line guidance and advice. But this theory must be supplemented with knowledge of what characterises this on-line interaction, its possibilities and its limitations. Here we have new qualities which typify the text-based, a-synchronic communication. As an example of this: the text stands alone as intermediary, without the possibility of being corrected or nuanced by other forms of communication. It is typical of this a-synchronic communication, also, that a message cannot be adjusted, nuanced or amplified from the background of the recipient's direct reaction, as can happen with synchronised forms of communication.

2.1 Choosing the Right Blend

*Blended learning is a continuous process, rather than just a "learning event."
Providing blended solutions allows for flexibility, not only of multiple delivery methods, but for learning to take place over time. (Douglis 2007).*

“Blended learning” often means different things to different people. “Blended counselling” will in this article be seen as learning in a special learning context. We could be referring to the process of communication, to instructional methods, to delivery methods, or to the learning process. How should we as instructional

designers figure out what is the right "blend" of instructional and delivery methods in a given learning context? Each delivery method should be chosen for what it can deliver best. For instance, online training can often effectively provide learners with factual knowledge about a specific skill. However, the content and desired learning outcome should determine whether the practice of that skill is appropriately accomplished online, or best done in a classroom or in an authentic context.

2.2 Flexibility and variation

For some years blended learning has offered great potential and attraction for those designing, delivering, and learning motivated by flexibility and variation. The concept of "blending" grew out of the successes and failures of e-learning (Douglass 2007). Some instruction is appropriate for online delivery, but there are still many contexts in which it appears that learning is best served by some combination of classroom, Web-based training (WBT), synchronous online delivery, or other electronic resources. In addition, when considering technology delivery of instruction, it's best to determine whether there are any barriers to implementation. For instance, is there sufficient bandwidth? Is the organizational climate supportive of technology-based learning?

The same decision components that should be considered for any instructional design, should be carefully examined for blended learning solutions. The illustration below suggests a number of components to be considered. Some of these are audience analysis, course content, learning objectives and outcomes, and situational context (Figure 1). Each unique learning situation will require a fresh approach. However, the figure below can help designers determine whether what they are considering represents a truly blended solution.

2.3 Holistically solutions

A blended solution works when all the instructional components are considered holistically. What is less successful, for instance, are e-learning modules just "bolted on" to existing instructor-led training. A plan for blended delivery should include conducting the up front analysis necessary, and ensuring the inclusion of these key components of successful instruction: interaction, instructional goals tied to performance, and learner engagement. Consider whether, in a given situation, performance support and online resources might be more effective than any type of instruction as a "blended solution". The choice of whether to offer alternative delivery options for the same instruction, or combine delivery methods will depend on a number of factors. Learners can often benefit from multiple delivery methods that accomplish the same learning objective. Barriers to access are eliminated, and learners have more choice in how they learn.

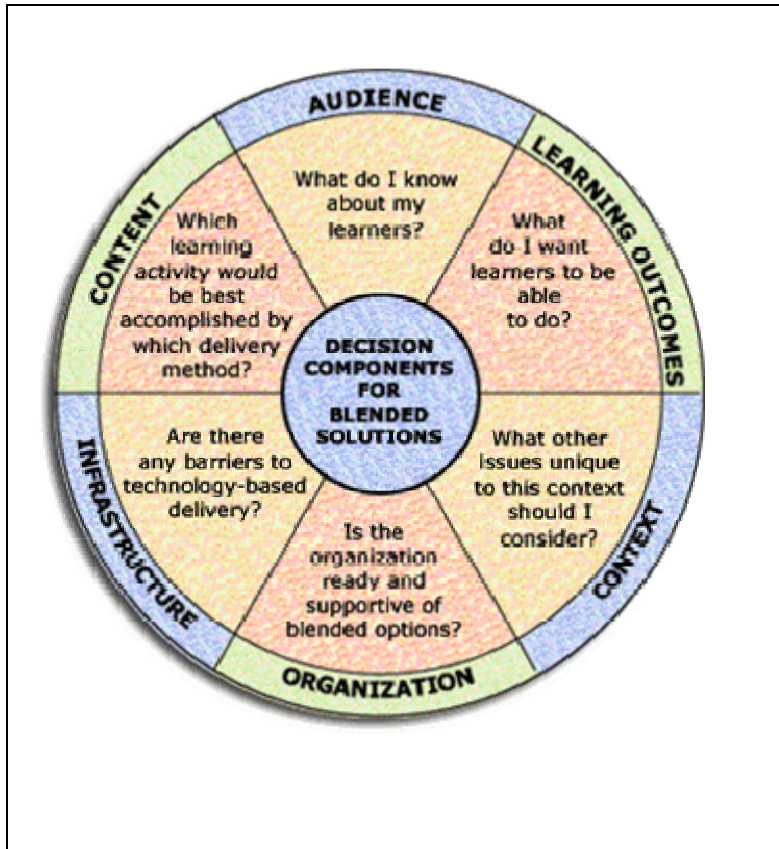


Figure 1 after Felicia Douglass (2007)

“Blended learning” is the combination of multiple approaches to learning, for example self-paced, collaborative or inquiry-based study. And blended learning can be accomplished through the use of 'blended' virtual and physical resources. Examples include combinations of technology-based materials, face-to-face sessions and print materials. Some would claim that key blended-learning arrangements can also involve [e-mentoring](#) or [e-tutoring](#). These arrangements tend to combine an electronic learning component with some form of human intervention, although the involvement of an e-mentor or an e-tutor does not necessarily need to be in the context of e-learning. E-mentoring or e-tutoring can also be provided as part of a "stand alone" ("un-blended") e-tutoring or e-mentoring arrangement.

Researchers Heinze and Procter have developed the following definition for blended learning in [higher education](#) (Curtis 2005):

Blended learning is learning that is facilitated by the effective combination of different modes of delivery, models of teaching and styles of learning, and founded on transparent communication amongst all parties involved with a course.

It should also be noted that some authors talk about "hybrid learning" (this seems to be more common in Northern American sources) or "mixed learning". However, all of these concepts broadly refer to the integration (the "blending") of e-learning tools and techniques with traditional methods.

Oliver and Trigwell (2005) warns against the concept "blended learning". The term "blended learning" is ill-defined and inconsistently used. Whilst its popularity is increasing, its clarity is not... Building a tradition of research around the term becomes an impossible project, ... " (p 24)

Alternative usage of the term: The term "blended learning" can also be used to describe arrangements in which "conventional", offline, non-electronic based instruction happens to include online tutoring or mentoring services."
(http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Blended_learning)

2.4 Training online, new methods, new results

Take action!

"Many of us know the feeling. You go home from a course with a spring in your step, secure in the conviction that you'll be working in a new way from now on.

But the learning curve drops off rapidly and on the first boring Monday morning you revert to the familiar old way of doing things. And as we all know, if you keep doing what you've always done, your results never change.

Learning is a company investment. You only achieve the full benefit by regularly building on your new skills and training. ... Blended learning is the most cost-effective form of training and learning. Blended learning offers a powerful combination of courses, coaching, e-learning, audio, visual, knowledge sharing, tests and interactive training and learning... You will also be able to share your knowledge with others in the dialogue forum, and receive personal feedback."
(Ladegaard as 2007: <http://www.ladegaard.as/composite-627.htm>)

3. Design, Methods and Ethics

The original idea for the development of this undertaking springs from the plan that the project will aim at trying out, implementing and evaluating an online supervision-model developed by the Leuphana University of Lüneburg (Germany). To implement the VITAL platform will in itself be an innovation. We can therefore designate this as an action-constituted innovation-project.

The changing and improving of current practice is one of the principal goals of the project. The action also includes the marketing of the new service and the development of competence both at user-level (among teachers, among others) among pedagogical-psychological advisers and counsellors. In this connection, it is the researchers who will take the initiative to establish and implement the project in the work of the PP-service. The action will be followed up and described in a 2-year period. In the 3rd year (2008/2009) the action will be evaluated finally. The data to be used in the evaluation will be collected in an ongoing process. Research evaluation

is therefore central to the project. This article is the result of a first part of the process evaluation.

3.1 Design

The project has an action-constituted element which implies that the means must be used and marketed. The project is carried out through the setting up of a research team which consists of college- and university staff, those employed in PP-service and school work, and students in every level of training. The evaluation of the project will be undertaken underway and in the projects' closing phase.

The project's focus is the problems which for the teachers arise in the work, and the solving of these problems. As a knowledge-development project, it is the project's communication-based content which will be analysed and categorised. The data produced in Norway – and, for comparative analysis in collaborating countries - will be used as raw data for this analysis. VITAL also contains research means which can be used in the present text analyses, where to analyse, systematise and categorise data will be an important task. Methodical techniques of analysis from “grounded theory” can be of use where the development of knowledge will be a contribution to understanding what are the practical problems which are relevant to the daily work of a teacher. Evaluation is undertaken partly in process and partly as an evaluation of the end product. The criteria for evaluation will be developed, and emphasis will be placed on the bringing forth of experiences, from users and from counsellors.

The project's opening phase - action - is undertaken in the first year. Here, the important thing is the development of competence and the implementing of online service. The counselling forum for teachers is put into use and online counsellors are instructed, a user-course is run. There is continuous evaluation, but the formal closing evaluation will occur in the last term of the project.

4. Methods

The research will make use of the following methods:

Textual analysis: Analysis of the data which will be continuously generated, with the help of the program-platform VITAL: data of questions and answers. What do teachers need help with, and what kind of advice do they get online?

Interview: Interviews of teachers who use the service. The development of competence and the function of the service are weighed. Its particularly important to develop knowledge on the working of the medium – its possibilities and its limits – as the users rate them.

Selective part-investigation based on interview (or audit) of a group of school-leaders/teachers in the district schools where people especially undertake an agreement to use the counselling service as a link in the development of their competence.

The inspection-survey: A broader planned oversight-study will be undertaken after 2 years as a link in the final evaluation, as a charting of teachers' rating of, and need for, and desire to make use of, this type of online service.

The project that is planned implies that the development of the work, and research will happen in close relationship with each other. A research task is also to document and evaluate the development/implementation process themselves.

4.1 Ethics

This project must be particularly followed up with regard to ethical standards. Questions will be sent in anonymously to the website. Coordinators responsible for the website will additionally have, as a special task, to undertake to ensure the need to prevent people, schools, and so on, from being caused problems, since particular relations can lead to unfortunate circumstances. In addition, the leadership of the project will undertake responsibility for ethical standards in research in respect of the whole of the carrying out of the project.

5. The Research project

This is a research project-which, for practical reasons, is organized in different sub-projects, in which we will use a variety of research design.

In these sub-projects we will focus to a different extent on the elements of action, development of knowledge, and evaluation.

The research questions to which we want answers are many. The work of a doctorate is planned anchored in one defined area, or a combination of several parts of the area, which can be taken from some of these questions:

What characterises the practical questions directed to the counselling service: For example, the type of problems, the putting of questions, is concrete advice sought for? Have the questions a reflective potential? What characterises the answers that are given?

Are they promoting information, showing action, reflective explaining problems? How is the counselling rated by those who seek counsel? Does it show understanding of the problems people send in online, and are the answers found to be relevant to the enquirers' experience? Are the answers useful, fruitful? Do the counsellors' replies succeed in widening perspectives, or giving a new perspective?

5.1 Partnership and organization

This research project will be realized as a collaboration between many central participants. Research work will be carried out in collaboration with, and professional connection with, the professional milieu of Statped Nord (special education), Bodo University College, Nesna university College, Institute of Special Education, the University of Oslo and the University in Tromsø. The project begins with formal collaboration between some PPT- offices and schools within the education group but the number of partners within the education group will increase rapidly. The concluding choice of questions-settings, design and method, together with quality control of data-analysis and interpretation will take place in collaboration with the participants.

5.2 Dissemination and promotion

The need for the purchase of services is connected firstly with promotional work. The national area of use which the project can command necessitates a well-planned system of promotion. In the opening phase it's a question of setting up the informing of users according to the "domino-principle." The training of online counsellors must take place gradually by, among other things, the recruitment of new collaborative partners. The building up of competence will also come about through participation

in national and international courses and conferences. When the opening phase is completed the website will be gradually developed and this will thereby also constitute a central part of the process of dissemination. The website will itself promote information/knowledge on a large scale. This information will benefit the following groups:

- Teachers in professional work
- Newly trained teachers' special challenges
- Students who are in training for teaching work.
- Other interested persons in the community.

The dissemination of results will particularly address the needs of the above-named groups. Therefore, books will be prepared which take as their starting-point material assembled by the Norwegian website, supplemented with examples taken from the parallel Lüneburg project which also uses the VITAL-platform. The results of the research which is carried out will be disseminated at conferences in the form of proposals and papers, articles, reports, Master-degree work and a Doctorate thesis.

5.3 Results

This article put the focus only on the first phase of the project period. Some results are in fact obtained during the first year. Among the results we first and foremost have put the focus on building competence in doing practical action research. Competence building has so far resulted in 15 papers focused on action research and 8 papers related to PhD-courses (qualitative research, research and ethics, abduction). We have built a network between the partners, and a netforum (www.laererforum.net) is now working.

An evaluation at the end of the first year introduction period show us that the netforum has much more visitors than users. The visitors mostly look for general information. They are looking for knowledge of didactical, methodology and educational character. The visitors also can have access to information of ethical character and laws.

The users make their problem explication themselves. They expect to get an answer to the questions they have been putting into the forum. Here we can find questions expecting need for information, advice on methods, and help with declaring situations. The net-forum seems to have a potential for guidance and consultation on practical problems. Very few users write about more serious personal problems.

6. Following up

At the end of the project period this project will collect up the most important experiences undergone and discoveries which have been made in the work of the previous sections of the project. The work will also include an internal evaluation of the project itself. With a relatively large number of agents, there is a great demand for organizing and coordinating the project. And this also we wish to have experienced-based knowledge. The summarising report relates to the aim of the project in its entirety. Problems to be put: (1) Evaluation of the online service - how can practical and problem-oriented counselling online be regulated – possibilities and limitations in the widest sense? 2) How suitable does this electronic service show itself to be in practical problem-solving, seen in relationship to the use of resources – an evaluation

by the users? 3) An evaluation of VITAL- technology, and its possibilities and limitations as a means of communication and research: the cost of this service?

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The Significance of Culture in Religious Education

Religious Education as Part of Intercultural Education in Norwegian Teacher Education

Thor-André Skrefsrud

Abstract

This essay discusses the significance of culture in religious education (RE). Taking a transcultural perspective, the essay addresses three issues. First, what does the concept of transculturation imply? Second, to what extent is this perspective reflected in local syllabuses for RE in Norwegian teacher education? Third, how does the concept of transculturation challenge RE as a contributor to intercultural education?

Introduction

How can religious education (RE) respond to the fact that religions and world views are dynamic, interconnected and interwoven with each other? What opportunities does cultural hybridisation offer for RE in order to conduct intercultural education and promote intercultural dialogue?

In this essay I discuss the questions in the light of the Norwegian subject Christianity, Religion and Ethics Education (KRL). As part of my ongoing doctoral work I have studied relations between conceptualisations of culture and dialogue in national and local syllabuses for KRL in teacher education institutions in Norway. Before introducing my theoretical approach and presenting some of my results so far, I will first give a brief introduction to Norwegian KRL. As we shall see KRL was introduced with the intention of promoting common understanding and intercultural dialogue in an increasingly multicultural society. Nevertheless, in this essay I argue that KRL needs to be reconceptualised from a transcultural perspective in order to fully reach its intercultural potential.

RE in Norway – KRL

In 1997, KRL was introduced in Norwegian schools as a core subject, mandatory for all pupils. Prior to the introduction RE was conducted in separate, optional learning

groups, as the only subject in school. The pupils could choose between two different strands, one focusing mainly on Christian knowledge, the other focusing mainly on other world views and philosophies of life. Learning about religions and world views in this twofold model however was said to be dividing the pupils instead of bringing them together (NOU 1995). Due to a growing diverse population, KRL should therefore serve as a common meeting-ground for pupils with different backgrounds and qualify the pupils for a diverse society.

KRL was introduced as a non-confessional subject, which has also been the case for RE in Norwegian schools for the last four decades. Nevertheless, Christian knowledge is given a major part, but every religion and world-view is to be presented in an equal and balanced way according to its own special features.

Not surprisingly the subject immediately caused conflict. The protests were strong from Christian parents, Muslim parents and from secular humanists, who claimed that KRL confused their children's religious and philosophical identities and violated their freedom of belief. The state was sued with the demand for full exemption from the subject, but acquitted on all levels of the national courts. Due to the criticism the syllabus was later reassessed and restructured in 2002, and in 2005. The latter revision was a direct response to the comments of the UN Human Rights Committee the previous year. In June 2007 the European Court of Human Rights in Strasbourg found that the syllabus from 1997 violates the European Human Rights Convention. The Ministry of Education and Research has therefore introduced a new syllabus the autumn of 2008, which modifies the content, but preserves the idea of the subject as a core subject, mandatory for all students.

The conflicts indicate a disagreement on how and to what extent KRL contributes to intercultural education. On the one hand politicians and leading scholars argue that KRL seems to be a valuable tool for integration, both in its theoretical framework and in the way the subject is practised in schools (Gravem 2004, Lied 2004). On the other hand international law has expressed doubt with regards to the subject's ability to provide inclusive education, especially when KRL is put into practice in schools. The latest modifications will hopefully respond to the international criticism, but the right of full exemption will probably still be an issue in the further debate. However, for the

Ministry to agree on the right of full exemption would to some extent undermine the intentions of KRL. It will also leave a permanent uncertainty as to whether KRL really contributes to inclusive education for all pupils.

In this essay I attempt to contribute to this debate by discussing the relationship between “culture, “religion” and “intercultural dialogue”. What does the way we think about culture and religion mean for RE as a subject promoting intercultural dialogue? In order to discuss KRL as part of intercultural education I will now introduce my theoretical approach for understanding religion and culture, for which I use the term *transculturation*. What does the concept of transculturation imply and how can it contribute to the understanding and developing of KRL as an inclusive, open-minded and common meeting-ground?

Theoretical background – Transculturation

The German philosopher Wolfgang Iser has presented a way of understanding culture which he calls *transculturality* (Iser 1999). Iser follows the path of contemporary studies of culture, and advocates a concept which challenges our conventional conceptions of both culture and religion.

A conventional understanding of culture implies that cultures are seen as more or less single, pure and homogeneous (cf. Bhabha 1994). Cultures are understood as delimited spheres that can be separated from each other. In Norway this conception of culture was nurtured by the nation-building process of the late 19th and 20th century. Scholars have pointed out how the construction of the Norwegian nation involved a selection and idealisation of motives (Slagstad 1998, Engen 2003), what Benedict Anderson labels an *imagined community* (Anderson 1991). Specific national cultures like for example folk music and folk- and fairytales were selected to build a national identity. Christianity, that is the Lutheran version, was regarded as the nation’s religion and defined in contrast to other world views (cf. Bergmann 2008). And when the “Norwegian” culture was established, the school was given a key role in the implementation of this culture, the task of a cultural homogenisation and the building of a monolithic nation, religion, society, and culture.

Today the conventional concept is still visible in the way we think and speak about

culture. The term *interculturality* can serve as an example. Etymologically the term explains what happens in the encounter *between* cultures. And the field of intercultural communication often defines the term as communication *between* people from *different* cultures. An example is Gudykunst and Modys *Handbook of International and Intercultural Communication* from 2002, which defines intercultural communication by introducing the term “different national cultures” (Gudykunst & Mody 2002: 9). Another example is Samovars and Porter’s influential work on intercultural communication, where culture is understood as a filter which encodes and decodes the message in an intercultural communication process (Samovar, Porter & Stefani 2007: 9). When used like this, the term seems to presuppose the idea of clearly identifiable cultures (cf. Ma 2004).

According to Welsch however, we need a more sophisticated concept of culture. By conceptualising culture in a conventional way we runs the risk of constructing boundaries and characteristics which make individuals into representatives for specific cultures, Welsch says. Drawing a line between cultures therefore to a certain extent implies a homogenisation of culture. The construction of a cultural identity on a group level or national level draws a stereotyped picture which is often exclusive for some.

Welschs concept is modelled in contrast to this conventional view on culture. Transculturation therefore implies an understanding of culture as dynamic and not possible to define by clear borders. Culture is always in the making and characterized by exchange and intermingling. Therefore culture is more hybrid and heterogeneous than monolithic and homogenous. Transculturation describes the formation of culture and identity as something action-directed, which takes place in a continuous and dialectic process of preserving and change.

This way of understanding culture is dialogical in its form. Transculturation implies the ability and willingness to meet the other, relate to the other, communicate and transform without reducing the other or oneself to a concept of sameness (cf. Bergmann 2008). Transculturation therefore means to meet the other both in closeness and at a distance. Interpretation and understanding takes place in an oscillation

between clearness and mystery, where something remains unfamiliar even after a dialogical encounter (Sundermaier 1996).

Implications for religion

The concept of transculturation also has implications for the understanding of religion. As a parallel to the conventional concept of culture, religions are often understood in the light of their inner distinctive uniqueness, and defined through their difference from other religions. Christianity is Christianity because it is not Islam or Hinduism. Like a single concept of culture, the world religions are defined through a concept of single religions (cf. Bergmann 2004).

The concept of transculturation however, reminds us that religions are not closed entities of belief and cultural practice. Like other cultural practices religions are imbedded in the complex processes of globalisation. This implicates that religions today are characterised both by interrelatedness *and* local consolidation of religious identity (Mortensen 2003). On the one hand conventional religious borderlines are breaking up. In almost every religion of the world transcultural aspects emerge, for example an eco-theological awareness across borders of religions, feministic approaches, and re-interpretations of religious texts in the light of the Declaration of Human Rights (Bergmann 2004). Fragmentation and relativism also threatens the very identity of religions, and are bringing religions together in ways we have not seen before.

On the other hand, more firm local religious identities seem to emerge. Due to migration, for example, religion as part of cultural identity becomes an important demarcation. – Even though I was born in Norway, I am culturally twofold, my student says. – I am a Norwegian Muslim, proud of both my Norwegian and Pakistani background. This quotation however, also illustrates the transformative aspects of religious faith and traditions today. A Norwegian student's Islamic faith and tradition is both in line with and differs from Islam in for example Pakistan. Mobility shapes identity in a dialectic process of preserving and change, and something new emerges.

Pedagogically this dynamic perspective is reflected in several didactical approaches to RE. Grimmit and Hull's *A gift to the child* is one example, which implies a de-

contextualisation of so-called pieces of religion, and later a reintroduction of the same pieces to its original context (cf. Grimmit 1991). Another example is the work from the Norwegian scholars Breidlid and Nicolaisen on various approaches to the pedagogical use of religious stories (Breidlid & Nicolaisen 2000). A contextual perspective on RE, developed by Heimbrock among others, also reflects a sensitivity for the interrelatedness of religions (cf. Heimbrock 2003). These pedagogical approaches exemplify different attempts to balance the distinctiveness of religious traditions and trans-religious aspects in RE. Adopting a transcultural perspective they seek to realize the dialogical potential of RE.

Analysis

The question to be dealt with further is what answers some local syllabuses for KRL in Norwegian teacher education institutions give to the fact that religions are dynamic, interconnected and interwoven with each other. To what extent are the syllabuses open for the dialogical opportunities the concept of transculturation provides?

The discussion is based on a selection of local syllabuses from the largest teacher training colleges in Norway. The colleges are of particular interest because multiculturalism has been made one of the main strategic areas for future years, and is intended to influence the teaching of all the subjects, also KRL. One could therefore expect the material to have a particular multicultural awareness. The material presented in this essay prescribe the contents of a compulsory course module, 20 ECTS-credits, (KRL1), and two different optional course modules, 10 and 30 ECTS-credits, (KRL2 and KRL3).

All three syllabuses aim to deepen the students' competence according the dialogical content of KRL. At the same time their main goal is to enhance the students' competence when it comes to seeing every religion and world view from its own perspective, and dealing with its traditions according its own special features. In order to do justice to this principle one could argue that religions have to be presented from a transcultural perspective, because this is what a given religion looks like today.

However, the syllabuses seem to draw another conclusion and mainly specify the inner complexity of the distinct religions instead of clarifying the complexity of the

dynamic space between the religions. I would say that they follow a strict system-oriented approach when interpreting, specifying and establishing the content of the subject. By system orientation I mean the idea that every religion and world view should be taught from its own perspective, and dealt with according to its own special features (Leirvik 1998). This is a well-known pedagogical approach in RE, and important for understanding the characteristics of different religions. The question however, is whether a system-oriented approach necessarily has to imply little room for comparison or identification of common themes or mutual religious or philosophical concerns?

Not surprisingly the syllabuses introduce the subject by relating to the National Curriculum Regulations for General Teacher Education. The National Curriculum is the main guideline for the institutions when developing the local curriculum. KRL1 quotes the national regulations for KRL as an introduction, while KRL2 and KRL3 refer to the principles quoted in KRL1. In this way the local syllabuses confirm the intercultural intentions given on the national level. But the National Curriculum also serves as a structuring model for the presentation of the content. The local syllabuses follow the National Curriculum and apply a strictly system-oriented approach when prescribing the content. I will give a few examples.

KRL 1

Christianity, for example is presented as a world religion by focusing on a selection of Biblical stories, all relevant for the many different Christian denominations.

According to this syllabus the Biblical texts can be understood both as literature and holy texts. As holy texts they are also shared by Judaism, the syllabus says, and relates Christianity to other religions and world views both by introducing a literary perspective on the texts, and by pointing out the sacredness of the Scripture for other religions. However, this perspective is not elaborated further and is not present later either in the presentation of Judaism, or other scriptural religions, such as Islam.

Further, the syllabus emphasises different epochs from the history of the Christian church, with a specific focus on Norwegian church history and the local church's history. According to the syllabus these historical epochs clarify "the Christian church's special features and self-understanding" (KRL1: 3). Finally, the syllabus

focuses on early statements of Christian belief, and how these Creeds are used today by different Christian denominations for both liturgical and catechetical purposes. Again the profile is local or domestic, focusing on Christian denominations present in Norway today, with an emphasis on the Lutheran church.

Other religions and world views are introduced under the headline “Identity and dialogue”. Here, the syllabus opens for a comparative perspective, stating that specific knowledge about different world religions and world views creates opportunities for a real knowledge-based dialogue. But again, there is no attempt to identify these common themes for a comparison. Islam for example is to be studied according to its inner differentiation of specific beliefs and religious practices (KRL1: 4). But the syllabus says nothing about how these different Islamic directions are related to other religions and world views.

Undoubtedly the syllabus creates opportunities for reflection on cross-cultural themes, such as those we see in the example of the history of Christianity. On the one hand the history of the Christian church specifies the character of Christianity. On the other hand it shows a dynamic religion in relation to its surroundings. The forming of the Christian church is an ongoing process which implies borrowing, distancing and exchanging ideas and practices. However, this specific perspective on the history of the church is not reflected in the curriculum. The history of Christianity first of all specifies the distinctiveness of Christianity in contrast with other competing religions, not Christianity’s close relations to other religious and philosophical world views.

The question is therefore: Why does the syllabus hesitate to identify common themes and issues, when the intention is to establish a common-meeting ground and promote dialogue? As we have seen the syllabus follows the National Curriculum, which has a similar approach. The question therefore also concerns the National Curriculum; why emphasis the monolithic aspects of religion and not include its dynamic nature?

Before discussing the question, I will look at the syllabuses for the optional course modules. What kind of answer do these texts give to cultural hybridisation and transformations of religions and world views?

KRL2 and KRL3

Both these syllabuses offer a thematic focus beyond borders. One gives priority to the aesthetics of religion, and the other prioritises the relations between religion and society. Both syllabuses seem to be aware of the dialogical opportunities the thematic focus provides for investigating the dynamics of “the space in-between” (Bhaba 1994). One states that: “The inherent opportunities for dialogue [...] will be discussed [...] Through greater subject confidence the students will be encouraged to grasp the golden moments an excursion can offer” (KRL2: 4). The other describes its thematic focus by saying that “The course asks what role religion and world views play both for the individual and society, and how different religions and world views influence and are influenced by the culture of today’s society” (KRL3: 2).

However, there are other formulations which point in another direction. Phrases like “dialogue *between* religions”, “Christianity and various religions”, “clarify the complexity of the *single* religious tradition”, “the majority culture encountering the belief of different minorities”, “introduction to how different religious places of worship are decorated”, “emphasising Christian themes *in contrast to* other beliefs” and so on and so forth, are used in order to clarify the content. At the same time one can say that they clarify the conceptualisation of religions as entities with a clear boundary. Even though the thematic focus reflects the transcultural nature of religions, the syllabuses choose a system-oriented approach, without emphasising the transition of ideas and practices which characterises religions and world views. Why is that so and what questions do this approach raise when it comes to understanding an intercultural dialogue?

Reflections

It is not easy to pinpoint the reasons for a strong system-based approach with little room for comparison. However, most subjects taught in school and teacher education primarily follow a system-oriented model (Østberg 1998). Former national curricula for RE in Norway also show that this approach is well established didactically. The examined syllabuses therefore seem to be in line with the main historical pedagogical thinking in Norwegian school and teacher education.

It is of course difficult to say to what extent this orientation reflects a conventional conceptual presumption of culture. One could for example argue that the syllabuses follow a well-known pedagogical approach in order to safeguard the students' basic competence. And this does not necessarily imply the rejection of transculturation. On the contrary it could be argued that a system-based teaching is the best practical way to assure that the students learn their basics, and the interrelatedness between the religions is supposed to reveal itself when focusing on the distinctiveness of religions. And perhaps we should expect our students to discover these relations themselves?

Nevertheless, according to this argument one ought at least to expect modules on an advanced level to be more open towards issues and themes with relevance across the borders of religions than modules on a basic level. As we have seen this is only partly the case. It therefore seems to be more to the answer. Could it be that the syllabuses' didactical approach is a symptom of the lack of tradition and the lack of language for dealing with the space in-between? Is it easier to retreat to the traditional safe systems, than rock the boat?

Whatever the reasons for the approach are, the material paints a picture of religions and world views today which is only partly true. According a transcultural perspective they thereby also runs the risk of reducing the cultural encounter to a question of cultural essence: Knowing the essence of a specific religion makes it possible to predict the outcome of the encounter, its difficulties, and so on. A strong system-oriented approach is therefore in danger of predestining the cultural encounter, and reducing its outcome to a few possibilities.

The approach also has implications for the understanding of what cultural differences mean for dialogue. The concept of transculturation challenges us to meet the other both in nearness and at a distance. The analysed texts however seems to forget the significance of distance in a cultural encounter. The relations between basic knowledge and promotion of dialogue raise the question of whether cultural differences can be coped with simply by knowing the beliefs and cultural practices involved; if we come to know the other's beliefs and practices, a dialogical understanding will automatically emerge.

Of course, to get to know the other and the other's way of thinking is crucial when it comes to establishing a dialogical relationship. But ironically, knowing more about something does not make it less complex. In fact, the more we know, the more there is we do not know. The unfamiliar still expresses itself in the centre of the familiar and demands to be considered (Wulf 2004). Transculturation challenges us to see cultural differences as more than a starting point for reconciliation and harmonisation of viewpoints. And it challenges the curriculum to clarify its understanding of cultural difference and the meaning difference has for dialogue.

Conclusion

It is important to keep in mind that neither a National Curriculum nor a local syllabus says all there is to be said about KRL as a subject for intercultural dialogue (cf. Goodlad 1979). Nevertheless, reading the syllabuses in a transcultural perspective indicates the necessity of further reflection on relations between intentions and contents. Further research on for example teachers' interpretations, learning material, student experiences and pedagogical practices is needed to shed some more light on this.

To give a nuanced picture of culture means to promote an intercultural dialogue, which can be exemplified in the printing and reprinting of cartoons mocking the Prophet Mohammad. Whereas most Muslims dismissed the newspapers' decision as a silly offence by disrespectful non-believers, and a misuse of freedom of expression, some people see these actions as a confirmation of Samuel Huntington's famous "clash of civilisations". When this is the case the cartoon crisis is used to give life to old stereotypes arguing that there is a cultural gap between the Muslim and the non-Muslim world - the East and the West (Said 1978). While postulating the "clash of civilisation" is a declaration of war, a transcultural concept of culture and religion is in its deepest sense dialogical. To discuss the significance of culture in RE is therefore a task for all models of RE, both confessional and non-confessional.

Theory exists to provoke thinking and improve practice. Hopefully the concept of transculturation can stimulate a wider inquiry of the curriculum in order to discover more of the dynamical, dialogical in' between.

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Teacher Education in Norway Bachelor program - Bilingual students

Marko Valenta,

Norwegian University of Science and Technology
Trondheim

Birte Simonsen,

University of Agder, Kristiansand

Bjørg-Karin Ringen,

Hedmark University College, Hamar

The following text includes the history and the framework of a project concerning an adjusted teacher education for bilingual teachers⁶⁸ in Norway. We touch different aspects both connected to the study program, and to the policy and practice in the field of immigration and mother tongue tuition. Two papers are produced, based on the students' views and voices.

Abstract

A multicultural school should be recognised as a place where cultural and linguistic diversity among students, parents and teachers is "normal", and in addition seen as an additional value. This reflects a resource perspective according to Pennington (1989). However it seems to be a threshold for foreign teachers to get adequate jobs in Norway, even when they are well educated in their origin countries. As an attempt to establish a fulfilled multicultural situation in Norwegian schools, seven university colleges in 2003 were asked by the Ministry of Education to develop a project for a special designed teacher education at the bachelor level, where "foreign teachers" should become "Norwegian teachers". An interesting question is how this re-training influences their teacher identity and their teacher role. This paper presents *some results after challenging the students' view on being bilingual/bicultural teachers.*

Background

The University College Cooperation in Norway ("Høgskolen i Norge")⁶⁹ consists of nine different university colleges linked together in a network, for developing a

⁶⁸ We have to underline an important distinction connected to the project, between "mother tongue teachers" and "bilingual teachers". The first notion covers teachers who only are responsible for the tuition of students coming from the same linguistic area as them. The bilingual teachers are an additional group of teachers who represent an answer to the challenge that Norway has been a multicultural society. These teachers' responsibility are immigrant students as well as Norwegian.

⁶⁹ www.hino.no

program for teacher education adapted to persons with an immigrant background, and with Norwegian as their second language. The University College Cooperation in Norway has received special grants from Ministry of Education for elaborating the BA-program and curricula

The project started out in 2003 – with entrance of the first year students in 2004. The program is now in its 5th year. More than 400 students, representing around 40 different languages, are spread on different modules at different university colleges in Norway.

In 2007 a similar program for preschool teacher education based on the same idea, was established.

What is the motivation for doing this?

- Kindergarten and Schools needs diversity among the staff for showing the reality of a multicultural society.⁷⁰
- The society needs the knowledge and qualifications of the immigrants, and academic workers need meaningful work
- It is good economy to release resources and to complete and formalize former competency
- Teachers ability to teach culturally diverse students is becoming even more important
- Culturally diverse teachers' ability to teach mainstream students is becoming even more important
- It is necessary to make use of the diversity in school in order to prepare all children/students to participate in developing Norway as a multicultural society
- "New ways of being Norwegian must be respected" (Report No. 49 to the Storting)
- "That a number of inhabitants speak Norwegian with an accent must be accepted as normal" (Report No. 49 to the Storting)

Why establish a special bilingual teacher education?

- Scattered attempts for training mother tongue teachers was established, but gave no formal education and qualification
- Immigrant students in the university colleges often failed and was not followed up
- Norwegian as a compulsory subject in teacher education was a barrier for many bilingual students
- Bilingual students went sideways as crabs in the education system, but not forward as necessary

The education is scientific based on well implemented bilingual education in accordance with Thomas & Collier's "Enrichment" models or Colin Baker's "Strong form", and will strengthen the Language Minority Students' Academic Achievement in School. Well educated bilingual teachers are needed to take part in carrying out such education in school.

⁷⁰ The immigrant population in Norway is nearly 10% in 2008

How this education differ from the established, general teacher education:

The ordinary general teacher education in Norway is a four-year program, consisting of two years compulsory modules (educational studies, Norwegian, math, religion). The third year the students chose among different teaching subjects and the fourth year is up to the students' own choice. Some prefer studying abroad.

The study program

The result of the mutual project became a 3-year bachelor model based on a flexible mixture of old and new education, depending of background. The basis inspiration is the national frame curriculum for teacher education – with some adjustments.

Subject for teaching 30 ects	Subject for teaching 30 ects	3. year
Mother tongue (or subject for teaching) ⁷¹ 30 ects	Language and first reading and writing didactics 30 ects	2. year
Educational studies (multicultural) ⁷² 30 ects	Educational studies (general) ⁷³ 30 ects	1 year

The modules can be taken in different order. The study is normally organized based on campus gatherings (6-7 each year pr 30 ects course), supplied by net support and written work between each campus session. The study can be taken as full-time or part-time. The teaching language is Norwegian, but the students are encouraged to use L1 in group discussions. Students can take courses at all the UC in the network. We try to make earlier education valid for teaching in Norway. We evaluate documentation and experience through interview to find subjects who fit in so they can be approved as a part of the BA.

⁷¹ If it is not possible to get adequate courses

⁷² Comparative studies in school structures and curricula, combining own experience with knowledge about the Norwegian system

⁷³ Same content as in the ordinary teacher education



Additional facts

In Norway, in the last decades, the focus on mother tongue tuition has weakened. Municipalities are still required to provide adequate tuition for pupils from language minorities. However, in the case of immigrant pupils,⁷⁴ schools today are beginning to be more and more encouraged to focus on special Norwegian education (e.g., Norwegian as a second language), which is a detriment to mother tongue instruction. Until the late nineties, authorities focused at mother tongue tuition using two arguments. In line with suggestions from different studies on bilingualism (Cummins 1976; Baker and de Kanter 1981; Dawe 1983), they assumed that pupils who are proficient in the mother tongue would also be better able to learn Norwegian. The second argument was the heritage related argument that corresponded with the current political rhetoric about Norway as multicultural society. Accordingly, one was in favour of teaching immigrant children their mother tongue in order to strengthen their ethnic identities and culture. Producing bilingual, bi-literate and multicultural children would, according to this idea, contribute to enriching Norwegian society. However, since the late nineties, functional bilingualism is no longer defined as an aim in curriculum for compulsory education. Today, the mainstreaming and incorporation in ordinary Norwegian classes seems to be the main priority. The bilingual subject teaching and usage of mother tongue are now clearly defined and used as transitional tools that will help children to move from their minority to the majority language.⁷⁵

At the same time, authorities proclaimed—paradoxically enough—that they wanted to strengthen the position of bilingual/mother tongue teachers in the Norwegian school system, as well as to strengthen the schools' bilingual competence. Therefore, the

⁷⁴ With immigrant pupils I mean pupils from language minorities with immigrant background (primarily first and second generation of immigrants). Sami pupils are not included in this definition.

⁷⁵ Minority language pupils can get adjusted tuition, but only a few hours per week until they have sufficient knowledge of Norwegian to be able to follow the ordinary teaching.

authorities have encouraged several university colleges to provide adequate Bachelor studies for bilingual teachers. The bilingual teachers were encouraged to take this education, *inter alia*, directorate for education have given them several hundreds scholarships. We may say, looking at the first two dimensions mentioned above, that we go toward even weaker forms for bilingual education in Norwegian elementary schools where mainstreaming is the aim. On the other hand, one provides, for the first time, a university college education to bilingual teachers.

The relevant question for us is how actions taken by agents (primarily bilingual teachers, but also those taken by university colleges) are governed by the described structure of the field. Among other things, it may be interesting to see how teachers who in 2007/8 were finishing their Bachelor degree for bilingual teachers perceived and coped with this aforementioned mismatch.

Retrained as teacher – How bilingual teachers construct meaning in their role

Background

Equal education is a basic principle in Norwegian educational policy. Wherever they live in the country, all girls and boys must have a right to education, regardless of social and cultural background and special needs. This perspective also includes students with foreign cultural and linguistic background, among 10 % of the total number of students. Even if the curriculum for teacher education underline this challenge, the Norwegian teachers' knowledge is not good enough when it comes to the last mentioned group. A special strategy plan "Practicing equal education."⁷⁶ was put into action in 2003. At the same time seven university colleges were asked by the Ministry of Education to develop a project for a special designed teacher education at the bachelor level, for immigrants who had been educated as teachers in their origin country⁷⁷.

The fundamental principle in the strategy plan is that "a multicultural school is recognised by employees who look at cultural and linguistic diversity among students, parents and teachers as the normal situation". This reflects a *resource perspective* according to Pennington (1989)⁷⁸. She shows that the teachers' positive or negative attitude plays a fundamental role in the teaching of immigrant students. Expressed in another way, to create a "normal" situation as described in the strategy plan, there is a need for a curriculum that reflects perspectives from different cultures, and also bi- and multicultural staff members to communicate such perspectives.

The official inclusion strategy for immigration in Norway is integration. Historically there is a ghost of assimilation hanging over the country. Indigenous people, the Sámi⁷⁹, and different minority groups have suffered because of this.⁸⁰ The way they

⁷⁶ Likeverdlig utdanning i praksis. Strategiplan 2004 – 2009. UFD (Ministry of Education and Research)

⁷⁷ The project is called Høgskolesamarbeidet i Norge (HINO - The university college cooperation of Norway) www.hino.no

⁷⁸ Pennington, M (1989): Faculty development for language programs. In: Johnson, R (ed) *The second language curriculum*. Cambridge University Press

⁷⁹ Up to 1970 the Sámi children were moved away from their parents to be educated in Norwegian schools and not allowed to use their own language.

were treated was meant to be a social and political help, but it turned out to be a tragedy. Thus when the immigration from other parts of the world started around 1970, it was obvious for the politicians that this should not happen again. Both curricula and legal acts were written with a spirit of inclusion and equality. But according to recognition of former and foreign education and skills the Norwegian society has been criticised for not being flexible enough. The adult immigrants are in generally not offered jobs adequate to their profession and skills. This project is an additional option to recruitment of immigrants for the ordinary teacher education programs.

Needs of bilingual teacher students

Since the course is based on the students' individual background, their need for education will differ. For some students it will take short time to reach the BA, but for others almost all the three years. The frame and content of their earlier education is checked in advance by the national organisation responsible for evaluation of higher education⁸¹, and the different subjects are recognised by the local institutions. To ensure the cultural competencies, the 1 year- course *Multicultural educational studies* is compulsory for all students, and can not be replaced with former education. There is also a compulsory practice with mentoring connected to the program. This is not possible to replace by former experience, it shall take place parallel with the theoretical course. In this way one can be sure that the immigrants both get insight in the view of learning and the school organisation.

Collecting data - the immigrant teacher students' own perspectives on their role

During the courses it has been important to challenge the students' view on their role as bilingual teachers. Most of the students already work in schools as co-teachers or assistants. They represent a huge number of countries and languages. Their level of education is also different, but in generally high and they often express a frustration not to be recognised as qualified enough by their Norwegian colleagues.

Lund(2008)⁸² found a positive attitude among the Norwegian colleagues, but still barriers mentioned as communication and different views on learning and teaching. She concludes that such cultural meetings may be painful, but that their results will strengthen the school's intercultural competency. "Our" teachers may hopefully give a head start to this development by means of their new and special competencies and their "double education".

In this case the students were asked to discuss both pro et contras connected to their situation. The last point is important, for there is a tendency in minority groups to under-communicate negative issues. They will often feel uncomfortable for not being grateful enough. Therefore researchers can loose important information about the minority situation. Lund (2004) found tendencies to this when she interviewed

⁸⁰ National minority groups in Norway are Jews, Kven people (immigrants from Finland), Rom people (gipsies), Romani people (travellers), Forest Finns. Protected by a frame convention from 1998, The European Council.

⁸¹ www.nokut.no (Responsibility of recognition changed 2008 to NAFO, www.nafo.no)

⁸² Lund, Anne B (2008) Minoritet møter majoritet. Tospråklige kollegaer i skole. FOU i praksis nr 1, 2008

bilingual teachers and Norwegian head masters.⁸³ I was not very acceptable to talk about difficulties and dissatisfaction, and problems were often presented in a more positive way than they really were felt.

The frame question for the discussion was: *Bilingual and bicultural teachers, why and how?* The group consisted of 20 students, both men and women with different national backgrounds. The production of data took place through group discussions and individual reflection. The students developed six categories to frame the situation:

1. Political fulfilment
2. Visibility and presence
3. Status
4. Cultural "mentoring"
5. Bridge between home and school
6. Scholarly and linguistic adviser

They elaborated them further:

1. Political fulfilment

Bilingual teachers are important tools for realising the political aims of integration and equal education. The students underlined this standpoint by quoting a lot of documents and texts from the government.⁸⁴ As they admit themselves, many of them have a school background where it is important to give a correct answer. Therefore there were a lot of arguments connected to the official, political aims and visions. But as one commented: *In Norwegian universities is it correct to bring in your own opinion!*

2. Visibility and presence

The problem for bilingual teachers is the feeling of "otherness". To feel as a part of the school community it is necessary to be seen physically. The working situation for the bilingual teachers differs from the "native" teachers'. Since they follow the children with a specific language, their work is connected to different schools, and they often turn up to meet children after normal schedule is over. They have no real colleagues and therefore no participation in planning. If the bilingual teachers only work with their minority pupils or other foreign teachers, they will lack the possibility to develop the Norwegian language and also the professional language as a teacher in Norway. And, as one of the teachers said; *it is not a good excuse to blame the schedule!*

They also say that they during the education have changed their approach to the mother tongue support to be more creative and student oriented, and they want to discuss this change with Norwegian colleagues,

3. Status

The position as assistants and bilingual teachers is not very high. Neither is there a tradition for including the bilingual teachers in the schools' planning activities. Trained as "Norwegian teachers" they feel more equal. Many of the students comment that their Norwegian colleagues already show more interest to them and

⁸³ Lund, Anne B (2004) Bilingual teachers in Norway – who are they? NERA- conference, Reykjavik

⁸⁴ f ex Stortingsmelding 25/ 98-99- translated: "It is necessary to provide that the trainers in first language (mother tongue) have formal recognised education as a teacher."

their work. One of the teachers says: *It is now only that the status is important for me, but it is important for all immigrant children, they need role models.* If all assistants are immigrants and not “real” teachers, it is a very bad signal. Another says: *It is not that we have changed so much, but we dare to make ourselves more visible.*

4. Cultural ”mentoring”

Strengthening identity and developing cultural pride is often mentioned as important areas for immigrant teachers’ work, and they have a lot of examples of this. They are able to use their own experiences to show the young students that it is possible to live in a society with room for many cultures. They help the students to develop internal and external identification in a balanced way. Based on their knowledge on cultural theory, they can help students to feel secure and proud of their double identity. And as Høgmo (1990)⁸⁵ points out; when the Norwegian teacher’s position is the strongest, the external identification often will take over.

The target group is not only immigrant students. In a real multicultural society development of cultural competency is also a challenge for the majority population. It is not enough knowing about your own culture. Knowing about “the other” make people more secure and less sceptical. But this emotional perspective is not enough. A citizen in the world today needs knowledge and facts from other parts of the world. One of the teachers said: *It feels “global” for the children to say: my math teacher comes from Somalia, and then in the next sentence, tell about how they do mathematics there.*

5. Bridging between home and school

Immigrant parents often have fear of loosing parts of their culture when children start school. At the same time they are aware of that the school also give the children opportunity to succeed in the Norwegian society. This ”cross-pressed” situation often gives the parents a feeling of insecurity. In addition, as many of the student teachers points out; the parents have a quite different view of what good teaching is. Their opinion about how learning is developing is f ex not including playing as a learning activity. Hofstedte (1992)⁸⁶ shows how different cultural background gives different attitude to teachers. Probably it will be better to discuss these issues in your own language.

6. Scholarly and linguistic adviser

In this area the bilingual teachers obviously feel that they have a special type of expertise: *We know the subjects in two different contexts!* Both through experience and through their studies they have got an insight in how important it is to keep the first language ”alive” when you want to become a skilled second language user. When immigrant parents often believe that it is the best for their children only to train Norwegian⁸⁷, the bilingual teachers can argue, researched based, for the opposite standpoint. Many of them points out as negative that the status of mother tongue language in the Norwegian schools has changed with the new reforms. In the curriculum of 1987, *functional bilingualism* was stated as an aim. The two last reforms (1997 and 2006) tend more to give the first language status as a tool on the students’ way to use Norwegian all over. This will be what Engen (1996) calls

⁸⁵ Høgmo, A(1990) Enhet og mangfold. En studie av flerkulturelle miljøer i Oslo. AdNotam, Oslo

⁸⁶ Hofstedte, G (1992)Organisasjoner og kulturer. Om interkulturell forståelse. Studentlitteratur, Lund

⁸⁷ Only half of the immigrant children accept the offer of mother tongue training.

soft assimilation.⁸⁸ The situation now is that the students have the right to have support on their first language until they can master Norwegian in an appropriate way.

When the students were asked to rank the categories, they found it difficult. As one of them expressed: *We need all this if Norway shall be multicultural!*

The students found the study program well fit for the purpose, but as pointed out by Lund (2004/08), the attitudes of the “receivers” is an important part of the story.

Appropriate steps ?

The cooperation between the seven institutions has been stimulating. In the project group many questions and interesting discussions are raised. The project can be analysed from different angles of incidence; political, social, educational and linguistic.

The question is if this special constructed bachelor s able to make a difference in school – in the right direction. These new teachers should represent a needed group with insight in two cultures and able to train both Norwegian and immigrant children.

Bilingual teachers with an additional Norwegian degree are– according to their own arguments - important “tools” in realising the integrated, multicultural school. Through their studies they achieve the special Norwegian approach to teaching, without forgetting their former knowledge. Then the two approaches stimulate each other. When they describe their own possibilities in different fields, a broad and manifold picture is shown. Some of them point out the special sort of negotiation and communication skills they have obtained. They are able to have a meta-perspective of the situation and then can find solutions which are not always seen by their Norwegian colleagues. And, as one of the commented, *in spite of all prejudices, it often seems that we are the most open-minded.*

The next step will be to describe this further and to disseminate the knowledge.

Evaluation

A one year evaluation of the whole network project started 1.september 2007. Different aspects are in focus, including:

- * The program itself/the graduation situation
- * Any effect to the employment situation?
- * Does it make any difference to the diversity/multicultural learning environment at school/for the pupils in the classroom?

Norwegian University of Science and Technology, NTNU, NO-7491 Trondheim, Norway was chosen to do the evaluation.

⁸⁸ Engen, T.O (1996) Minoritetselever og språkopplæring. Oplandske bokforlag, Hamar

This last part of our papers is mainly focusing the bilingual students view.

Bilingual teachers in weak forms for bilingual education: The Norwegian experience.

In this part we argue that bilingual teachers and mother tongue teachers are not recognised as genuine teachers in the Norwegian school system. Norwegian authorities have invested considerable effort in order to strengthen these teachers' competence and to formalise their education. Among other things, one has encouraged several university colleges to provide specially designed higher education for bilingual teachers in order to integrate teachers with bilingual competence in the Norwegian primary school system. Although popular among immigrant students, it seems that the competencies that these Bachelor studies have provided to the teachers are not completely recognised and utilised in the schools where they work. If bilingual teachers and mother tongue teachers continue to experience a low social status and an unfavourable structural position within Norwegian schools, many of these teachers will try to distance themselves from the bilingual teacher roles and identities. Within such a frame, the higher education that is meant to strengthen the primary schools' adequate bilingual tuition are seen by many bilingual teachers and mother tongue teachers as possible tickets out of this profession.

Keywords: bilingual teachers; Norway; work and bilingual education

Introduction

In this paper, we explore the perspectives of bilingual teachers and consider them to be a distinguished category of actors (teachers, employees and work colleagues), who try to improve their professional position within Norwegian elementary schools. Norwegian authorities have gradually acknowledged that this particular group of teachers should be better integrated in Norwegian schools. Norwegian authorities have therefore invested considerable effort in order to integrate the bilingual perspective and immigrant teachers in the Norwegian educational system. Among other things, authorities have encouraged several university colleges to provide Bachelor studies for bilingual teachers in order to improve their position at work and to ensure the provision of adequate tuition for language minority pupils. The primary target group for this higher education was immigrants who already work within the Norwegian school system as mother teachers, bilingual teachers, teacher assistants, etc.

The main assumption in this paper is that bilingual teachers' strategies and actions should not be seen independently from dominating perspectives on bilingualism (and the existing models for bilingual education) in Norway. In Norway, in the last decade, the focus on mother tongue tuition has weakened. Municipalities are still required to provide adequate tuition for pupils from language minorities.

However, in the case of immigrant pupils,⁸⁹ schools today are beginning to be more and more encouraged to focus on special Norwegian education (e.g., Norwegian as a second language), which is a detriment to mother tongue instruction. Until the late nineties, authorities focused at mother tongue tuition using two arguments. In line with suggestions from different studies on bilingualism (Cummins 1976; Baker and de Kanter 1981; Dawe 1983), they assumed that pupils who are proficient in the mother tongue would also be better able to learn Norwegian. The second argument was the heritage related argument that corresponded with the current political rhetoric about Norway as multicultural society. Accordingly, one was in favour of teaching immigrant children their mother tongue in order to strengthen their ethnic identities and culture. Producing bilingual, bi-literate and multicultural children would, according to this idea, contribute to enriching Norwegian society. However, since the late nineties, functional bilingualism is no longer defined as an aim in curriculum for compulsory education. Today, the mainstreaming and incorporation in ordinary Norwegian classes seems to be the main priority. The bilingual subject teaching and usage of mother tongue are now clearly defined and used as transitional tools that will help children to move from their minority to the majority language.⁹⁰

At the same time, authorities proclaimed—paradoxically enough—that they wanted to strengthen the position of bilingual/mother tongue teachers in the Norwegian school system, as well as to strengthen the schools' bilingual competence. Therefore, the authorities have encouraged several university colleges to provide adequate Bachelor studies for bilingual teachers. The bilingual teachers were encouraged to take this education, *inter alia*, directorate for education have given them several hundreds scholarships. We may say, looking at the first two dimensions mentioned above, that we go toward even weaker forms for bilingual education in Norwegian elementary schools where mainstreaming is the aim. On the other hand, one provides, for the first time, a university college education to bilingual teachers. The relevant question for us is how actions taken by agents (primarily bilingual teachers, but also those taken by university colleges) are governed by the described structure of the field. Among other things, it may be interesting to see how teachers who in 2007/8 were finishing their Bachelor degree for bilingual teachers perceived and coped with this aforementioned mismatch. In what follows, I analyse the situation of bilingual teachers and mother tongue teachers in the Norwegian educational system, *inter alia*, I explore how these teachers experience structural frames within which they have to operate. Furthermore, I outline possible impacts of aforementioned higher education for bilingual teachers, and how bilingual teachers and mother tongue teachers try to cope with the problematic aspects of their structural position in the Norwegian educational system. Other aspects of their profession, as both in terms of pedagogical and didactical challenges, linked to their teacher role and syllabus content lie outside the primary scope of this study.

Perspectives on immigrant pupils, bilingual education and bilingualism

There has been a lot of research done that indicates immigrant pupil underachievement and high drop out rates (Bakken 2003a; Hvistendahl and Roe 2004;

⁸⁹ With immigrant pupils I mean pupils from language minorities with immigrant background (primarily first and second generation of immigrants). Sami pupils are not included in this definition.

⁹⁰ Minority language pupils can get adjusted tuition, but only a few hours per week until they have sufficient knowledge of Norwegian to be able to follow the ordinary teaching.

Fekjær 2006; Baker 2006). Studies offer several explanations for these tendencies. Sociological studies (Perna 2000; Portes and Hao 2004) refer, *inter alia*, to class differences, ethno-class positions and pupils' socioeconomic circumstances (Bunar 2001; Axelsson and Bunar 2006). Inspiration for the focus on class background of pupils is classical studies on reproduction of cultural and social inequality in the educational system (Boudon 1975; Bourdieu and Passeron 1977). Several Scandinavian studies (Dæhlen 2001; Bakken 2003a) point out that immigrant pupil underachievement and high drop out rates are linked to the fact that immigrant children come from homes and neighbourhoods with low socio-economic resources. On the other hand, there are studies, both sociological and social anthropological, which show that differences between minority pupils and Norwegian pupils cannot be solely explained with differences in their socioeconomic circumstances (Fekjær 2006; Bakken 2007), but that we also have to take into consideration the cultural differences between majority and minority pupils, as well as between different immigrant groups (Ogbu 1991; Engen *et al.* 1996; Helland 1997). The common thing for most of the aforementioned studies is their lack of interest in how language codes, bilingualism and bilingual education influence immigrant pupils' school results.

Several scholars (Cummins 1976; Dawe 1983; Clarkson 1992) have explored under what conditions bilingualism has positive or negative effects on cognition. Their studies suggest that limited competencies in both languages result in negative cognitive outcomes and underachievement, while high levels of language proficiency in both languages will have positive outcomes. Furthermore, one argues that the more developed the first language, the easier it will be to develop the second language, and when the first language is at a low stage of development, the more difficult it will be to achieve a high level of balanced bilingualism (Cummins 2000a; Hugué *et al.* 2000). These arguments are used in discussions on what should be the adequate forms of education for immigrant children, the weak or strong forms of bilingual education. Among other things, the research suggests that strong forms of mother tongue tuition and balanced bilingual tuition will prevent negative cognitive outcomes and underachievement among minority language pupils (Engen and Kulbrandstad 2004; Baker 2006).

The aforementioned studies on bilingual education focus on immigrant pupils' underachievement, their bilingualism, social circumstances and different models of bilingual education. Discussions on different forms for bilingual education are relevant for this article. However, in these descriptions, including explorations of different models of bilingual education, the perspectives and structural positions of mother tongue/bilingual teachers seem to be often neglected (Creese 2000; Cummins 2002). There is also agreement among politicians and researchers that it is important to have well-qualified bilingual teachers in multicultural schools (August and Hakuta 1997; Cummins 2002; Bakken 2007). And yet, there are very few studies which look at qualitative differences in terms of power structures between the subject teachers and bilingual teachers (Creese 2000). It is reasonable to assume that within weak, transitional forms for bilingual education, the bilingual teachers will have scarce structural opportunities to reproduce their position as teachers equal to other ordinary teachers/subject teachers (Lund 2004; Creese 2000).

There are few Scandinavian studies that discuss socioeconomic circumstances of bilingual teachers. We have scarce knowledge of which structural positions, perspectives and ambitions mother tongue/bilingual teachers have in Scandinavian educational system. To my knowledge, there are, for instance, only a few

Scandinavian studies (i.e. Lund 2004) that discuss how difficult it is to acquire stable employment and work as bilingual teachers in the educational system in Norway.

I will argue that many mother tongue teachers and bilingual teachers will use any opportunity to disassociate themselves from these roles and seek them out of this profession. In this light, we may also understand mother tongue and bilingual teachers' views on Bachelor studies for bilingual teachers. In what follows, the Norwegian school system will be considered as "a field of struggle" that guides strategies whereby the occupants seek to improve their position and fight with misrecognition (Bourdieu and Wacquant 1992; Bourdieu 1995; Lovell 2007). It is assumed that the actions taken by mother tongue teachers and bilingual teachers are governed by the structure of the field, the nature of the positions, and their interests and resources. The hypothesis is that mother tongue/bilingual teachers' decisions to take university college education for bilingual teachers are also taken within a certain context. It is assumed that many teachers, paradoxically enough, will even try to use this education in order to distance themselves from their old roles and other bilingual teachers.

Methods and sample

Given the focus on teachers' voices, interpretations and subjective experiences, the data is gathered mainly through qualitative interviews. *Twenty-two* mother tongue/bilingual teachers were interviewed. The data is based on information gathered from individuals with different immigrant backgrounds who work as mother tongue teachers or/and bilingual teachers in Norwegian elementary schools. Informants were drawn from a range of different elementary schools and municipalities. They are all residents in different areas of Norway.

The intention was to gather data about teachers representing a variety of experiences (as teachers in Norwegian elementary schools and students at university colleges), and to explore how the nature of their employment might influence their positioning within the field. The central aim with these interviews was to capture teachers' strategies. The attempt was made to determine whether and why teachers felt marginalisation and misrecognition within the workplace, and what they did in order to gain affirmation and acceptance by their employers and their Norwegian work colleagues.

The second source of data was a survey study that was implemented among *one hundred* mother tongue/bilingual teachers who study or who have recently completed Bachelor studies for bilingual teachers at these University colleges. The aim of the survey was to explore respondents' aspirations and how respondents' studies influenced their situation at the workplace and their opportunities for identity affirmation. Interviews and surveys were implemented in the autumn and spring 2007/8 when the first larger classes of students completed the Bachelor studies for bilingual teachers at Norwegian University colleges.

The structural position of bilingual/mother tongue teachers in Norwegian elementary schools

In his analysis of the French education system, Bourdieu (1996, 1998) shows how certain groups in the educational system are marginalised due to the rules of the field.

In the field of power, according to Bourdieu, it is crucial to have a strong structural anchorage, and relevant resources that may be mobilised when this position is challenged. It seems that the marginal position many mother tongue teachers in Norway experience is linked to these two dimensions. As we shall see below, they have weak structural anchorage to the workplace, and they do not have relevant resources that are properly valued within the field of power.

According to Norwegian authorities, language minority pupils in elementary schools who do not have an adequate knowledge of the Norwegian language should be offered specially adjusted Norwegian language tuition, bilingual language training and mother tongue instructions. Mother tongue is primarily provided to minority pupils in grades one to four, while bilingual instructions are provided in grades five to ten.⁹¹ In order to provide this kind of tuition, schools employ mother tongue teachers and bilingual teachers.

However, it seems that this category of teachers does not enjoy the same structural position rights and social status as other ordinary teachers who work in elementary school. Many bilingual teachers experience not being defined as part of a schools' milieu. If they felt partly included in school milieu, then they were frustrated being continuously defined as subordinate part in face-to-face interactions in school.

There are several factors that generate and reproduce this mentioned inequality. The data material suggests that we have to look at the structure of the field and the specific nature of positions and roles mother tongue/bilingual teacher have in Norwegian schools. Within the existing model for bilingual education, there are usually few pupils with the same mother tongue in each school and there are few school hours/periods that are allocated per pupil (1-2 hours per week). Therefore, mother tongue teachers and bilingual teachers usually do not have proper fundament for getting stable fulltime employment anchored within one school, but become "travelling teachers" who get part time jobs within several schools. Most respondents were touring between seven to eight schools during one week teaching minority language pupils in each school. These teachers felt that they did not belong to any place. They were anonymous teachers that come and go without any chance of entering more stabile, tight-knit groups of established employees. One mother tongue/bilingual teacher from Thailand said:

As mother tongue teacher, I did not belong anywhere. I have two-three pupils in one school, three-four in the other school and so on... Most of the time I travel between the schools and stay for two hours with my pupils. I give them mother tongue tuition for two hours and say that I will come back next week. I get seldom chance to speak with Norwegian teachers in order to coordinate tuition, for instance...Neither they nor I feel that I belong to their school.

The feeling of isolation and marginality described by informant above was experienced by most of the respondents in the study. These feelings are usually strengthened due to the fact that mother tongue training, according to regulations, preferably should be given in addition to the pupil's usual school day. In this way, schools are trying to avoid mother tongue tuition becoming a detriment to ordinary

⁹¹ However, the organisation of minority tuition is organised and decided at the municipality level so organisation of tuition for minority teachers differ from municipality to municipality. For example, many municipalities have given up mother tongue tuition, and decided only to provide specially adjusted Norwegian language tuition and bilingual education to minority pupils.

Norwegian classes. Since mother tongue instructions are not supposed to be an integral part of ordinary teaching the respondents had few chances to meet or cooperate with other teachers at the school.

To sum up, the respondents' stories indicate that mother tongue/bilingual teachers have a weak connection to the school, other teachers and pupils, which contributes to a weakening in their position in interactions and relations with Norwegian staff. In addition, the feeling of not being a real teacher in the eyes of their colleagues and the employer is reinforced due to the fact that the mother tongue teachers and bilingual teachers seldom got permanent employment.

Perspectives of teachers who have chosen to acquire a Bachelor's degree for bilingual teachers

The relevant question for us here is what happened when many of these teachers now gradually began to formalize their education by taking Bachelor studies for bilingual teachers at Norwegian university colleagues. Have their situations improved, and in which respect? Before we start answering the question, it is relevant for our further discussions to clarify who actually are these people who work as bilingual/mother tongue teachers in Norway, and within which context they have chosen to take Bachelor degrees for bilingual teachers.

My data indicate that the bilingual teachers and mother tongue teachers in Norway are first generation immigrants from different countries who usually, but not necessarily,⁹² have backgrounds as teachers from their home country. The data material suggest that most of these people have ended up in the profession of bilingual teachers and mother tongue teachers, due to the lack of alternative opportunities, and not because they had a genuine interest for this profession. With years spent as "travelling, non-real teachers" who were employed in part-time jobs, these people have not increased their interest in this profession.

We may wonder why, then, these people do not leave this profession, but instead have decided to receive Bachelor degrees for bilingual teachers. Again, their choice were not entirely free, but are governed by structure of the field and the nature of their position within the Norwegian school system. Before they decided to start with Bachelor studies for bilingual teachers, many respondents have spent most of their lives teaching pupils, either in their home countries or in Norway. They have arrived with teacher identities or transitioned gradually in teacher roles in Norway. They spent many years in roles of mother tongue teachers so they felt that it was too late to make radical changes in their profession.

In Yugoslavia, I worked as an engineer in the oil industry for more than ten years. When I came to Norway it was not possible to find a job as an engineer near by... I have spent so many years in Norwegian schools. I feel that it will be difficult to start working as an engineer again...When they encouraged me to take Bachelor for bilingual teachers, I said ok (mother tongue/bilingual teacher from Croatia).

⁹² Many bilingual/mother tongue teachers do not have background as teachers, but they had various higher educations that were not entirely recognised in Norway.

I decided to start with a Bachelor for bilingual teachers since this was somehow the only alternative to be again formally recognised as teacher. I was concerned with the fact that it is not easy to get permanent jobs as bilingual teachers and mother tongue teachers, but the study appeared as the only chance to formalize my competence as a teacher (mother tongue/bilingual teacher from Iran).

As respondents have indicated, leaving the field was considered to be the last resort. Many students did not even have genuine interest in increasing their competence as bilingual teachers, but this was the only teacher education they were offered and encouraged to take that was adjusted to their particular situation. Among other things, the studies were adjusted to the people who already worked in Norwegian schools (i.e. studies were Internet and homework based). Furthermore, classes were given in the evenings, weekends, a few times during semesters, etc., in order to give students the possibility of combining studies with their jobs. At the same time, alternative teacher education was seen as unrealistic alternatives, or studies that were difficult to combine with other jobs.

The Bachelor studies for bilingual teachers appeared as the unique chance...You stand much stronger in Norwegian schools if you have ordinary teacher education, but we could not take ordinary teacher education at University College because you have to pass exams that will give you competence to teach Norwegian language. Even those of us who were highly proficient in the Norwegian language felt that they would never be able to teach Norwegian children in the Norwegian language (mother tongue/bilingual teacher from Syria).

As the informant above implies, the Bachelor for bilingual teachers was perceived as a second best option. While the Bachelor for bilingual teachers takes three years, normal teacher education, (in Norwegian, 'Allmennlærer utdanning') that most Norwegian teachers have, takes four years. Many Norwegian students also take one additional year (achieving master's degree) in order to strengthen their expertise in the chosen subjects. The informant indicated that she knew that Bachelor studies for bilingual teachers were not the ultimate solution. She had to compete with Norwegian teachers who take well established, well-known and recognised education, while she was an immigrant who took the new, totally unknown and, in addition, shorter education. Nevertheless, not so unlike the informant below, respondents felt that Bachelor studies for bilingual teachers were the best available alternative.

I started with Bachelor studies for bilingual teachers because the people in the municipality encouraged me and gave me a scholarship. At the same time, this was the only part-time study that was adjusted to our situation. It would be difficult for us to combine full-time studies with job. The most of us were people with families. We are breadwinners, so it was out of the question to quit the job in order to concentrate entirely at studies (mother tongue/bilingual teacher from Somalia).

As the informants indicate, a "do the best out of situation" philosophy was used when they decided to start with their Bachelor studies for bilingual teachers. These respondents claimed, in line with many others, that if they got proper opportunity to

start some other studies for teachers under conditions similar to those provided for Bachelor studies for bilingual teachers, they would prefer these other studies.

The impact of the studies on teachers' work situation

Although respondents knew that they took the second best education, they were not pessimistic about the outcomes of their education. And indeed, as the table below shows, it seems that certain improvements have really already happened.

Table 1: Teachers impressions on the impacts of the Bachelor studies for bilingual teachers on their work situation (%)

	Yes	No
<i>Due to the studies I became better in my work.</i> N 100	77	33
<i>I believe that the studies contributed in that I got more stable employment.</i> N 100	39	61
<i>Due to the studies, my work colleagues now respect me more.</i> N 100	37	63
<i>No reason to believe that studies influenced in a significant way my position at the workplace.</i> N 100	33	67

As it is shown in the table above, respondents who participated in the survey indicated, in one way or another, that they have reason to claim that Bachelor studies for bilingual teachers directly or indirectly contributed to improving their working conditions within the Norwegian school system. Among other things, it seems that Bachelor education made bilingual teachers better able to negotiate more stable positions within the school system. Respondents have also claimed that they, due to their Bachelor studies, became better in their job as mother tongue/bilingual teachers. Respondents were also more self-confident in relations both with pupils and Norwegian colleagues. Furthermore, many felt that due to the competence and knowledge they accumulated at Norwegian university colleges, the Norwegian colleagues began to respect them more.

Nevertheless, it should be emphasised that most informants we met indicated that improvements were far from sufficient. Many students, when back in work, still

felt as if they were second rank teachers. In order to understand better the dissatisfaction of these people, we explored their aspirations and which expectations they had to these studies. What seems to be an important precondition for respondents' satisfaction when they are back in work after they have taken Bachelor studies for bilingual teachers?

Bachelor studies for bilingual teachers: Strengthening bilingualism or a ticket out of it?

Most of the respondents had ambitions to gradually change or expand their teacher identity. As we can see in the table below, the minority of students want to work primarily as mother tongue teachers. The majority of students rather want to get access to teach both Norwegian and immigrant pupils in ordinary Norwegian classes on different subjects.

Table 2: Students' aspirations in respect to their tasks at the workplace (%)

	Yes	No
<i>I want to work as mother tongue teacher.</i> N 100	9	91
<i>I want to work as bilingual teacher/teach immigrant children in subjects I took during my studies.</i> N 100	38	62
<i>I want to teach both Norwegian and minority language students in various school subjects.</i> N 100	67	33
<i>I believe that bachelor studies will contribute that I get opportunity teach ordinary Norwegian classes in various school subjects.</i> N 100	49	51

Most respondents either had a desire to work as ordinary teachers or wanted to strengthen 'subject- teacher- identity' if they already had gotten certain opportunities to teach in different ordinary subjects at their workplace. Students tried to organise their studies in line with these aspirations. Within a Bachelor education for bilingual teachers, in addition to pedagogical/didactical courses and mother tongue related subjects, students are supposed to take different ordinary school subjects (mathematics, social subject, religion and ethic, art and woodwork, etc). Many respondents were especially concerned with taking these ordinary subjects. The quotations below show how students understand the studies they take.

I have taken more student points in ordinary subjects than it was necessary because if you want to have a normal job the bilingual or mother tongue teacher has to be your bi-position, not your primary role (Bosnian bilingual teacher).

I want to help migrant children. Many of them speak poor Norwegian and their mother tongue. They really need bilingual tuition and mother tongue tuition. I will continue with that, but as a bilingual or mother tongue teacher, I cannot accumulate enough working hours in order to have a full time job at one school. I have to focus on other subjects key subjects. Mother tongue teachers and bilingual teachers have marginal role. If you only are mother tongue teacher and bilingual teacher, you will never feel integrated. You may even get permanent full time job in one municipality as bilingual teacher, but you still risk being travelling between ten different schools. Who wants to be travelling teacher forever? (Bilingual teacher from Croatia)

As the informants indicate, they tried to take as many ordinary subjects as possible in order to strengthen their position within the field, *inter alia*, in relation to their employers and in relation to Norwegian teachers. Many informants were even openly frustrated with the notion that they had to take courses that are supposed to increase their competence in mother tongue tuition. The rationale here was that they did not have a use for such competence since the mother tongue training was marginalised as a subject in elementary schools in their municipality. They meant that they would profit better if they instead took more courses in mathematics, art, social subjects and other ordinary subjects. In this way, respondents meant that they would strengthen their competence and legitimise their identity as ordinary teachers or specialists in these subjects.

In other words, although they started Bachelor education for bilingual teachers, they used it not primarily to strengthen their competence as bilingual teachers, but to transform their current unfavourable teacher identity. As already noted, most respondents indicated that they preferred being identified as “faglarere” - teachers that are specialised in different subjects, and hoped to teach ordinary classes in different subjects. It seems that up to now, very few succeed in that (1/5 of the respondents in the sample). It is not strange then that students were frustrated and disappointed when they realised that their studies did not lead them in the desired direction. These disappointments may partly explain why many students gradually increased their ambitions and now plan or have already started with Master Studies. Many of them have clear aims to leave mother tongue/bilingual teacher profession.⁹³

Back at work with Bachelor degree: negotiating and redefining teachers' identities

Respondents' stories indicate that teachers who have received Bachelor degrees for bilingual teachers will try to engage in different kinds of distinction work in their attempts to show who they do not want to be associated with. Firstly, they engage in distinction-work in relation to mother tongue teachers, bilingual teachers and teacher

⁹³ Those who experienced that schools were reluctant to recognize different competences their Bachelor education stand for, they started with master studies with ambition to find employment in public bureaucracy, applied social work, etc.

assistants who do not have formal Norwegian teacher education. The stories below illustrate some of these lines of distinction.

We are bilingual teachers, but different from those old mother tongue and bilingual teachers who do not have training in different school subjects. I have taken the same courses with the same syllabus as ordinary Norwegian teachers. However, people do not know much about our profession...If you say that you are a bilingual teacher, then people may even think that you are without teacher education at all, or that you only have competence to teach in mother tongue. Therefore, when people, for instance my Norwegian colleagues and pupil's parents ask me what kind of teacher I am, I used to answer that I am teacher who teach mathematic, social subject and art...I do not say that I am educated as a bilingual teacher, since I do not want to undermine my trustworthiness as a teacher (Bilingual teacher from Egypt).

As the informant above indicates, the studies are used by bilingual teachers as a source of distinction (Bourdieu 1995, 1998) in order to improve their situation within the field. Paradoxically, many respondents do not only try to dissociate themselves (partly or entirely) from other low-status categories of teachers, but use the study to disengage from their old identities and also in relation to the bilingual teacher profession itself. They even try to dissociate themselves from certain aspects of their own bilingual teacher education. The quotations below reveal some of the motivations for this kind of positioning:

I have worked as a mother tongue teacher and bilingual teacher more than fifteen years. The first time I felt that I was the real teacher was when I had practice as part of my Bachelor studies. During my practice, I got a chance to teach pupils in ordinary Norwegian classes in various scientific subjects. This was the first time I felt as real teacher. When you find out that you can teach ordinary classes and feel that pupils and others perceive you as a real teacher, it is even more difficult to go back in old roles (Bilingual teacher from Turkey).

Many of us have teacher education from our home countries. We were experts in different school subjects already before we come to Norway...In addition, we now have a Norwegian Bachelor degree for bilingual teachers... I have seen many times a lack of competence among Norwegian teachers...You feel that you have more competence than your Norwegian colleagues in different subjects, but your job will be restricted to prepare minority pupils for ordinary education. Nobody respects mother tongue teachers...Most of us dream to change the role and gradually become the teachers that teach ordinary Norwegian classes in different school subjects (Bilingual teacher from Iran).

To sum up, we may say that there are at least three reasons why bilingual teachers invested considerable effort in order to formalise their teacher education in Norway now try to disassociate or at least under communicate their bilingual teacher identity. Firstly, as bilingual teachers and mother tongue teachers, they still have low status in Norwegian schools. Among other things, they have all the time to convince others that they have a formal Norwegian teacher education. Secondly, as bilingual teachers

and mother tongue teachers, they would have few opportunities to teach pupils in different school subjects. They are restricted to subordinate roles (i.e. they assist Norwegian ordinary teachers and prepare minority language pupils for ordinary Norwegian tuition). Thirdly, as bilingual teachers and mother tongue teachers, they still have problems getting permanent, full time jobs anchored in one school (i.e. they risk being marginalised as a “travelling teachers”).

Conclusion

The recent developments in Norwegian education systems have weakened the bilingual perspective in Norwegian elementary school. In Norway, pupils with immigrant minority language background who have problems with the Norwegian language get weak, transitional forms of bilingual education. Within the existing model for bilingual education, bilingual teachers and mother tongue teachers have a marginal role in the Norwegian education system. The attempts to increase and formalise competence to immigrants who work as bilingual teachers and mother tongue teachers should be seen in this light. Teachers who fulfilled these Bachelor studies for bilingual teachers feel more self-confident and feel that they are better bilingual teachers and mother tongue teachers than they were before. On the other hand, they rather seek after other roles within the Norwegian school system. It seems to be a paradox, but such an outcome would not be so surprising if we took in consideration the broader context these teachers operate within.

The central argument in this article is that in order to strengthen bilingual perspective in schools, and strengthen the role of bilingual teachers, it is not enough to provide the university college education for this category of teachers. It is not enough to increase teachers’ bilingual competence if there are not proper opportunities to use that competence in their work with pupils. In addition to providing adequate teachers, one has to introduce equivalent/stronger models for bilingual education in elementary schools.

Within the current situation, the best elementary schools may do is to recognise that these teachers do not have only one identity and competence, but that they have compositional identities and multiple competences. These teachers may, and are supposed to, function as bilingual teachers, mother tongue teachers, but also as “normal teachers” in certain subjects, role models, cultural translators in interactions with immigrant parents, etc. The best immigrant teachers may do within current structural frames in order to normalise their position within the field is to strengthen their competence and identities as experts in different subjects. It may be counterproductive (both for them and for minority language pupils) to deny other aspects of their teacher identity while they struggle to improve their position as teachers. Immigrant teachers who deny their bilingual competence and solely focus on their expertise in different school subjects (i.e. mathematics, art, etc.) risk being outstripped by ordinary Norwegian teachers, while immigrant teachers who do not try to go beyond their old identities as mother tongue/bilingual teachers will risk reproducing their low status and remain being “travelling teachers.” Those immigrant teachers who first of all continually promote and strengthen their expertise in different school subjects (and are allowed to teach in ordinary Norwegian classes), but who at the same time do not deny their bicultural and bilingual competence, will have the best opportunities to normalise their position within the field. These teachers will probably also have the best opportunities to function as role models, both to

immigrant and Norwegian pupils, and promote and strengthen multicultural perspective in Norwegian elementary school.

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About the Author

Marko Valenta (PhD.) is senior researcher in Centre for Social Research, The Norwegian University of Science and Technology. Fields of interest are bi-lingual education and integration of ethnic minorities. His research interests also include reception of asylum seekers, repatriation of refugees and multicultural education. E-mail: marko.valenta@svt.ntnu.no

Designing educational means based on the conceptions of pupils' in The Netherlands and Ukraine

Jolien van der Geugten¹, Olena Shyyan², Fred Brinkman¹ & Thomas Jager³

¹INHolland University of Applied Sciences
Research Centre of Media, Culture & Citizenship
Diemen, The Netherlands
E-mail: Jolien.vandergeugten@INHolland.nl
E-mail: Fred.Brinkman@INHolland.nl

²Lviv In-service Teacher Training Institute
Department of Life Competence
Lviv, Ukraine
E-mail: olshyyan@hotmail.com

³INHolland University of Applied Sciences
Language Academy/School of Education
Amsterdam, The Netherlands
E-mail: Thomas.Jager@INHolland.nl

Project website: www.surfgroepen.nl/sites/EastWest

1. Introduction

The workshop was the follow up of the keynote speech of Fred Brinkman at the 33rd ATEE conference. He elaborated there an international research project about health and environmental education in The Netherlands, Belarus and Ukraine. In this article we report about pupils' concepts, and the subsequent development of educational means which aim to influence the attitude of pupils. Some of the differences and similarities between pupils in The Netherlands and Ukraine will be presented as well.

For the past ten years students of the INHolland university together with teachers, did research on pupils' and teachers' perceptions about several aspects of life, health and environment in The Netherlands, Ukraine and Belarus. Based on the research outcomes several educational means have been developed, aiming to make pupils and teachers realize their own conceptions and prejudices, and to change their attitude on issues about health and environment. For example a pantomime game and a documentary are developed (De Vries, 2005; Brinkman, Goddijn & Tarasov, 2005).

In the project year 07/08 the Dutch research team consisted of two students of Pedagogic⁹⁴, one student of Communication⁹⁵ and three teachers⁹⁶ of the INHolland University. The research questions in this project were:

⁹⁴ Marieke Bosman, Esther Elfrink

⁹⁵ Alexandra Meijer

⁹⁶ Jolien van der Geugten, Thomas Jager, Fred Brinkman

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- *Which conceptions can be found in the relations between boys and girls in The Netherlands and Ukraine?*
 - *Which of these conceptions can be used in a teaching strategy for effective sexual health education?*

The purpose of the project was to develop a communication strategy in health education based on the own conceptions of pupils, in particular what boys think about girls and what girls think about boys.

It is well known that boys and girls differ in their development (Van Beemen, 2001). For example, boys are busy to decide who's the leader in a group, which leads to more competition between boys. In general boys are more aggressive, active and impulsive than girls. While girls are more prepared to cooperate and negotiate. For girls it is important to share their feelings (Van Beemen, 2001). Also the development of boys is slower than the development of girls, who are sooner in their puberty (Van der Doef, 2003). Besides that, young people are more often and earlier sexual active (Garssen, 2002). And young people are in their adolescents more flexible when it comes to stereo-type gender roles. Adolescents are more aware of the other gender because of their physical changes, but still they want to be a part of the same age and the same gender group. In the beginning of their puberty young people will depend on sex-stereotype behavior. This is because they feel more attractive to the other gender (Van Beemen, 2001). All these differences between boys and girls can lead to misunderstandings between boys and girls in trying to understand the other gender and getting involved in relationships with each other.

Boys and girls who are having relationships with each other got to deal with (health) risks in life, it doesn't matter if they live in Eastern or Western Europe. Teenagers should not only have the knowledge, but they should also have a responsible attitude towards those risks. Lack of education about relational and sexual development possibly leads to negative sexual experiences and confusion about physical changes in puberty (Pronk, 2007). In whole Europe pupils and teachers have to deal with (sexual) health issues like the spread of sexual transmitted diseases as HIV/Aids, which especially hits Eastern Europe (AFEW, 2007; UNAIDS, 2008). Sexual health is defined on the World Health Organization website (n.y.) as follows: 'Sexual health is a state of physical, emotional, mental and social well-being in relation to sexuality; it is not merely the absence of disease, dysfunction or infirmity. Sexual health requires a positive and respectful approach to sexuality and sexual relationships, as well as the possibility of having pleasurable and safe sexual experiences, free of coercion, discrimination and violence. For sexual health to be attained and maintained, the sexual rights of all persons must be respected, protected and fulfilled.'

Investigating the conceptions of boys and girls in The Netherlands and Ukraine gives the opportunity to compare them between those countries, and to learn from each other's culture and way of thinking. Pupils and teachers in Europe got to deal with sexual health issues, but they all have their own different cultural background. They have ideas in common but differ also in norms, values, religion and taboos. Those aspects have to be taken into account by the development of educational means about sexual health. (Van der Geugten, et al., 2006). Developing educational means based on the target groups' own conceptions influence the knowledge, attitude and behavior of that target group (Kievits, Huisman & Brinkman, 1998).

In the project East West we cooperate with schools, universities and health organizations in The Netherlands and Ukraine. Students Sociology of the National Taras Shevchenko University Kiev, health organizations Aids Foundations East West

(AFEW), Transatlantic Partners Against Aids (TPAA) and SALUS foundation, and several local teachers supported us in evaluating our research method and educational means. Olena Shyyan⁹⁷ is the cooperating partner of the Lviv Inservice Teacher training Institute in Ukraine. That organizes long term teacher trainings for health educators' professional development. The project East West provides educational means to use and evaluate with these health educators.

In paragraph 2 contextual aspects of The Netherlands and Ukraine are described. Paragraph 3 describes the research methods. The results are described in paragraph 4. Finally the conclusion and opportunities for further research are given.

2. Contextual aspects of The Netherlands and Ukraine

The Netherlands

In The Netherlands sex is everywhere: on the television, the street, etc. But before the sixties the Dutch society was very prudish. Nobody spoke about sex, parents didn't give any sexual education and at school friends also didn't mention it. Everything had to be found out and discovered by themselves.

Youth who grew up in the sixties have changed the prudish attitude. Sexuality became separate of reproduction by the introduction of the birth control pill. Since then it was possible to have without the fear of getting pregnant (Brink & Los, 2007). At the end of the sixties the first sex magazine was made. Porn was forbidden, so it was sold illegal till an amendment of law. From that time on offensive pieces of writing and pictures for decency could be shown openly.

Since the sixties people are having sex on a younger age, because of using the birth control pill. There is no longer taboo on sexuality. Youth is advised to have safe sex. And homosexuality can be discussed (Rigthart, 1998).

In the eighties HIV/aids was first known as the homosexual disease, with the name GRID (Gay Related Immune Disease). Because till then only homosexual men were infected. In 1984 it was known that the disease was the consequence of the HIV-virus, which could infect everyone. That's why the Dutch government decided to start a campaign with the advice: Have safe sex. Stop AIDS.

In these days pupils are becoming more voluptuous and are dancing indecent at school parties ('AD', 2007). The General Pedagogical Centre wants measures to stop this behavior. It seems that schools don't work on this. It is statutory for secondary schools to give sexual education to pupils. The school can decide in which subject the sexual education takes place, most of the time biology. There are different educational means available about sexuality (Van Helden & Simons, 2007).

Ukraine

The concept of continual health education in Ukraine and the new subject "The Valeology" (the science about health) was included into the basic curriculum of the comprehensive secondary school in 1994. Promoting motivation for health maintenance and commitment to healthy life style among youth was defined as one of the main tasks of school. The problem of special teachers' training for promoting the rules of safe behavior among youth preventing negative influences on their health, has gained special importance. There appeared a need of special staff training in higher education establishments and post-graduate education institutions.

⁹⁷ Head of Life Competence department, Lviv In-service Teacher Training Institute Ukraine.

Due to the fact that in higher education establishments training lasts longer and the teachers were needed immediately, at that stage in Lviv Regional Institute of Post-Graduate Pedagogical Education there were implemented short-term courses “The Valeology Basics” and “The Culture of Health”. First time modules “Sex in Human Life” and “AIDS” were included to teacher training courses. The author’s experience as a trainer of the above-mentioned courses is the evidence of big interest of the teachers of different disciplines to them (Shyyan & Shyyan, 1997). Besides, at that time there started a discussion among scientists and methodologists concerning the major of a teacher, to whom valeology teaching could be delegated, which has been going on up to now.

Analysis of implementation the “Valeology” is the evidence of growth of the students’ interest to the subject during the first five years. Unfortunately, gradual decrease of opportunity to provide this program at schools in Ukraine was observed after 2000. First of all this happened because of unexpectedly changes in status of the subject (from obligate to optional) at that time (Shyyan, 2005).

It is important to indicate that since 2005 the new obligate subject “Health Basic” was provide in school curriculum in Ukraine. It formed the new tasks. One of the main tasks is the same as it was in 1994 to train the teachers of health education. In these conditions it is necessary to train an educator not only as a teacher of a separate discipline at school but also as the subject of promoting healthy life style of all participants of educational and pedagogical process.

Apparently, the experience of teachers’ training organization for implementation of courses motivating youth for healthy life style and integrating them into the system of education, which was accumulated by European countries, is valuable for generalization and creative use in the Ukrainian system of education in general and at the regional level in particular. An international research project about health education deals to the development of a teaching strategy for secondary school pupils are very useful for conducting comparative analysis of implementation of health basics education programs in the schools and teacher training institutes (Van der Geugten, Brinkman & Jager, 2006).

Despite the fact that the views on health basics education do not always coincide, the society always contains a substantial array of general human values, which has set for it general tasks that insignificantly depend on the cultural, social and organizational context. Admitting this induces not ignoring cultural and contextual differences but rather creating the integrating framework for solving most important problems of education in the epoch of strengthening globalization. Investigation of using research methods and educational means to investigate pupils’ and teachers’ cultural help to observe differences in approaches to Health education and gender secularities.

3. Research methods

Population

In The Netherlands pupils from secondary schools are investigated. In Ukraine pupils from secondary schools, teachers who attended the Lviv Inservice Teacher Training Institute and students of the Lviv Institute of postgraduate pedagogical education were involved.

Research instruments

This investigation consisted out of five parts (figure 1), based on Schellens (2000), Brinkman (2004) and Ausubel (1968). First the context and the literature is analyzed about the research question. Secondly the conceptions of pupils in The Netherlands and Ukraine were inventoried by using the HC Test (Boschhuizen & Brinkman, 1995). Thirdly the communication message and the goal of that message were defined for each country, based on the results of the HC Test. The development of educational means based on their own ideas is in accordance with the statement of Ausubel (1968) that ‘the most important single factor influencing learning is what the learner already knows’ (p. 287). With the communication message and the communication goal educational means were developed. Fourthly the educational means were tested to measure the effect on the target group. Finally the educational means were evaluated.

Figure 1: Designing educational means based on the concepts of people

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|---|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Analysis of context and literature2. Conceptions of the research group
(<i>HC Test</i>)3. Designing educational means4. Effect on the research group. (<i>HC Test</i>)5. Evaluation of the educational means |
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To explore the conceptions of the pupils with the HC Test the following steps had to be carried out:

Step 1: Collecting associations (10 minutes)

The pupils are asked to write down words were they think of when they think of the stimulus word. The stimulus word is the concept that is tested, in this case for boys ‘girls’ and for girls ‘boys’ (figure 2).

Step 2: Clustering of associations into groups (10 minutes)

The pupils are asked to arrange their associations into coherent groups of their opinion (figure 2). It’s up to them how many associations belong to one group.

4. Results

4.1 HC Test

To inventory the conceptions of boys and girls about each other the pupils carried out the HC Test individually. In The Netherlands 66 boys and 39 girls in the age of 12 to 17 years old participated of four different schools.⁹⁸ In the Ukraine 26 boys and 40 girls in the age of 12 to 17 years old participated of two different schools⁹⁹. In figure 4 and 5 the results are shown divided by theme.

Figure 4: Girls with stimulus word ‘Boys’

Theme	The Netherlands (N=39)	Ukraine (N=40)
Looks	Girls like to see beautiful boys, with short styled hair, brand named clothing and with mussels.	Girls like to see that boys are hygienic styled.
Personality	-	Girls want to be protected by boys.
Behavior	Girls want to be brought home by the boy and they are not selfish in a relationship with a girl.	Girls want boys to be brave and want to be helped by boys when there are problems. They think that boys are sometimes selfish and they don’t think of the girls feelings.
Relationships	-	Girls expect that boys will take care of the girl and that he will protect her.
School	-	Girls in want boys with good education, concerning their future.
Sex	A couple of girls associated a boy with a drawing of a penis or a sentence with the words sperm and making babies.	Girls didn’t associate boys with sexual aspects.

Figure 5: Boys with stimulus word ‘Girls’

Theme	The Netherlands (N=66)	Ukraine (N=26)
Looks	Boys appoint in particular the feminine parts as breast and bottom, which they think are beautiful. Other typical feminine marks are also called.	Boys like to see a well-groomed and good looking girl, which defines beauty. They think that this is important.
Personality	Boys haven’t got any expectations of girls, but they describe their character: they are sweet, cute and they can be very jealous.	Boys have most of all the same opinions about what type of character a girl must have. They have to be smart and kind.
Behavior	Boys say that girls often do ‘typical girls things’ as shopping, sunbathing and makeovers.	Boys do see that girls from their country needs protection and that girls are good students.
Relationships	Boys associate relationships with sex, living together, pregnancy and twaddle.	Boys see it as when you have a family with a girl or where you can share love with and can be happy.
Sex	A few times boys are probably	Boys probably aren’t thinking of sex

⁹⁸ Pieter Nieuwland College (Amsterdam), Hervormd Lyceum Zuid (Amsterdam), Stebo B.V. (Amsterdam), Stedelijk Dalton College (Alkmaar).

⁹⁹ School 318 (Kiev), school 2 (Lviv).

	thinking of sex, when they talk about sex or when they draw masturbating girls.	when they think of girls.
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4.2 Development of educational means

The clustered conceptions of the pupils in the HC Test and the context analysis formed the bulk of ideas from which the conditions for the design of the communication message were chosen (see underneath).

Conditions for The Netherlands:

- Boys and girls see each other as sex objects.
- Good looking girls are important for boys.
- Boys and girls think mark clothes are important.
- Boys find besides the good look also the inner of girls important.
- Boys think that girls are different in their behavior (jealous and sensitive).
- Boys think that girl mustn't be lazy and spoiled.
- Boys say that contact with girls at school, through msn and the telephone is important.

Conditions for Ukraine:

- Girls like boys that are nice and loving.
- Girls wish for smart boys with a good education or a good job.
- Boys expect from girls that they are smart.
- Boys think that cleverness is a part of the beauty of a girl.
- Boys wants girl to be taking good care of their appearance.
- Homosexuality is allowed and is becoming more and more noticeable at the streets and at the television.
- Pupils have a view in a western manner about sexuality.

The goal of the educational intervention to be developed was to realize understanding between boys and girls about each other. The ideology is that when boys and girls understand each other better and are aware of the differences between them, they could be able to provide their will and their bound. When boys and girls are more confident to each other it becomes easier for them to talk about sex and about making love with or without a condom.

4.3 The development of educational methods

The student team developed an interactive talking game in which boys and girls are standing across each other and discuss their differences supported by propositions, photo's, quizzes and drama parts. The student team chose for those frames because it represents the living world of the pupils. Both Dutch pupils as Ukrainian pupils have to deal with many images on television and internet. The communication tool is produced as a manual for teachers¹⁰⁰.

In the workshop two games were pointed out: 'Brains or beauty?' and 'Recognize the heterosexual'. The game 'Brains or beauty' is developed by the student team for Ukrainian pupils and has two main goals, based on the conditions for Ukraine explained in paragraph 4.2:

¹⁰⁰ The manual of the talking game is available at the project website: www.surfgroepen.nl/sites/EastWest

-
1. Pupils know that smart girls/boys haven't always got good looks;
 2. Pupils know that brains and looks are not related.

To reach the goals the student team developed an individual assignment for pupils on a piece of paper. On the paper are ten pictures of persons who are well known with Ukraine pupils, like singers, politicians and models. In Ukraine 31 boys and 26 girls¹⁰¹ attended this assignment. The pupils had to make couples of those persons and argue the kind of relation per couple. This assignment gave the opportunity to discuss relations between people; between girls, between boys and between boys and girls. The pupils remarked that there are four men and six woman on their paper, and they wondered how to finish the assignment well. Most of them made a couple of two woman, but wrote down that it's only friendship. After this step the pupils had to choose one person where they would like to go for dinner with and they had to write down their arguments for the person of their choice. The student team asked this to let the pupils think about what they think is important by choosing relations and people. Conclusion is that the girls had arguments for inner aspects of boys and that boys had more arguments for the outside aspects of girls. Both girls and boys gave arguments why they made the couples and chose one person in particular.

The game 'Recognize the homosexual' is about coping with prejudices against homosexuals. The student team developed this game because homosexuality is a difficult issue in The Netherlands and Ukraine. In Ukraine homosexuality was a crime and punishable till 1991, because of its dependence of the Soviet Union. These days homosexuality in Ukraine is not forbidden, but the public is still intolerant towards homosexuals (Geocities, 2001). In The Netherlands the organization for homosexual youth 'Out Way' says the vision on homosexuality by Dutch people is still very negative (Out Way, 2008). The centre for lesbian and homosexual emancipation policy explains that homosexuality is still taboo among youth, and that bothers homosexual youth (Kenniscentrum Lesbisch en Homo-emancipatie beleid, 2008). The game 'Recognize the homosexual' has also two main goals:

1. Pupils know that there aren't only straight relationships;
2. Pupils know that you cannot see if someone is straight or homosexual by their appearances.

Therefore the student team used the game 'Recognize the straight one', developed by the Dutch organization COC who works on the integration and emancipation of homosexuality. The goal of the game is to recognize the homosexuals and the heterosexuals among a group of pictures of 32 men and woman. The trick is that only two people are heterosexual, and all the other people are homosexual.

In The Netherlands the game is tested with 5 girls and 10 boys¹⁰². The pupils got the assignment to recognize the hetero- and homosexuals among the pictures. They wrote down who they thought is heterosexual and who they thought is homosexual. The student team asked the pupils what they wrote down and why. The pupils gave arguments and came to the conclusion that it's hard to judge from the outside.

The student team told the pupils that only two persons are heterosexual, most of them were surprised that all those people are homosexual. The student team had a conversation with the pupils students about this. They talked about judging from the

¹⁰¹ School 318 (Kiev), school 2 (Lviv).

¹⁰² Hervormd Lyceum Zuid klas Havo 4

outside. Most of the pupils realized that sexual inclination is not visible. Most of them said they would accept it as they have a homosexual classmate.

4.4 Ukrainian teachers and health organizations

In Ukraine the student team had a meeting with Ukrainian students and health organizations. Several people advised the team to not use the game about homosexuality. One of the reasons was that it's not possible to discuss a certain topic with pupils beneath 16 years old without asking permission to the parents. Another reason was that people thought it could be seen as propaganda (promoting homosexuality). The orthodox religion was also mentioned, that relations between men and woman are for reproduction and that relations between men and between woman are seen as something bad. The team decided to not use the game with pupils in Ukraine.

Instead of testing the game with the pupils, the students inventoried the concepts of seven Ukrainian teachers about homosexuality by using the HC Test with the stimulus word 'homosexuality'. Some of the results are shown in figure 6.

Figure 6: Teachers about 'homosexuality'

	Examples (N=7)
Woman	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Homosexuality is a mental defect. - Risk to get aids/std - Wrong raising - Estrangement of the society
Men	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Wrong raising - Leads to typical diseases, loneliness and drama - Inborn physical or mental defect - Most of the time addicted to drugs

Conclusion

The goal was to realize understanding between boys and girls about each other. When they understand each other better and are aware of the differences between them, they could be able to provide their will and their bound. It becomes clear from the tested games that in general Ukrainian boys think more of the inner aspects of girls then before. The boys and the girls both gave arguments for their choice, that strengthens them in relations with each other. Homosexuality is still taboo in Ukraine comparing to The Netherlands. Adults in Ukraine have prejudice about homosexuality and don't discuss about it openly.

Young people are more often and earlier sexual active (Garssen, 2002). This can be a reason why boys think more of sex than girls. Because of this research it's obvious that boys associate physical and sexual elements when they think of girls. Boys also associate elements of behavior and personality of girls, so there can't be concluded that boys are sexualized. Sexualization means that the dignity of a person depends on the sexual behavior and attractiveness instead of other elements (American Psychological Association, Task Force on the Sexualization of Girls, 2007). Besides that boys have more visual capabilities while girls are stronger verbally. That can be a reason why boys have more eye for the female body and girls like to talk with other girls.

It seems that teachers should know more about homosexuality, because their thoughts about homosexuality are not all true. Next to knowledge it is recommended for teachers to have the skills and the instruments to talk about taboo subjects. With the results from this research project, past projects about how pupils think about life (Vallenga & De Vries, 2006), how teachers think about life and HIV/aids (Van der Geugten, 2006) it is relevant to investigate the teachers' conceptions about teaching taboo subjects, to inventory their educational means and provide it.

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Subject didactics in History Education and the need for effective classroom observation protocols

Pieter Vielfont
Erasmushogeschool Brussel
Pieter.vielfont@vub.ac.be

Werner Goegebeur
Vrije Universiteit Brussel
wgoegebe@vub.ac.be

Linda Van Looy
Vrije Universiteit Brussel
lvlooy@vub.ac.be

Abstract

De Vlaamse eindtermen geschiedenis stellen historisch besef als einddoelstelling voorop. Om redenen van operationaliseerbaarheid verkiezen we dit concept te vervangen door historische competentie dat in feite dezelfde realisatievoorwaarden vooropstelt. Historische competentie vereist een leerlingengestuurde didactische benadering waarbij voldoende aandacht wordt besteed aan de ontwikkeling van de domeinspecifieke vaardigheden. De inhoudelijke kennisverwerking is gestoeld op een doordachte opbouw en verdieping van een begrippenkader. Kennisverwerving en vaardigheden vloeien voort uit een historische houding, die zich kenmerkt door een bevragende en reflecterende reflex. Daartoe behoort het vermogen nieuwe kennis omtrent samenlevingen, maatschappelijke gedragingen en verhoudingen steeds opnieuw in een historisch perspectief te plaatsen. Deze onderscheiden deelaspecten vertalen zich in concreet waarneembaar klasgedrag waardoor we de mate van aandacht voor de ontwikkeling van historische competentie in een klas kunnen analyseren. Via specifiek hierop gerichte observatie-instrumenten willen we met een aselect getrokken steekproef (N=120) een onderzoek opzetten naar leraren eerste graad secundair onderwijs om na te gaan of zij in hun lespraktijk beantwoorden aan de voorwaarden om historische competentie bij hun leerlingen te realiseren. Dit onderzoek maakt deel uit van een groter geheel waarin we in een experimenteel luik nagaan of grafische instrumenten, ingezet op specifieke momenten in het leerproces, de realisatie van de fundamentele doelstelling van het Vlaamse geschiedenisonderwijs kunnen faciliteren bij professionele bachelors geschiedenis.

Key words: observatieprotocols, historische competentie, professionele bachelors geschiedenis

Motivering van het onderzoek

Pupils' mastering of history is often restricted to a collection of facts without any

deeper conceptual understanding. (Boix-Mansilla, 2000) However, the main final objective of history education in the Flemish Community is to achieve ‘historical consciousness’, which does refer to such deeper understanding. However, the concept of historical consciousness is difficult to translate into classroom activity. Therefore, we would like to introduce the concept of ‘historical competence’. (Vielfont & Goegebeur, 2007). This is in line with a number of international propositions concerning history education. Nevertheless final objective propositions reflect a variety of opinions: historical consciousness (Aron 1961; Lukacs 1994; Angvik & von Borries, 1997; Ricoeur, 2000, Seixas, 2004); historical understanding (Egan, 1989), historical literacy (Gagnon, 1989), a historical attitude (Nuy & Gieles, 1973; Dalhuisen, 1982; Goegebeur et al., 1999), historical arguing (Pontecorvo & Girardet, 1993), historical culture (Lowenthal, 1998; Grever 2006), historical thinking (Wineburg, 2001; de Vries, 2004), historical reasoning (Pontecorvo & Girardet, 1993, van Boxtel & van Drie, 2005)

Het vastleggen van een einddoelstelling is geen louter theoretisch probleem. Ze bepaalt de leerstofselectie en de didactische benaderingswijze. De vooropgestelde einddoelstelling ‘historische competentie’ vergt historische kennis (met inbegrip van epistemologische kennis), het vermogen tot kritisch denken op basis van de ontwikkeling van historische vaardigheden. Leerlingen leren zelf werken op informatie uit en over het verleden, door vragen te stellen die gebaseerd zijn op de historische methode. Daardoor leren ze de betrekkelijkheid van historische reconstructies inzien en conform de historische regels beredeneerde standpunten beargumenteren. (Goegebeur & Van Looy, 2006) Sommigen verwachten zelfs de aanwending van “*onderzoekskompetentie*” door leerlingen van het secundair onderwijs. (www.onderwijs.vlaanderen.be). Een leerlingengestuurde didactische aanpak is een *conditio sine qua non* om deze einddoelstelling van het Vlaamse geschiedenisonderwijs te realiseren. Voor dit onderwijs is dat een aanpak die sterk contrasteert met de traditionele lespraktijk. (Goegebeur & Van Looy, 2006) Deze werd gekenmerkt door de acceptatie van inhoudelijke kennisverwerving als exclusief aandachtspunt. In de traditionele didactiek primeert dan ook het verhaal of het relaas. De leraar biedt zijn volledig afgerond beeld van ‘De Geschiedenis’ aan. Dit resulteert in een unieke, gepersonaliseerde maar ook gesloten weergave van een onderstelde historische werkelijkheid die via een docentgerichte didactische aanpak wordt overgedragen. Kortom, met de invoering van de eindtermen voor het geschiedenisonderwijs werd tevens impliciet een andere didactische aanpak van het geschiedenisonderwijs opgelegd.

The Flemish legislator stated that the construction of a historical frame of reference is the way to realize the objective ‘historical consciousness’. The legislator also pointed to a number of criteria which have to be met in order to construct a valid frame of reference.

First of all, this frame of reference needs to be more than an aggregation of societies/civilizations. The whole needs to be greater than the sum of its parts. So an integrated framework must be pursued. Therefore different societies/civilizations need to be compared to one another and thus intrinsically linked in order to arrive at a deeper level of understanding the history of societies.

Therefore, pupils have to construct a historical lexicon. This lexicon has to pay special attention to historical epistemology. We think the first step to achieve this is to

highlight the differences between different types of historical terms. We make a distinction between specific or key-terms, passkey-terms, container- (or collective) terms and history's methodological terms. Key-terms are linked to one particular society in one period (e.g. ostracism, Chinese Wall). Passkey-terms find their origins in key-terms but in the course of time they became being used to describe similar phenomena in other civilizations or historical periods (e.g. crusades). Container- or collective terms describe phenomena that appear in different societies/civilizations whereby their specific meaning can slightly differ from one society/civilization to another (e.g. order). History's methodological terms stem from the domain-specific practice. Historians use them in analyzing historical sources and judgments or in historical reasoning. Deep level understanding of history necessitates the mastering, not only of key-terms –which can be difficult enough, e.g. Risorgimento-, but also and foremost of container-terms and history's methodological terms. These are the instruments permitting transfer of notions such as behaviour, type of relations and connections, symbols between societies. They allow historical questioning on the nature of each society and underlying 'world' views.

Comparison of societies' universal dilemmas and behaviour in coping with these dilemmas should be another starting point of the construction of a historical frame of reference. This should help to link with the pupils' own society and their own everyday experiences. This line of thinking implies the ability to argue and reason historically, to practise a degree of abstraction and also the skill to transfer knowledge.

Finally, while constructing a historical frame of reference, teachers should pay special attention to the universal transition moments in history. Such moments occur when the same phenomenon takes place in different societies/civilizations at different points in time (e.g. the transition from a nomadic to a sedentary way of living).

Clearly the legislator wants a historical frame of reference to highlight the universal aspects in history rather than to focus on singular events. This means a historical way of thinking that pays attention to time , (historical) space and societal relations.

A historical frame of reference consists of four dimensions: time and temporality, historical space(s), sociality and historicity. The first dimension 'time and temporality' refers to more than just absolute and relative chronology. Aspects such as duration, tempo, short- and long-term, wave, have to be taken account of when analyzing historical events. Geographical location is but one aspect of the dimension 'historical space(s)'. This dimension also entails categories such as urban and rural environment, open and enclosed society, periphery – centre, local or global scale, maritime or continental perspective. The third dimension 'sociality' is usually approached by the categories: politics, economy, social life, material and spiritual culture, philosophy of life, ecology. However, historically speaking it also has to do with connections (such as causality), relations, behaviour, symbols and 'world' views. 'Historicity' refers to the attitude and ability of questioning and estimating the usefulness and value of sources and historical judgements.

It is important to note that the acquisition of each of the different dimensions requires domain-specific skills. Moreover they cannot be treated in isolation (see e.g. the term 'geopolitics').

In short, the achievement of historical consciousness or for that matter historical competence depends on the ability to construct an open ended historical frame of reference. Now, the Flemish Community Education Inspectorate (www.ond.vlaanderen/doorlichtingsverslagen) has found that today's classroom practice often continues to emphasise 'content knowledge' as such all too strongly to the detriment of historical skills development. The balance between 'content knowledge' development and skills development is lacking. This inevitably results in an insufficient achievement of the decree's main objective.

Obviously the mastering of a historical frame of reference by pupils and even student history teachers at the beginning of their studies -after having been submitted to traditional teaching methods- is not to be taken for granted. Moreover a historical frame of reference is an abstract concept which is difficult to understand and imagine even for teacher trainees in history.

Hence, we assess, first of all, in a descriptive study, by means of content validated observation protocols whether there is indeed a lack of development of historical competence in the current Flemish first-grade classroom practice (pupils 12-14 years).

Van historische competentie naar waarneembaar gedrag

In het kader van ons onderzoek willen we dus bestuderen in welke mate en op welke wijze 'historisch competentie' door de huidige leerkrachten eerste graad secundair onderwijs in de praktijk wordt gebracht. Historische competentie –geëxpliciteerd in een historisch referentiekader– zijn theoretische, abstracte cognitieve concepten. Met het oog op onze onderzoeksmethode -systematische observatie- is een vertaling van deze abstracte concepten naar concreet waarneembaar gedrag noodzakelijk.

De analyse van de relevante decreten, de vakspecifieke eindtermen en de doorlichtingsverslagen van de Vlaamse Gemeenschapsinspectie bieden hiertoe de benodigde aanknopingspunten.

1. Didactische aanknopingspunten

De ontwikkeling van historische competentie bij leerlingen is slechts mogelijk indien er een leerlingengerichte didactische aanpak wordt gehanteerd. Immers, een leerling kan zich een competentie niet eigen maken door uitsluitend te luisteren naar het betoog van zijn leerkracht. De verwerving van een competentie gaat per definitie via een geleidelijke verzelfstandiging. (Sawyer & Keith, 2006) Verschillende vakspecifieke én vakoverschrijdende eindtermen verwijzen dan ook naar de actief werkende leerling.¹⁰³ Ook in de doorlichtingsverslagen van de Vlaamse inspectie komt het aspect leerlingengerichte – dan wel docentgerichte didactische aanpak expliciet aan bod. (www.ond.vlaanderen/doorlichtingsverslagen) Een didactische handelwijze komt in de lespraktijk tot uitdrukking in de gekozen werkvormen (instructievormen, interactievormen, opdrachtvormen, samenwerkingsvormen en spelvormen) (Hoogeveen & Winkels, 2008), de groeperingsvorm (klassikaal, groep, individueel) en de mate waarin de leerkracht dan wel de leerling aan het woord is. (ten Dam, van Hout, Terlouw & Willems, 2004). Elk van deze aspecten is concreet waarneembaar in de lespraktijk. De combinatie van deze drie parameters geeft o.i. een beeld van de mate van leerlingengerichte aanpak.

¹⁰³ De verschillende vakoverschrijdende eindtermen over 'leren leren' staan in het teken van 'leerlingengericht onderwijs'. Vakspecifieke eindtermen als Eindterm 17-18-19-20-21 en 22 beogen het begeleiden van onderzoek en dus ook het leerlingengericht werken.

Wie het heeft over leerlingenactiviteit spreekt over de ontwikkeling van vaardigheden. Naast kennis- en inzichtsonwikkeling, attitude en handelingsbekwaamheid, maken de domeinspecifieke vaardigheden de derde hoofdcomponent van elke competentie uit. (Schlussmann, 1999) Immers, de domeinspecifieke vaardigheden zijn de noodzakelijke hulpmiddelen om zelfstandig tot diepgaande domeinspecifieke kennisverwerving te komen. (Goegebeur & van Looy, 2006) De vakspecifieke eindtermen betreffende de vaardigheden kunnen voor de eerste graad secundair onderwijs als volgt worden gerubriceerd: de informatieverwervende vaardigheden (Eindtermen 17-18-19-20) en de historisch kritische bevragede vaardigheden (Eindtermen 21 – 22). Deze laatste groep slaat op de graad van relevantie en betrouwbaarheid van informatie.

Gekoppeld aan het luik ‘vaardigheden’ uit de historische competentie is de kritische historische attitude. Het gaat hier om de bevragede houding en reflecterende instelling waarbij de historische structuurbegrippen worden ingezet, wat een elementair kenmerk van de houding van een professionele historicus is. Informatiemateriaal, historische fenomenen en (onderstelde) historische kennis worden telkens aan een voorafgaand en afsluitend onderzoek onderworpen waarbij de historicus zijn structuurbegrippen van tijd, ruimte, socialiteit en historiciteit inzet. (Dalhuisen, 1992; Vielfont & Goegebeur, 2007)

Vertaald in termen van klassikaal gedrag en observatie-aandachtspunten betekent dit dat een observator voor die bevragede benaderingswijze van de leerstof kan nagaan of de leerkracht bij het aanbrengen van nieuwe leerstof vanuit een probleemstelling, een maatschappelijk dilemma, een belangrijk transitie-moment, een opvallende maatschappelijke gedraging vertrekt? Of informatiemateriaal, standpunten en maatschappelijke verhoudingen zelf in vraag wordt gesteld? Of leerlingen ertoe werden opgeleid spontaan vragen te stellen bij de aangebrachte leerstof? De diepgang van de bevragede houding uit zich in de kwaliteit van de vraagstelling. En die kwaliteit hangt samen met het al dan niet systematisch inzetten van historische structuurbegrippen.

Ook de capaciteit om samenlevingen op elkaar te betrekken en nieuwe kennis te integreren in reeds bestaande kennischema's vormt een vaardigheidsonderdeel van historische competentie. Historische competentie impliceert een steeds uitbreidende kennisbasis of onderliggend referentiekader. Nieuwe kennis wordt vergeleken met, verwerkt in en geënt op reeds verworven kennis. Observatievragen zijn hier: wordt bij de introductie van nieuwe kennis teruggesproken naar relevante voorkennis? Wordt de leerinhoud geactualiseerd en wordt aansluiting gezocht met de leef- en ervaringswereld van de leerlingen? Wordt de nieuwe kennis van een bepaalde samenleving of historisch fenomeen afgezet en vergeleken met andere samenlevingen of gelijksoortige historische fenomenen uit andere historische periodes of ruimtes?

2. Historisch-inhoudelijke aanknopingspunten

De inhoudelijke kenniscomponent van historische competentie omvat twee lagen. De eerste laag kan oppervlaktestructuur worden genoemd en beschrijft de gegevens zoals ze zich aandienen op het terrein. Daarboven (of daaronder) bestaat er een meta- of dieptestructuur die toelaat gegevens en hun verbanden op een meer abstract niveau te formuleren. (Koselleck, 2002) Beide structuren maken gebruik van begrippen, zij het

van een verschillend abstractieniveau. Voor de metastructuur worden de zgn. historische structuurbegrippen ingezet.

De bewuste keuze van de ingezette begrippen (sleutel-, looper-, container- en structuurbegrippen), rekening houdend met de mate waarin die begrippen door leerlingen worden beheerst, zijn bepalend voor de kwaliteit van het op te bouwen historisch referentiekader. (Van Boxtel & Van Drie, 2008) De begrippen die door de leraar werden weerhouden en beklemtoond kunnen via inventarisatie tijdens de observaties in kaart worden gebracht. Ook deze handelwijze is immers concreet waarneembaar in de lespraktijk. De beoogde diepgang in begripskennis van de leerlingen moet echter ook het voorwerp van observatie kunnen uitmaken. Dit kan worden geobserveerd in de wijze waarop de begrippen door hen worden geassimileerd en door hen op hun beurt al dan niet worden ingezet. Hier ontmoeten inhoudsverwerving en vaardigheidsontwikkeling elkaar in de observatie. Met het oog op triangulatie van de onderzoeksinstrumenten kunnen voor dit aspect van het onderzoek ook de evaluaties worden ingezet, met name door de toetsvragen te bestuderen.

Tot slot, gaan we ook systematisch na welke maatschappelijke historische domeinen (politiek, economisch, sociaal, cultureel, levensbeschouwelijk en ecologie) tijdens de les aan bod komen. Immers, een volwaardig historisch referentiekader vereist een gelijkwaardige behandeling van de verschillende historische domeinen alsook een bewust op elkaar betrekken en integreren van deze domeinen. We bekomen een beeld van de behandelde historische domeinen door deze doorheen de observatie te inventariseren.

Samengevat kan men stellen dat historische competentie een leerlingengestuurde didactische benadering vereist waarbij naast inhoudelijke kennisontwikkeling voldoende aandacht wordt besteed aan de ontwikkeling van domeinspecifieke vaardigheden en een historische attitude. De inhoudelijke kennisverwerving is gestoeld op een doordachte opbouw en systematische verdieping van een begrippenkader. Deze kennisverwerving vloeit voort uit een historische houding, die zich uit in een bevragende en reflecterende reflex. Daartoe behoort ook het vermogen nieuwe kennis steeds in een historisch perspectief te plaatsen en te enten op de reeds verworven kennis. Deze verschillende deelaspecten laten zich vertalen in concreet waarneembaar klasgedrag waardoor de mate van aandacht voor de ontwikkeling van historische competentie in een klas kan worden geanalyseerd.

Onderzoeksdesign

Onze *centrale hypothese* luidt: “de realisatie van de eindterm ‘historisch besef’ wordt momenteel onvoldoende gerealiseerd in de huidige lespraktijk van de eerste graad (leerlingen 12-14 jaar) door een onevenwicht tussen aandacht voor inhoudelijke kennisverwerving, vaardigheidsontwikkeling en ontwikkeling van een historische basishouding”.

Onderzoeksvragen zijn:

- *welke didactische aanpak wordt momenteel gehanteerd, een leerlingenactieve of een docentgestuurde?*

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- *wat is de relatie in tijdsbesteding tussen kennisoverdracht en vaardigheidsontwikkeling?*
 - *besteden leerkrachten voldoende aandacht aan de systematische opbouw en uitdieping van een gevarieerd historisch begrippenkader?*
 - *wordt er voldoende aandacht besteed aan de opbouw van een historisch referentiekader en de integratie van nieuwe kennis in dit referentiekader?*

Onderzoekspopulatie

Via systematische observatie van een aselekt getrokken populatie van 120 leraren geschiedenis uit de eerste graad (docenten van leerlingen 12-14 jaar) trachten we, met ad hoc ontworpen en content validated observatieprotocollen, het antwoord op onze onderzoeksvragen te formuleren.

Onderzoeksinstrumenten

De onderzoeksinstrumenten zijn twee observatieprotocollen en een synthetiserend document:

- het eerste observatieprotocol focust op de globale didactische aanpak: gehanteerde werkvormen, groeperingsvormen, interacties leraar-leerlingen, met bijzondere aandacht voor vaardigheden en ontwikkeling van de historische attitude (zie bijlage 1);
- het tweede observatieprotocol richt zich op de begripsvorming: welke begrippen worden aangebracht? Op welke wijze worden ze aangebracht; Worden leerlingen in de gelegenheid gesteld ze ook actief te verankeren? (zie bijlage 2)
- het synthetiserend document richt zich meer in het bijzonder op het proces van opbouw van het referentiekader (zie bijlage 3).

Deze instrumenten werden voorgelegd aan en aan de hand van vier vooraf opgenomen at random uit een beschikbaar corpus gekozen lessen uitgetest door een groep van experts, die als wetenschappelijk forum diende.¹⁰⁴ Zodoende werd gecontroleerd of de gekozen observatiecategorien effectief de inhoud en realisatievoorwaarden van het concept 'historische competentie' meten, waardoor de content validity werd geverifieerd. (Segers, 1999) De opmerkingen van deze experts werden verwerkt en onderworpen aan een tweede testmoment. Op grond hiervan kwam de uiteindelijke versie van de voorliggende protocollen tot stand.

Onderzoeksprocedure

De volgende stap in ons onderzoek bestaat erin een groep observatoren te trainen in het gebruik van deze content validated observatie-instrumenten. Het gebruik van deze observatie-instrumenten vereist een actuele basiskennis van de algemene didactiek, het vakspecifiek jargon alsook een basisvaardigheid in het observeren. We opteerden voor eerstejaars studenten uit de lerarenopleiding van de professionele bachelors geschiedenis als groep observatoren. Via oefening met zes vooraf opgenomen en

¹⁰⁴ Het wetenschappelijk forum bestond uit een pedagogische begeleider geschiedenis, een directie en stagebegeleider van studenten geschiedenis academische lerarenopleiding, een leerkracht geschiedenis actief in klassen van leerlingen van 14-18j, voorheen lector geschiedenis in de lerarenopleiding van een hogeschool (professionele bachelors geschiedenis) en mentor, een leerkracht geschiedenis in het secundair onderwijs, ook actief als lector geschiedenis in de lerarenopleiding en mentor, een leerkracht geschiedenis eerste graad, ook mentor en een lector lerarenopleiding professionele bachelors geschiedenis. Zodoende bestond het wetenschappelijk forum uit een representatieve groep van vakexperten uit zowel lerarenopleiding, secundair onderwijs als pedagogische begeleidingsdienst.

doelbewust gekozen lessen geschiedenis zullen zij zich deze instrumenten eigen maken. Met deze doelgerichte oefening beogen we de oefening in gebruik van de meetinstrumenten alsook het bereiken van uniformiteit in het coderen van gelijkaardig gedrag. Na het doorlopen van de training wordt per observatie-instrument eenzelfde ongeziene opgenomen les door alle observatoren geobserveerd. Dit heeft tot doel de onderlinge betrouwbaarheid van de observatoren bepalen. Deze les is één van de aan de groep experts voorgelegde lessen. Hun invulling van het observatieformulier dient als ijkpunt voor de kwaliteit van de observatie.

In het kader van het eigenlijke onderzoek zullen leraren geschiedenis uit de eerste graad geschiedenis (N=120) door deze getrainde observatoren worden geobserveerd. Elke les wordt telkens door twee observatoren gevolgd waarbij de ene observator oog heeft voor de didactische aanpak (observatie-instrument 1) en de andere voor de begripsvorming (observatie-instrument 2). In onderling overleg vullen ze vervolgens instrument 3 aan.

Voor elk van de componenten van het eerste observatie-instrument werden de mogelijke gedragsuitingen i.v.m. werk- en groepeeringsvormen opgelijst en van een code voorzien (zie bijlage 1). Van de observator wordt verwacht dat hij per drie minuten (Bakeman & Gottman, 1997) via codering het geobserveerde gedrag aangeeft. Tevens wordt hem gevraagd om een inschatting te maken van de duur die de leerkracht aan het woord is. Het interval van 3 minuten laat relatief eenvoudig toe om dit op een schaal van 1/3 – 2/3 – 3/3 in kaart te brengen. Er werd ook vrije ruimte voorzien voor bijkomende opmerkingen.

Het tweede observatie-instrument (zie bijlage 2) focust op de historische begripsvorming en de context waarin de begrippen uitgelegd worden (persoonlijke leefwereld, maatschappelijke context, wetenschappelijk woordgebruik). We gaven al aan dat zowel de bewuste keuze als de mate van diepgang bepalend is voor de kwaliteit van de begripsvorming. We opteerden dan ook voor het letterlijk noteren van de aangebrachte begrippen onder een bepaalde categorie. Om de mate van gelegenheid tot persoonlijke inoefening door de leerlingen zelf te bepalen, geven de vastgelegde categorieën ook uiting aan de wijze waarop het begrip werd aangebracht gaande van ‘vermeld door de leerkracht zonder verdere toelichting’ tot ‘begrip wordt getransfereerd door de leerlingen’. Ook hier wordt gewerkt met een tijdsinterval van 3 minuten.

Na de observatie reflecteren beide observatoren gezamenlijk over de mate waarin aandacht werd besteed aan de integratie van de nieuwe leerstof in het bestaande historisch referentiekader. Omwille van de gelijke tijdsintervallen voor beide observatieprotocollen kunnen de observatieresultaten van het ene protocol worden gekoppeld aan de resultaten van het andere. Op die manier worden beide observaties op elkaar betrokken. Daartoe wordt het derde formulier (zie bijlage 3) gehanteerd, met de volgende vragen:

- werden er vergelijkingen gemaakt doorheen tijd en/of ruimte? Voor welke maatschappelijke dilemma's, problemen, gedragingen, verhoudingen? Werd hiervoor aangesloten bij het (ondersteld) aanwezige historisch referentiekader?
- werd er geactualiseerd? Werd er verwezen naar de ervaringswereld van leerlingen?
- werd bij de vraagstelling gebruik gemaakt van historische structuurbegrippen?

-werd de leerinhoud naar een hoger niveau van abstractie (binnen de mogelijkheden van deze leerlingenpopulatie) opgetrokken?
-wie was de in tijd belangrijkste uitvoerder van de hogervermelde klasactiviteiten: leerkracht of leerlingen?

Op deze manier worden alle aandachtspunten die we identificeerden voor de ontwikkeling van historische competentie in een van de drie instrumenten opgenomen. De resultaten van de observaties zullen statistisch worden geanalyseerd. Zodoende hopen we inzicht te krijgen in de mate van bijdrage tot de realisatie van historische competentie in de huidige lespraktijk van de eerste graad secundair onderwijs alsook in de knelpunten.

Besluit

De realisatie van de einddoelstelling van het geschiedenisonderwijs in de Vlaamse Gemeenschap lijkt problemen op te leveren. (www.ond.vlaanderen/doorlichtingsverslagen) Om deze vaststelling nader te kunnen omschrijven zetten we een descriptief onderzoek op met een aselechte steekproef van 120 leraren geschiedenis eerste graad (docenten leerlingen 12-14j). Hiertoe ontwikkelden we twee observatieprotocols en een integrerend formulier. De protocols en het integrerend formulier focussen op de realisatievoorwaarden van historische competentie. Observatie door hiertoe opgeleide en betrouwbaar bevonden observatoren moet een antwoord bieden op onze onderzoekshypothese dat inderdaad deficiënties aanwezig zijn in het vormingsproces tot historische competentie. We menen dat de onderzoeksresultaten ook informatie zullen opleveren om tot een verbetering van dit vormingsproces te komen.

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Action-Oriented Health Education: A Didactic Approach To The Development Of Intercultural Competencies While Encouraging Youthful Dialogue Between Cultures.

Teresa Vilaça

Department of Methodology of Education,

Institute of Education and Psychology, University of Minho, Braga, Portugal,

tvilaca@iep.uminho.pt

Abstract

Student intercultural competencies are achieved through quality educational policies and practices in school settings, which provide opportunities for the development of personal and organizational skills that include student participation in critical decision-making, high tolerance and flexibility for diversity, empathy, the willingness to engage with differences and to learn from and understand other cultural viewpoints, knowledge of democratic values and citizenship and the ability to communicate in foreign languages. During the development of democratic, participatory and action-oriented health education projects with the use of information and communication technology (ICT), student intercultural competencies could therefore be acquired.

In this sense, a research involving students (N=350) from six Portuguese schools (7th to 12th grades), using as research techniques participatory observation, group interviews, online class diaries and discussion e-forums, aimed at data triangulation, was carried out. This paper will describe this study having as its principal aims: i) to describe the application of a participatory and action-oriented learning project to sex education; ii) to discuss the competencies developed by students during the project; and iii) to present students' visions for future cultural dialogue with other countries.

1. INTRODUCTION

Intercultural competencies as a means to cope with intercultural interactions

Portugal as an European Union (EU) member since 1986, refocused its external policy and assumed itself as having joined the EU with the aim of creating a community of peace, material and cultural progress and solidarity between nations and citizens in order to maintain and enlarge a model of civilization, democracy and respect for Human Rights, which have been created by European inhabitants throughout centuries and who intend to continue maintaining this goal in a global world (Government Portal, 2008). Portugal also has, as an important component of its national strategy, the principle of not wanting to break its historical ties with countries which spoke the Portuguese language (Angola, Brazil, Cabo Verde, Mozambique, São Tomé e Príncipe and Timor) and also with the Portuguese communities and Portuguese-descendants disseminated in various European and non-European countries.

As important as these two decades of European Union membership are, the 332,137 thousand immigrants living in Portugal have therefore transformed this country into a multicultural society. They represent approximately 3% of the Portuguese population with a total of 10,599,095 inhabitants on 31 December 2006, the majority of whom originated from Cabo Verde (57,369), Brazil (42,700), Angola (28,856), Ukraine (22,846) and Guinea-Bissau (21,170) (INE, 2008), and among other countries such as United Kingdom, Canada, The United States of America, Spain, Germany, France, Moldavia, Romany, Timor-Leste, Mozambique, São Tomé e Príncipe and Russia. As a consequence, in the last decade official schools have had the necessity to cope with cultural integration.

Cultural integration has received much attention in school communities and in the public sector. As a result, the general public and school teachers have adopted standardised ideas, which include statements such as: “no one must be discriminated against because of personal religion”; “racism needs to be eliminated”; “schools must foster tolerance, empathy and the respect for citizens”; “diversity enriches society”; “the various cultural identities and cultural differences existing in the students in and out of schools need to be respected and shared”; or “schools must prepare students to experience a democratic citizenship in both school and society”.

The Basic Law for the Portuguese Educational System (Law 46/86) gave schools the responsibility of including in the curriculum and the daily routine of the school, topics related to events and specific problems of life and the personal and social development process of children and youths (Article 2 – *General Principles*):

The educational system responds to the needs that result from the social reality, contributing to the complete and harmonious development of the personality of the individual, encouraging the formation of free, responsible and autonomous citizens, appreciating the human aspect of work (article 2, point 4).

Education promotes the development of the democratic and pluralistic spirit, the respect for others and of their ideas, openness to dialogue and the free exchange of opinions, the training of citizens to possess the capacity to judge the social environment in which they live, with a critical and creative spirit and pledging themselves to its positive progressive transformation (article 2, point 5).

In the Organizational Principles (Article 3), the Law defined the organisation of the educational system so as to: “b) contribute to the realisation of the student through complete personality development, the moulding of character and citizenship, the preparation of the student for a conscious reflection on the spiritual, aesthetic, moral and civil values and providing a balanced physical development; c) to assure the civic and moral training of young people; d) to assure the right to be different, worthy of respect due to personalities and existing personal projects, as well as the consideration and appreciation of different sorts of knowledge and cultures”.

These principles are reflected in the objectives of primary and secondary education. It can be found in Article 7 that these objectives belong to primary education: “h) provide students with experience that will favour their civic and social-affective maturity, instilling positive attitudes and habits of relating and cooperating with others, be it in their family circle or in the conscious and responsible intervention of their surroundings; and i) provide the essential tools for the acquisition of autonomous attitudes, with a view to forming civically minded and democratically intervening citizens in the life of the community”. Article 9 establishes that secondary education has as its objective: “b) to facilitate the knowledge that young people need for the understanding of aesthetic and cultural expressions”.

The White Paper on Intercultural Dialogue (Council of Europe, 2008) formulates the political orientations of the EU in this area and serves as a reference document for action at national, regional and local levels. In this document it is argued that intercultural dialogue can only thrive if the democratic governing of cultural diversity is adapted in many aspects; democratic citizenship and participation should be strengthened; intercultural competences should be taught and learned; spaces for intercultural dialogue should be created and widened; and intercultural dialogue should be taken to the international level. It is also argued that intercultural competencies are not automatically acquired; they need to be learned, practiced and maintained throughout life in formal, non-formal or informal educational activities, including vocational training, the family and communities of reference and enabling an individual to act as an active and responsible citizen respectful of others. This implies working on three key competence areas: democratic citizenship, language and history.

According to this document, education for democratic citizenship involves civic, historical, political and human-rights education, education on the global context of societies and on cultural heritage. It encourages multidisciplinary approaches and combines the acquisition of knowledge, skills and attitudes – particularly the capacity for reflection and the self-critical disposition necessary for life in culturally diverse societies. In this sense it is recommended for primary and secondary education that (Council of Europe, 2008, p. 30):

In a multicultural Europe, education is not only a means of preparing for the labor market, supporting personal development and providing a broad base of knowledge; schools are also important for the preparation of young people for life as active citizens. They are responsible for guiding and supporting young people in acquiring the tools and developing attitudes necessary for life in society in all its aspects or with strategies for acquiring them, enabling students to understand and acquire the values that underpin democratic life, introducing respect for human rights as the foundations for managing

diversity and stimulating openness to other cultures.

Intercultural dialogue as an emerging issue in the political and educational fields, has been assumed in educational practices and research with a diversity of approaches (see for example, Blandford, 2007; Ehle, 2007; ERICarts, 2008; Council of The European Union, 2004; Geugten, Brinkman, Jager, 2006; Livermore, 1998; McLean, Ransom, 2004).

Participatory and action-oriented health education as a valid tool in the process of the implementation of democratic citizenship and respect for cultural diversity

Jensen (1995, 1997) established the general plan of the *moralist* and the *democratic* paradigm of Health Education, distinguished among others things, by the differences between information and education. He argues that the *moralistic paradigm* is more dominant in the health education of many countries and suggests a *democratic paradigm* as a participatory alternative within the WHO framework of the holistic definition of health.

The *moralistic paradigm* views health only as the *absence of illness*, and the causes of health problems purely as the fault of individual lifestyles and behaviour. In this model, the definitions of health and a healthy lifestyle are closed and private concepts related only to the work of health professionals. As a result, this approach can be considered totalitarian because it does not allow for space for the thoughts and decisions of students regarding what the concepts of health and a healthy life signify for them. Apart from this, it focuses only on lifestyles as a determinant health factor, based on the naive and simplistic image of reality which may directly block the development of the notions of students about how society is structured and evolves and influences our immediate course of action. Consequently, this approach to health education is founded on the ideology of “victim blame” and total negligence of investigation in sociology, anthropology and social medicine which demonstrate that the conditions of social life are a major factor which can not only place health in danger but also promote it (Jensen, 1997). The researcher re-enforces the theory that a closed and pre-defined concept of health, as appears in the moralistic paradigm which focuses on the dimension of disease, violates the definition of health set down by WHO which states that the state of physical, mental and social well-being is not only the absence of disease or disability. The subjective dimension of well-being and quality of life has as a consequence, the notion that people and students have the right to be involved in the development of the definition of a healthy life. The definition of well-being, included in the definition of health, pays attention to what target groups think regarding the question of what really is quality of life, independently from being doctors, school children or members of the local community.

Action-oriented learning, within the democratic perspective, involves working with knowledge about the consequences and causes of health problems, knowledge regarding the strategies for change and also knowledge about visions regarding the future (Jensen, 2000; Jensen, Simovska, 2005; Vilaça, 2008):

- *Knowledge about the effects*. It intends to achieve a common perception about which conditions students would like to change and which they would like to maintain. Scientific knowledge plays an important role in the presentation of the range and extension of the problem. It is also important because it arouses students’

concerns and attention and, consequently, creates a starting point in order to feel the desire to act. In this sense, it can be one of the prerequisites for the development of student empowerment and action competence.

- *The knowledge about causes.* This deals with the social factors underlying our behaviour. Even if the problem exists in class or at school, the underlying causes are quite often found outside these venues. Consequently, the social observation methods, where health and environmental problems display economic, social and cultural structures in which they develop, are important.

- *Knowledge about strategies of change.* This includes the actual process of change, which is, the knowledge about how to gain control over our own lives, how to influence the school environment or how to contribute to a change in the living conditions of society. It also includes knowledge about how structures cooperate, develop and organise strategies, and how to analyse and use power relationships. These aspects are particularly related to psychology and sociology.

- *Knowledge about alternatives and visions.* This deals with the development of students' ideas, dreams and perceptions regarding their future lives and the society in which they will grow up.

At the end of this process, actions experiences, that is the students' real experiences from participating individually or collectively in initiating health changes within a democratic framework and considering how barriers can be overcome, could then be carried out.

If health education in the school community has as its aim the construction of this action-oriented knowledge in students in order for them carry out healthy actions, students should, during their school life, work in order to strengthen their wishes and abilities, so as to be able to influence the conditions which interfere with their health and their environment, in other words, they should develop their ability to act, which means their action competence.

The following components have been pointed out, among others, to define and put into operation the concept of action competence (Jensen, 1995; 1997):

- *insight and knowledge:* a broad, positive, coherent and action-minded understanding of health;
- *commitment:* motivation to become involved in bringing about change regarding one's own life and the processes of a dynamic society;
- *visions:* the ability to go "behind" health issues and think creatively;
- *action experiences:* real experiences from participating individually or collectively in initiating health promoting changes within a democratic framework and considering how barriers can be overcome.

The starting point for the development of action competence is that today, health and environmental problems are structurally rooted in our society and in our daily lives. For example, health is not only influenced by lifestyles or living conditions. In order to understand the development of issues related to health, we must be aware that lifestyles and living conditions are very much connected and one must see them as being related to the other. The knowledge of these connections is, consequently, a duty to develop strategies in order to solve present and future health problems. Solving these problems requires fundamental changes at the personal and social levels. Due to this, school education has to work to the maximum in order to place present and future citizens in a position in which they will be able to act collectively and individually. Students, through their education, should become able make decisions concerning their own lives and be able to influence their surrounding environment (Jensen, 1994). Action competence also has to be the type of competence

necessary to decide upon our own habits and be able to fulfill them positively. This often implies being able to collaborate with other people in the alteration of collective day-to-day life conditions. It is clear that such collaboration has to be the result – or a kind of – democratic debate, including attempts of critical analysis (Schnack, 1994).

In order to apply the above-mentioned background, a participatory and action-oriented sex education project, using ICT was developed in six schools (7th to 12th grades). The following is a presentation and discussion of its results which intend to achieve two aims: i) to discuss the competencies which were developed by students during the project; and ii) to present students' visions for future cultural dialogues with other countries.

2. METHODOLOGY

2.1. Samples

Three hundred and fifty students from the 7th to the 12th grades, of six schools of the Braga District in the North of Portugal, constituted the sample, selected to allow an in-depth comprehension of an action-oriented sex education project implemented in fifteen schools of the same District (table1).

Table 1: Characterization of students (N= 350)

		Basic education - 3 ^o cycle (7 th to 9 th grades)			Secondary education (10 th to 12 th grades)		
School codes		B	G	J	L	O	Q
1st + 2nd years	N.º lessons	25(1 st)+60(2 nd)	60(1 st)+60(2 nd)	60(1 st)+60(2 nd)	25(1 st)+20(2 nd)	25(1 st)+25(2 nd)	25(1 st)+20(2 nd)
Target Population 1st year	N.º of stud.	63 (7 th grade)	28 (7 th grade)	50 (8 th grade)	40 (11 th grade)	21 (11 th grade)	82(10 th ,11 th)
	Age	M=13,1(1-16, SD=1,35)	M=12,5(1-16, SD=0,98)	M=13,0(1-15, SD=0,61)	M=16,0(15-17, SD=0,46)	M=16,0(15-18, SD=0,0)	M=15,5(15-18, SD=0,80)
	N.º of boys	36 (57,1%)	16 (57,1%)	29 (58,0%)	17 (42,5%)	7 (33,3%)	41 (50,0%)
	N.º of girls	27 (42,9%)	12(42,9%)	21 (42,0%)	23 (57,5%)	14 (66,7%)	41 (50,0%)
2nd year	N.º of stud.	46 (9 th grade)	The same students of the previous year (8 th grade)	The same students of the previous year (9 th grade)	46 (10 th , 12 th grades)	The same students of the previous year (12 th grade)	The same students of the previous year (11 th , 12 th)
	Age	M=14,5(13-17, SD=0,84)			M=16,6(15-20, SD=1,0)		
	N.º of boys	22 (47,8%)			5 (11,1%)		

N. ° of girls	24 (52,2%)
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40 (88,9%)

The group interviews carried out in the project included 11 groups of boys and 14 groups of girls, with five students in each one, from “B” school (6 groups), “G” school (3 groups), “J” school (6 groups), “L” school (3 groups) and “Q” school (7 groups).

2.2. Methods and techniques of collecting and analysing data

During this study, data was collected by way of participatory observation in schools, material was put online by students throughout the various phases of their projects and online class diaries and discussion e-forums were implemented when they were organized in the website “Healthy Youths in Action”. This method was developed in the following phases:

1st year

1. The students created the online infrastructure to participate in the project’s website;
2. The classes debated the concept of sexuality and sex education;
3. The students selected the themes/problems and planned their action-oriented project to solve the first problem;
4. Implementation and evaluation of part of the first action-oriented project was developed;
5. The students elaborated on e-class diaries, put the material produced online and participated in the discussion e-forums;
6. Since the beginning of the Project, participatory observation in six schools was carried out.

2nd year

7. The students developed and evaluated one or two action-oriented projects;
8. Students continued elaborating e-class diaries, put the material produced online and participated in the discussion e-forums;
9. The participatory observation in six schools continued;
10. Students of these six schools collaborated in the final semi-structured group interviews.

A triangulation of the data collected from these different research techniques and the inferences or conclusions between the researcher and the participants were carried out.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Student participation as a cornerstone of their commitment to the project

At the end of the project, the students from the six schools, interviewed in groups, talked about participation essentially regarding the viewpoint of who chooses and not who suggests, and pointed out that these were the aspects that most

contributed to liking the project and acquiring self-confidence to solve their personal problems in the future (table 2).

Table 2: Students' group perceptions about student participation (n= 25)

	f	%
Having the responsibility of choosing the themes/problems	23	92,0
Selecting the activities that they wanted to carry out within the theme/problem	17	68,0
The greater freedom they felt when suggesting the visions/ actions and deciding on them on their own	7	28,0
The greater freedom they felt when suggesting the visions/actions and deciding on them with teachers	12	48
Giving lessons to their peers in their own class	15	60

There were two fundamental participation aspects for the majority of students who experienced them: having the responsibility of choosing the themes/problems (23 of the groups; 92%); selecting the activities that they wanted to carry out within the theme/problem; giving lessons to their peers in their own class after the class had selected the activities that they wanted to carry out within the theme; and the greater freedom they felt when suggesting the visions/ actions and deciding on them with teachers.

The problems chosen by the students, from the fifteen schools, in order to carry out their action-oriented projects, were mainly related to: the prevention of adolescent pregnancy and contraceptive methods (73,3% of the schools); prevention of sexually transmitted infections (60,0%); the first sexual relationship (46,7%); sexual behaviour (40,0%); dating (40,0%); dialogue with parents concerning adolescent sexuality (40,0%); puberty/ the awakening of sexual maturity (33,3%); homosexuality (20,0%); interpersonal relationships and friendship (13,3%); the Youth Consultation at the Health Centre (13,3%); the morning-after pill (13,3%); human fertility (6,7%), abortion (6,7%); love, intimacy and communication between romantic partners (6,7%); paedophilia (6,7%) and other paraphilias (6,7%); adult sexuality (6,7%); and sexual dysfunctions (6,7%).

The development of communication strategy in online interactions: potentials for intercultural dialogue

Simultaneously, the themes dealt with by students from the fifteen schools in the anonymous interaction in the "Sexualities Sub-Forum", whose aim was to encourage student to debate ideas, receive help from a doctor or psychologist, solve doubts and give suggestions regarding the sexual health of youths are described in table 3.

Table 3: Students interaction in the Sexualities Sub-Forum

Theme	Number of messages	Number of answers
7th to 9th grades		
Sexual relationship: first sexual relationship, what it is like, how to have sex with pleasure	31	60
Dating: how to start dating, problems during dating	6	15
Contraceptive methods and how to use the condom	58	124
Homosexuality		
Total	13	28
10th to 12th grades		
Prevention of unwanted pregnancy: fertile period, contraceptive methods	7	19
Prevention of sexually transmitted infections	5	17
First sexual relationship	4	20
Oral sex	3	10
Problems during dating	3	9
Menstruation: hygiene, pre-menstrual trauma	2	3
Problems during friendship relationships	1	7
Anal sex	1	3
Orgasm	1	1
Masturbation	1	4
Sex and pleasure	1	8
Male sexual potency	42	129
Total		

The students from the secondary school levels (10th to 12th grades) practically only participated in the “Sexualities Sub-Forum”. During the group interviews, they explained that they only accessed it when they were concerned with personal problems and needed the doctors’ or the psychologist’s help. The students from preparatory and secondary levels found having a doctor and a psychologist online useful to clear their doubts. Nevertheless, the students from secondary school mentioned that what influenced them more regarding their personal choices was the doctor’s and the psychologist’s opinions, whereas most of the students from the preparatory school who were interviewed considered that for all of their doubts, except those concerning technical aspects regarding contraceptive methods, the opinions of friends were decisive in their choices.

In the sub-forum, “Youths in Action”, the aim was to encourage students to follow the publication of the projects from the several schools on this website and present their comments and ideas regarding the investigations, visions, actions and assessment of their projects put online by the students. The messages with a greater number of answers were related to the following themes: love and the deception of love (30,5%); AIDS and condoms (20,3%); students and parents (16,9%); puberty (10,7%); how to know when it is the right moment for the first sexual relationship

(7,9%); homosexual behaviour (6,2%); and sex in adolescence (3,4%). The students who participated more in this sub-forum thought that it was the most interesting one, because they could debate themes which they had already investigated and increase their knowledge.

The sub-forum “Observers’ Diary”, where students’ class diaries were elaborated on in all lessons by an observer of the class who was generally different from one activity to another, kept the same participation level throughout the whole project, with students sending material to publish online and carrying out their evaluation/assessment of the lessons and the Project. The number of messages sent by the schools was different but, fundamentally conditioned by the number of classes involved in each school. Almost all the messages sent had the material produced by the class attached. In this sub-forum, the number of visitors was very significant, which may reveal that the Observers’ Diaries sent were read by their colleagues from the same and/or other schools. This sub-forum was considered as one of the class activities necessary for the assessment and publication of the project.

Students’ visions for future cultural dialogue with other countries

The students thought creatively to find solutions in order to change their lifestyle and life conditions. They expressed the desire to increase their competences to talk with youths of other countries regarding sexual behaviour; sexual problems and ways to solve them (table 4).

Table 4: Students’ group visions for future intercultural dialogue (n= 25)

	f	%
Brazil	21	84,0
Spain	19	76,0
African countries	16	64,0
France	14	56,0
United Kingdom	13	52,5
Italy	10	40,0
Holland	10	40,0
The United States of America	9	36,0
Israel	8	32,0
Afghanistan	5	20,0

Students justified their options based on their facility to communicate through the same or similar language, such as in Brazilian, Spanish, Italian and some African countries where Portuguese is spoken, or based on their desire to know and understand many different sexual cultures (African, Israeli and Afghan) or more sexually liberal cultures, such as Brazilian, English, Dutch and American.

4. CONCLUSIONS

Most of the students considered that the acknowledgement of the projects by the several schools on the website was beneficial in two main aspects: it allowed them to analyse the continuity of the project and show not only their peers but also the local and national community, what people their age were capable of doing to improve living conditions and to contribute to sexual health promotion. Most of the students considered that even without the access to the sub-forums, the website had already educated people of their age because the projects reflected the doubts and concerns they felt and were common to most of the teens of their age. The effect of this website as an instrument of change at school and in the community was only valorised as a consequence of students' actions to maintain the sustainability of the project. According to their opinions, student influence regarding reality as part of the learning process was only achieved with their action experiences while the website was only considered a continuity of such actions.

The participation of students during the development of the action-oriented sex education project in the school, and specifically in the visions and action experience phases of the project, was considered by teachers and students as being crucial to the development of conscience regarding health problems, the possibilities of individual and collective actions to solve them and the social responsibility of contributing to their resolution. Similar results were reported by Jensen, Simovska (2005) and Egumenovska (2005).

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ICT-supported learning processes:
The potential role of ICT as a
learning-enhancing-artifact for secondary school pupils
(Preliminary report- Work in progress)

Gerd Wikan, Bjørn Faugli, Terje Mølster, Rafael Hope
Hedmark University College

Abstract

The main aim of this project is to examine if systematic use of ICT in classroom teaching can be used to support and enhance subject learning. The study takes place in a secondary school and is being conducted in partnership with the teachers. The focus is on the teachers' pedagogical use of the technology and not on the role of the technology per se. The aim is to better understand the complex interaction between teachers, pupils, technology and learning processes.

Thus, the objectives of the study are:

To work collaboratively with the teachers to explore ways of enhancing learning through systematic use of ICT

To enhance digital competence at the school both for the teachers and pupils

In this presentation I will focus on the pupils. I will present their views after the first year of systematic use of ICT in the classroom and also present some of their products. I must underline that this presentation is based on results after the first of three years of action, thus the results are very tentative and must be read with caution.

Introduction

During the past decade the educational systems in Norway, and many other countries, have experienced that efforts to integrate information and communication technology (ICT) into most aspects of school practice has received massive attention. The underlying motives for this focus on ICT applications in schools and colleges are three folded.

Firstly it is believed that ICT can contribute to a more rational organizing and running of educational institutions which is comparable with the motives of introducing ICT in most other enterprises. Secondly it is widely accepted that competence in handling ICT is a required and important asset of citizens in modern societies. Digital literacy is considered important and equaled to other more traditional competences such as reading, writing and mathematics. This view is clearly, among other places, reflected in the white paper *Report no. 30 to the Norwegian parliament (2003-2004), Culture for learning* which emphasizes that achieving digital literacy is a goal in itself and pupils in elementary and secondary schools should receive systematic training in use of ICT. Thirdly, the plans for introducing ICT in Norwegian schools is motivated by the assumption that active use of ICT is not only a goal in itself but a means for supporting pedagogical processes which will contribute to an enhancement of learning outcome in most subjects. The view that ICT is representing a very powerful tool for supporting learning is deeply rooted in many professional environments and cultures but most apparent in the informatics and computer science disciplines. In particular with the introduction of the internet in the 1990s the faith in modern technology, as a kind of miracle cure for the enhancement of learning, increased considerably.

However, despite all enthusiasts, the learning enhancing effects of ICT supported learning process on subject learning outcome is still not convincingly verified and reported. A common and frequently phrased explanation of the apparent failure to obtain more clearly and measurable positive effects of ICT supported learning is that the approach can be characterized as “technology driven” and resembles a “solution seeks problem” process. The development and implementation of ICT in learning situations has failed to involve appropriate changes in pedagogy, the organizing of learning process and the inclusion of the teachers and pupils as system users. This unbalanced approach to developing, implementation and use of ICT-based systems is paralleled to experience from traditional systems development during the past several

decades. Failure to involve and understand the users is believed to be a major explanation of the many unsuccessful ICT projects in the past. In view of the critics towards the unbalanced implementation and use of ICT supported learning systems and the large amount of resources used to promote the use of ICT in schools it is obviously of great importance gain more insight in and a better understanding of ICT supported learning process. In particular it is of paramount interest to investigate and examine the role of school teachers as both ICT-system users and mentors for pupils involved in ICT supported learning process. It is reason to believe that the teachers' role and their pedagogic practice are critical factors for successful use of ICT-supported learning processes. However, the pupils' use and view of ICT-supported learning processes is also of importance. Thus in our view, focus must be on a better understanding of the interaction between teachers, pupils and technology and how this can support learning processes.

The knowledge production perspective

The present project is conducting the task of implementing ICT supported learning with particular emphasis on applying methods based on the knowledge production perspective. Conducting learning processes in this perspective implies that learners are encouraged to pursue creative approaches to school work and actively apply digital media for constructing presentations and communicate their comprehended understanding and interpretation of subject issues and established subject knowledge. Based on previous and ongoing research there are clear evidences supporting the view that subject learning can be considerably enhanced by emphasizing the knowledge production perspective. It is also reason to assume that learners develop a higher level of digital literacy by being producers and not only consumers of digital media content. Being a knowledge producer implies that the learner is a producer on two levels: both as an active knowledge constructor according to constructivist theories and as a producer of digital representations of the knowledge. According to constructivist theories of learning knowledge is actively constructed through relating to others and acting in the world (Ackermann, 2004). Learning is an active and social process where the learner builds new knowledge based on previous knowledge in interaction with the environment. In relation to the production perspective Seymour Papert's notion of *constructionism* is highly relevant. Based on the work of Jean Piaget, John

Dewey and Maria Montessori he proposed a theory of constructionism stating that children learn best when they are in the active role of a designer or constructor (Idit Harel & Papert, 1991). Papert is particularly interested in how to use the computer as a knowledge mediating artifact: And also Barak argues that technology offers powerful tools for supporting these principals and points out that educators should see computer technologies as means of knowledge discovery and construction, rather than of knowledge transfer or its passive acceptance. The socio-cultural learning perspective is also highly relevant in relation to a knowledge production perspective. According to Roger Säljö learning to use cultural tools is essential in a socio-cultural understanding of learning (Saljø 1999). The notion cultural tool includes a wide range of artifacts and semiotic systems that we use to interact with society. In a digitalized knowledge society many of the cultural tools are digital, such as a word-processor, a video editing tool and interactive whiteboard.

Several aspects of the socio-cultural theories make it particularly relevant for the knowledge production perspective. First of all it emphasizes the active construction of knowledge as opposed to a more passive transmission of knowledge from teacher to learner. Secondly, learning is learning to do something with cultural tools.

Buckingham, 2006:

Also, results from several empirical studies make it reasonable to emphasize a production role for the learner. According to (Dons & Bakken, 2003) pupils attain improved subject knowledge when assigned to communicate their knowledge to fellow pupils by creating video or animation presentations. They argue that the learners are motivated to obtain a deeper understanding of subject matter when creating a digital multimodal presentation to be watched by fellow learners. In preparing a digital presentation the producer also have to consider the best ways to communicate using different semiotic resources (ref).

Many of the teachers concluded that ICT might be useful tool if the planning is good and the teachers is in control of the whole planning and implementations process (Ruthven et al 2005) . At the best ICT can according to this argument, play a part in mediating learning to reinforce existing teaching approaches (Goos et al 2003). To fully utilize the potentials of ICT, to change the way teacher and pupils interact, a more constructivist pedagogic approach is necessary. It is often claimed that teachers with a constructivist learning view will be more positive towards ICT in the classroom than those with a more teacher driven learning view (Windschilt & Sahl

2002, Webb & Cox 2004). Also Backer (1999) report from a comprehensive study in USA that the teachers' attitude to using internet in their classroom activity depends on what pedagogic paradigm they are in. It seems that we do not understand fully the link between the teachers' pedagogic view, their attitude towards use of ICT and the effects on pupils' attainment (Cox, Webb, Abbott, Blakeley, Beauchamp & Rhodes 2003).

Implicit in the knowledge production perspective is also a collaborative learning perspective and a knowledge *sharing* perspective in the sense that the learners produce knowledge artifacts for a greater audience, either classmates, the school community or the world. Production, collaboration and sharing can be considered as key factors in approaches to ICT based learning based on a knowledge production perspective.

Research design

The project was situated within an established partnership between the Hedmark University College a local secondary school and the local educational authorities. Developing the use of ICT to support subject teaching and learning as well as enhancing ICT competence had been identified as a priority in the participating school. The school culture was potentially more supportive towards ICT as a learning tool than average and the teacher participating were more than average enthusiastic. The main aim of the project was together with the teacher to investigate how ICT could support subject teaching and learning. Another aim of the project was to register and enhance the ICT competence of the pupils. The project invited the teachers to try out and reflect on the use of ICT in their daily work. A project team, including team leaders at the school and two researchers planned the concrete actions and it was of paramount importance that the action was integrated in the school curriculum and plans. In this context it is important to emphasize a difference between Norwegian secondary schools and secondary school in most other European countries. In Norway, even though the curriculum is subject-specific, as in other countries, teaching is normally organized cross-curricular. Therefore, the strong departmental focus influencing teachers and subject teaching is not relevant in

Norway. The teachers are organized in cross-curriculum teams and thus influence each other across subject traditions.

The action

During the early phases of the project a net-based questionnaire was used for registering the digital competence level among the involved secondary school pupils. The Photo Story software was introduced to the teachers early during the action, encouraging them to apply this as a presentation tool. The idea was that by using this digital tool it would stimulate subject learning as well as the development of digital competence. In addition training programs were conducted involving digital storytelling as a particular genre which implies collaborative activities as well as individual or group presentations. The teachers started out very enthusiastic but very shortly they became reluctant to the whole project and almost negative. We realized that the main problems was lack of own digital competence. We then had to start a series of unplanned upgrading courses in basic ICT skills like Windows office system and file handling in order to enhance the teachers' competence as well as confidence. Without the teachers being confident it would be impossible for them to integrate ICT in their daily practice and planning. Courses in internet ethics were also conducted.

Data gathering

The first phase of the research involved conducting individual interviews with all teachers. Later the focus group method was used monthly providing a cost-effective way of gathering information. In addition the method provides the researcher with an opportunity to explore different perspectives within a social network. An important consideration was the group composition and we choose the teacher team as a natural discussion unit. The teachers were organized in two inter subject teams. The qualitative data is based on a series of focus group interviews held with the team approximately once a month. Not all team teachers attended all sessions. Lasting about 1, 5 hours the sessions were facilitated by the project team. The main prompt requesting examples of ICT use which the participants felt had been successful in supporting teaching and learning. Typically, the teachers came up with different examples related to their own subject. The researcher asked what impact they thought ICT was having on teaching and learning in the subject in question. Between September 2007 and May 2008, two researchers conducted 20 individual teacher

interviews and 6 focus group interviews with the nine member large teacher team. In addition, all members of the teacher team and three members of the administration and teaching staff engaged in ICT, were encouraged to produce reflection notes, elaborating on particular experiences and their personal views on the integration of ICT in the teaching process which resulted in a large number of concentrated, brief textual reports. Informal discussions, reflection reports and group discussions with pupils were other sources of information in addition to observations.

Main outcomes and results

Approaching the task of describing teacher's attitudes and views in the present project is to a large degree inspired by investigations and examinations relatively recently conducted by other researchers in the same field. Observing and interviewing nine teachers and other members of the staff over a period of eight months, we gradually gained more and deeper insight in teacher attitudes at different stages in the process and thereby contour of changes taking place as articulated textual and orally by the involved teachers. As the retrieval of qualitative data progressed and the amount of data correspondingly increased it gradually became apparent that some themes and issues attracted more teacher interest than other themes. On this background in combination with the overall perspective of the main project; How should ICT be integrated in the subject learning processes to promote enhanced learning, we identified the following eight themes, constituting separate indicators contributing to describing an overall picture of the teacher attitudes on the potential role of ICT as a learning-enhancing-artifact.

- Teachers confidence in own ICT competence
- Organizational and technical constraints to implementing ICT supported learning
- Ease of access to information resources among the pupils
- Quality of the work processes and pupil motivation
- Quality of pupil presentations
- Pupils` understanding of subject issues
- Independence of pupil approach to school work
- Shift of teacher role from traditional teaching to supervision

It is however in this context important to emphasize that the theme categories are to a considerable degree interrelated and overlapping. This implies that discussions and references to teacher opinions related to each theme do not exclude that the arguments are relevant for one or more of the other themes.

Teachers confidence in own ICT competence
During the initial stages of the project the majority of the teachers consider themselves not to have the sufficient ICT competence required to function as mentors in ICT supported learning process. This even though quite a few of the teachers had shorter or longer formal ICT training. A common comment is that they find it difficult to find time to enhance their ICT competence.

“I am positive and not afraid of using ICT. I am always eager to learn something new and I find ICT important because we have a responsibility to give the pupils a varied approach to teaching and learning. I see potential in ICT for varying my teaching practice”.

Organizational and technical constraints to implementing ICT supported learning
The school is equipped with computer laboratory, 10 online computers in each learning arena and some laptops. There are options for using projectors in each learning arena. However, severe technical problems were put forward as one reason for not using ICT in teaching. Because they could not rely on the ICT system to work many teachers were reluctant to plan lessons with ICT. They felt that they always needed to have backup plans in case the ICT system did not work. The problems could be of both technical and organizational type. Typical statements are:

“Using ICT is increasing my workload because I always have a back-up plan due to the unstable ICT system at this school, in addition I spent much time finding relevant rooms “

“the LMS system It’s learning is supposed to provide the pupils with their personal digital portfolio, but when I tried to use this in the English subject we experienced problems because the pupils did not have user names or passwords”

It is important to emphasize that reports of technical problems seem to reach a peak after a couple of months, but during the later stages of the spring term the frequency of comments on mal functioning technology has decreased considerably.

Ease of access to information resources among the pupils

In principle all teachers see Internet access as a valuable support for teaching and learning. Ministry of Education and many publishers of school books have developed a number of subject relevant internet resources and some teachers use these linkages as support for the pupils' homework. In addition they let the pupils search and goggle on Internet during class and to support homework. Some teachers are very enthusiastic and see Internet useful for all subjects and especially in foreign language training and social science. A typical statement is “ *Internet is a good source of information in all subjects*”.

Some argue that for the cleverest pupils it works well as an extra source of information but for the weaker pupils it is often too tempting to go to non-school relevant pages and get occupied in football results and internet game instead.

“The best pupils are also better to utilize Internet as a source of information than weaker pupils. Those who are good writers and readers and good at using for instance library resources are also the best to work with computers. The weaker pupils avoid libraries and are very quick to start the computer, they however get little done. The Norwegian schools are World Champions on searching the Internet, but what do they get out of it in learning outcome is another question”

Some teachers are from the beginning skeptical to what is best use of time in order to reach subject attainments; reading textbooks, using the library or searching the Internet. Most teachers were very positive to use of Internet when the project started and one teacher even said that he knew that Internet and ICT could help him to changes his praxis from teacher controlled to learner centered and a more constructivist pedagogic style. ICT will also able the teachers to be more creative and plan and prepare better for classes according to many of the teachers. Later in the project period after getting more experience with Internet as a source of information and not at least more information of how pupils used the Internet the teachers became more reserved. They claimed that in order to be an efficient learning resource the use of Internet must be planned and controlled by the teacher.

“The teacher must be the one planning and deciding how, where and when the pupils shall use Internet. It is not the pupil who shall be responsible for finding learning resources not event at the Internet, it must be the teacher. It is meaningless for instance that a project period start out with internet search”

This quotation is covering how most teachers at present look at Internet. They say it is useful but only if the teacher in forehand has planned for how to use it, that means for instance looking up relevant URL addresses and good search words. This is however a time consuming process for the teacher. The conclusion that effective use of internet search means that the teacher has to prepare and control is also noticed in other studies (Ruthven, Hennessey, Deans, 2005).

Quality of the work processes and pupil motivation

Most teachers started out with a positive attitude and meant that Photo Story had potential to improve both the working process because it would be motivating for pupils to work digital as well as improving the product. One advantage of Photo Story is that it is so easy and motivating for them to work with combinations of recording speech, music and pictures. Only one teacher was negative and said that this was a top-down project staged by the Head Master and her team. All teacher saw a challenge in evaluation of the work process as well as the product. The teachers commented that the presentations tool Photo Story made the pupils to work harder and more concentrated. This was confirmed by interviews with the pupils, they said that they had to work more with a lesson because it was time consuming to extract for instance what was relevant information to include in a presentation. In additions they spent much time finding music and good pictures.

The main argument for using ICT to improve the work processes is that the pupils experience that it is more motivating to work digital. They listen better when the teacher is using ICT in the introduction; they are willing to spend more hours on reading on the Internet than in a text book and they are willing to spend more hours on putting together a digital presentation than a written or oral presentation. Thus it simulates many phases in the learning and rehearsing process. Especially motivating will this be for the less school motivated and less clever pupils.

“We have many pupils that never would read books, but read on computer pages... Some pupils have never delivered a presentation before but now they have made a Photo Story. In English I can see that the pupils are more motivated to work harder..they learn a lot when they use Internet... I have seen that pupils who do not like to write now have managed to do their lessons and the clever pupils become even better..

“I think the pupils found it great fun to work with Photo Story...It was not at all a problem to motivate them to work.. they did not find program difficult this show how good they are with computer...the problem are us teachers we are less clever and more critical to use of ICT...My pupils were very enthusiastic and even the weaker pupils worked hard and relevant if they got some help to find good sources on the net ..by using ICT systems the interest and motivation for my subject has increased”

Quality of pupil presentations

Presenting products as a result of homework or on-school projects is perhaps, literally speaking, the most visible and conceivable applications of ICT in pupil learning process and thus a theme most teachers could phrase opinions about. With a few exemptions the teachers clearly expressed a positive attitude and expectations to the possibility of the ICT tools for improving the presentation of pupil produced work. The comments were related to both the effects on pupil motivation and the learning process.

”for most of us it is inspiring to use computers when we are working. Being able to present neat products with high esthetical quality (text and pictures) is a source of inspiration and this stimulates efforts and motivation to proceed with and complete work in progress”

The effect of visualization was expected to both improve the individual pupil learning processes by providing feedback from the produced material as the work progressed and in particular the possibilities offered by the ICT-tool to easily and continuously editing and improving products during the work process. The positive attitudes were apparent with respect to most of the ICT-tools but in particular Digital storytelling, using Photo story, was used to exemplify the expected positive effects.

“by using Word, Excel, Power Point and Digital storytelling in science subjects the pupil can more easily visualize their knowledge for themselves and for the teacher. One advantage of this is that it makes it possible to easily edit the material during the work process”

Regarding advantages of ICT based presentations several teachers pointed out that especially for the less confident and shy pupils the possibility of being able to prepare a presentation at home, using for example Photo story, represented a considerable improvement. These pupils could then run a successful presentation by pressing a button and thus avoiding the unpleasant experience of full exposure in a live setting.

These conclusions are supported by Deany, Ruthveen and Hennessey (2006). They also find that pupils put in more work and that the quality increases when ICT is used for presentations.

Pupils' understanding of subject issues

When commenting on the teacher's attitudes with respect to possible positive effects on pupil understanding of subject issues we will first present their attitudes prior to our action and then their attitudes at the end of the first year of the project. It is particularly important to emphasize that this is largely a matter of what they believed and not based on results from exams or formal tests of pupils. Teacher attitudes seem to vary and be strongly related to teacher personality, teacher ICT competence and subject issue..

“last year the 9th graders were introduced to the use of spreadsheets (Excel) and this has been extended during the spring term to include exam problems in maths requiring the use of spread sheets. I consider this to be a useful tool for learning in maths in particular with themes like statistics, production of graphs and diagrams, probability calculations, measurements (in science), calculations, economy etc

Whilst other teachers, also highly ICT competent, indicated a very different view, representing the opposite end of the positive/negative attitude dimension by clearly expressing that they believed little could be gained by using ICT for supporting learning in maths.

“so far I have not used ICT in maths. I don't see how this can be beneficial”

And

“I definitely don't think the use of ICT will result in gained insight in subject problem areas”

Having quoted both the extreme optimistic and the extreme pessimistic or negative attitudes expressed by the teachers involved in the action research process it is reasonable to state that; the prevailing teacher attitude on integrating ICT in learning processes in order to achieve enhanced understanding of subject issues, can generally be characterized as reasonably sober. Most of the teachers involved seem to approach the question of cons and pros by integrating ICT in learning process with a slightly hesitant or “wait and see” perspective. However, all the participating teachers are conscious of the expectations the national educational authorities have with respect to the benefits of integrating ICT in learning processes and teachers are continually

making considerably effort to find out or “crack the code” of how to utilize ICT when performing their ordinary teaching jobs. In the view of this, the following quotes from teachers involved should probably be interpreted as reflecting a more optimistic attitude than what is really the case.

“to some extent the use of ICT can improve the pupil understanding of the subject, but this presupposes/assumes that the teacher in advance has guided the pupil through the material”

A frequently returning comment from teachers is related to the question of whether ICT-based tools and systems represent and make room for new pedagogical methodologies or merely is a support-tool for making traditional teaching more efficient. Teachers made many enthusiastic comments about the use of for example PhotoStory but had doubts whether it could contribute to a more paradigm related change in teaching methodologies. Attempting to extract what could resemble a kind of common denominator, characterizing teacher attitudes with respect to ICT integration in learning processes for enhanced understanding of subject issues is not a trivial accomplishment. But throughout the contact with the teacher team during the past eight months it is justifiable to claim that all teachers seem to agree that integrating ICT in learning situations in secondary school is clearly beneficial for the less able pupils. Pupils who normally are reluctant to engage themselves in any kind of learning activity seem to frequently, but perhaps involuntary, be involved in learning promoting activities when ICT is involved. The majority of the teachers involved expressed positive attitudes when asked to elaborate on the potential ICT has for enhancing learning. A frequently used phrase was “Yes, I believe ICT has a considerable potential for achieving more efficient learning processes and enhanced learning outcome”. However faced with the question of whether this potential was properly utilized and if any enhancement of learning outcome could be documented by higher grades, all but one/two teachers said that they were unable to present proofs in the form of higher grades. The teacher claiming that progress could be documented by slightly higher grades was however carefully emphasizing that the changes were only marginal and only related to the less able pupils.

Independence of pupil approach to school work

The question of independent pupil approach to schoolwork is strongly interrelated to and can not be clearly separated from motivation. To the extent the introduction of ICT in school processes leads to higher motivation it also leads to more autonomous pupil teams and hence more independent approach to school work. But as opposed to the general teacher comment that the less able pupils seem to benefit most from ICT use the teachers seem to believe that when it comes to the degree of independence of pupil approach it will be advantageous for the more able pupils. However the less able pupils are also believed to benefit if not to the same extent as the most able pupils. This is the same as found in a British study. It was difficult for the weaker pupils to stay concentrated on the task (Ruthveen, Hennessey and Deany, 2005).

“Yes to a certain degree, especially with the more able pupils. The less able pupils in my class have also shown an increased interest for the various themes and problems we have worked on in natural science when they have been allowed to process their knowledge by employing ICT and making use of their ICT competence”.

“when the school work is becoming more motivating, the pupils will be more independent, work harder and not requiring the teacher for pushing the work process. School work is frequently completed in a shorter time. But the pupils need never the less supervision and traditional learning”.

Shift of teacher role from traditional teaching to supervision

Since the first early approaches to introducing ICT-supported learning in schools, a couple of decades ago, it has been forecasted that the educational systems soon will experience a shift of paradigm from traditional “knowledge pushing” teaching to more supervision based, constructivist learning processes. It was believed that with the introduction of ICT supported learning processes the traditional teacher’s days were over and she could step aside and concentrate on giving wise and relevant comments to highly motivated pupils involved in more or less self sustainable learning processes. Observation of teachers at work in classrooms and particularly when meeting individual teachers in more informal communication settings confirm that the early forecasts of paradigm shifts is far from coming true and must perhaps regarded as an utopia, at least for a long time. A quote from one of teacher can probably be used as a representative comment for all the teachers involved.

“as a maths teacher I don’t think the teacher role is changed by the introduction of ICT. An initial introduction to theory, followed up by problem solving is the receipt in maths. Supervision remains the same, also when engaged in work tasks were a computer is involved. I believe this is the case for all subjects”

Discussion

The results of the examination support findings from other recently conducted research activities in the same field, indicating that the way teachers are adapting to the role as mentors for ICT-supported learning process have the characteristics of an evolutionary process. The observations revealed an uneven and cumbersome maturing process, metaphorically resembling a rollercoaster ride. Initially the teachers were largely positive to the use of ICT for teaching support, but the explanation of this phenomenon is most likely that this was considered a “politically correct” attitude at the time. As the project progressed, the level of teacher frustrations fluctuated, but signs of a breakthrough or turning point could be observed when the teachers’ insight and comprehension of the potential of ICT as a learning-enhancing-artifact was enhanced. The teachers gradually developed a more conscious relation to the issue of combining ICT supported learning and alternative pedagogical approaches. In particular, our investigation indicates that conducting learning process by applying ICT in a knowledge production perspective will contribute considerably to the utilization of ICT as a learning-enhancing-artifact. Attempting to implement ICT supported learning process, with the objective of enhancing subject learning outcome but disregarding the necessity of a careful integration of pedagogy and technology has also been criticized in other recently published research reports. (Passey, 2006, Watson 2001, Cordon et al 2007). Insufficient integration of pedagogy and ICT is claimed to be one of the main factors, explaining the failures of achieving enhanced subject learning outcome as a result of ICT supported learning processes. Throughout the school systems, ICT is commonly used for enhancing motivation among learners but rarely used for achieving internalization of new knowledge. According to Passey (2006) long term positive effects on learning outcome can not be expected unless ICT is actively used for stimulating the learner’s internal learning processes. Using ICT for presenting results of pupils’ schoolwork seems to contribute to the enhancement of

learning outcome among learners. Evidence from a number of research investigations indicates that subject attainment depend on the teacher's ability to identify suitable affordances and consciously planning for pupil learning with ICT as well as providing appropriate support during lessons. By approaching ICT supported learning in a knowledge production perspective, the present project place a main emphasis on ensuring that the teachers plan and implement learning processes in a way which stimulate knowledge production. During the first part of the project we gained insight in the teachers' situation and have recognized that the teachers' lack of general ICT competence and in particular experience with applying the production perspective made it difficult to utilize the full learning potential of ICT. With teachers more conscious on using ICT to stimulate the learner's internal cognitive processes we expect that they gradually will experience that ICT has an unexplored potential for enhancing subject learning. Insufficient ICT competence among the participating teachers has considerably hampered the utilization of the ICT's learning potential necessitating more intense teacher training. In correspondence with results from other research projects (Webb & Cox 2004, Watson (1993) we found that the teachers needed a deeper understanding of the nature of ICT resources in general and in particular on the use of internet based resources. At the present stage of the research project we conclude that a significant explanation of the teachers' seemingly lack of enthusiasm for integrating ICT into classroom teaching activities is that the role of ICT is still narrowly regarded as a simple technological tool and not as an artifact in a broader sense. Bringing about a change with respect to the role of ICT may, to a considerable degree, change the way schools and classroom learning operate as well as the role of teachers and pupils. The action part of the project will be terminated by the end of the spring term in 2009. At that stage, more extensive data material from the monitoring of pupil performance and approaches to school work will be available, allowing an expanded version of the present paper based on a more comprehensive analysis.

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