TEACHER EDUCATORS and TEACHERS as LEARNERS

INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVES

EDITED BY

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SECTION TWO: TEACHERS AS LEARNERS

INTRODUCTION

In this book we argue that teacher education has a complex and layered pedagogy. By claiming a 'layered' pedagogy for teacher education we mean that primarily the learning of children and young people is at the heart of all teacher education but with layers above that level, for example on the learning of teachers and on the learning of teacher educators. When a teacher educator is facilitating a formal session with student teachers they are concerned with the progress and well-being of their student teacher learners, but they also have in mind the learning of the current and future pupils of the student teachers. This layering is a key driver for many teacher educators: they reflectively consider, am I actively supporting my student teachers so that they will become effective teachers and, in turn, give their pupils every chance to learn and to develop as learners?

Learning teaching is a complex, relational and cognitive process, and teacher education programmes usually combine more formal taught sessions with less formal but supported workplace learning activity. For example on a typical teacher education programme a student teacher might attend workshops and lectures in a university and combine this with periods of teaching in a local school, in this case supported by a mentor from amongst the teaching staff. This workplace learning takes place in schools that face considerable pressures with high levels of accountability, for example including measurement of educational effectiveness based on test results. However, the university is also a workplace that is characterised by high levels of accountability based on results, evaluative student feedback, research audit and measures related to external funding income. Therefore in both of their sites of learning the student teacher experiences the influence of the Neoliberal agenda. The 'teacher educator learning' section and the 'teacher

learning' sections of this text include chapters that particularly focus on this characteristic of contemporary educational workplace settings.

The chapters presented within this text are focused on the professional learning of teacher educators and of teachers, and are located within the professional field of 'Teaching'. Within traditional subject discipline classifications this is a 'soft' and 'applied' field with a 'low paradigm consensus' (Biglan, 1973; Smart & Elton, 1982; Becher, 1989). By 'low paradigm consensus' we mean that multiple theoretical perspectives may be considered valid within the field, even when studying a particular issue arising within a particular teaching situation in a single classroom. It is helpful to consider the field of Teaching in relation to the different voices and perspectives of stakeholders within it, for example the voices of teachers themselves and of professors in Education. In evaluating the nature of different subject disciplines Basil Bernstein developed some useful thinking about vertical and horizontal discourse. Vertical discourse is coherent, explicit and hierarchically organised whilst horizontal discourse is local, context dependent and segmented (Bernstein, 1999, p. 159). From this perspective a field such as Teaching is seen as having 'weak grammar' related to the multiple paradigms that are acceptable within the field compared, for example, to a more straightforward single paradigm subject such as a natural science. Within the professional field of Teaching, professional learning is a contested area, not least because of the different value placed on different types of knowledge. University based teacher educators, academics, might favour critical thinking, learning theory and educational research evidence whereas their student teachers, and perhaps teachers in schools, may place more value on practical wisdom, ways of working in their specific schools (Joram, 2007). Many teachers may find 'research' abstract and inaccessible (Gore & Gitlin, 2004) although teachers who have completed a Masters award may adopt a more questioning approach to practical wisdom (Turner & Simon, 2013).

To capture the human experience of learning, metaphors provide an important linguistic device (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). Within the field of Teaching the metaphor of a 'gap' between theory and practice is widely used and has become paradigmatic. The gap metaphor is used to explain the value placed on different kinds of knowledge by professors and school teachers working within the field. However, metaphors may be misleading (Hager, 2008) and one problem with the 'gap' is that it wrongly assumes theory and practice are two distinct bodies of knowledge. An alternative metaphor, based

on a situated learning perspective, considers teacher learning as 'interplay' between vertical, published, hierarchically structured 'public knowledge' and the mediated, situated, social, and dynamic 'practical wisdom' of teachers (Boyd & Bloxham, 2014). This 'interplay' metaphor is presented graphically in figure 1. The vertical and horizontal domains are not seen as separate bodies of knowledge but merely as different domains that foreground different ways of teacher knowing.
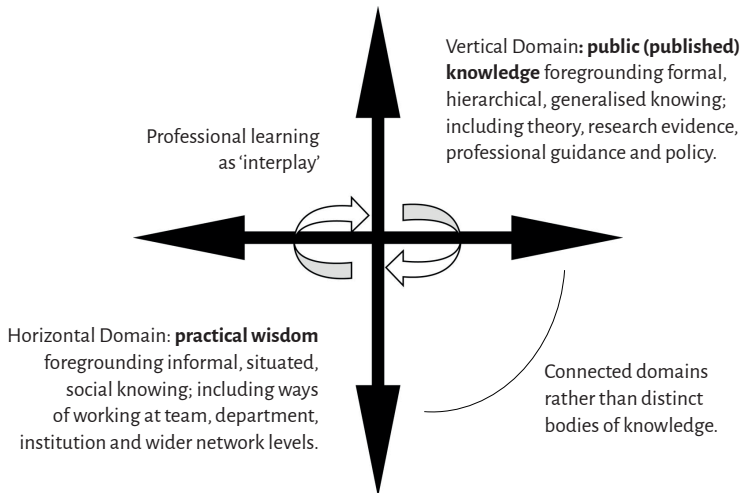
Figure 1. Learning of teachers as 'interplay' between practical wisdom and public knowledge (Boyd & Bloxham, 2014; Boyd, 2014)

The chapters of this book address teacher educator and teacher learning and approach this from a range of perspectives. The chapters themselves, as knowledge based artefacts within the field, demonstrate the different value placed on public knowledge and practical wisdom by their authors. Within each chapter the teacher educators and teachers experience the field of teaching from positions within their different educational settings.

We have considered professional learning within the field of Teaching and identified its complex and layered nature, the Neoliberal context in which it is positioned, the tensions around the value placed on different kinds of

knowledge and the metaphor for teacher learning as 'interplay' between public knowledge and practical wisdom. Together these elements provide a useful perspective from which to consider the chapters that follow. Each chapter will now be briefly introduced.

Teacher Educator Learning

In chapter one Hugh Smith uses the history of teacher education in Scotland to argue that the integration of teacher education into mainstream higher education, by merging teacher training colleges with Universities, offers hope for development of school teaching as a profession and of teacher knowledge as going beyond practical wisdom. This is perhaps an optimistic view, suggesting that such a structural change does sometimes lead to valuable educational change, but it reminds us, in relation to our own identity as teacher educators and that of our student teachers, of the significance of educational workplace cultures and their potential impact on pedagogy. The evidence tells us that teacher educators based in higher education face significant challenges in developing their work and identity (Boyd & Harris, 2010; Swennen, Jones & Volman, 2010) and so we must assume that whilst making a key step on their journey, Scotland's teacher educators have not yet reached some kind of paradise. There are tensions within our workplaces around the value of different types of knowledge and work, for example between research activity and teaching, and this experience is shared with other professional educators based in higher education (Boyd & Smith, 2014).

Teacher educators based in schools face comparable challenges within their workplace (White 2012; Boyd & Tibke, 2012). As teacher educators based in schools and in universities we would benefit from explicit work on our professional identities and need to be proactive in shaping our workplace environment to make it more expansive (Hodkinson & Hodkinson, 2005). Hugh Smith argues that teacher educators will thrive in university workplaces not least because of their greater engagement with public (published) knowledge in such a workplace. But reflecting on this chapter also stimulates us to consider the layered nature of teacher education and to consider our student teachers and their pupils. The most important message seems to be that we need to prepare and support our student teachers as they too move into new workplaces. The schools and other educational settings that they enter will ideally provide expansive workplace environments (Hodkinson

& Hodkinson, 2005) that will proactively support their professional growth. But in the real world we know that many student teachers, in their programme work experiences and in their first posts as teachers, will experience workplaces that are far from ideal. We need to equip these beginning teachers with ways of being and knowing that will help them to be agentic and start to shape those workplaces even from their position of peripheral membership.

In chapter two Zuzanna Zbróg considers the impact of Neoliberalism on higher education and how it has influenced the work and identity of higher education academics as teachers. Zuzanna argues that there is a potential conspiracy between academics and students in a higher education system that has experienced massification alongside increasing accountability, so that gaining a degree certificate becomes a shared strategic aim rather than the more idealistic ambition for critical engagement with the subject discipline. She highlights the high expectations placed on academics by their employers for publication of research and points to the tension this causes in relation to their considerable teaching responsibilities. Zuzanna particularly explains the difficult current situation in Poland and the impact this has on academics and by extension also on their students. She sets out some reflective learning strategies by which teachers working in higher education might mediate the worst consequences of their workplace context. These strategies including elements of self-study and identity-building and although proposed for teacher educators working in higher education they could equally be amended to suit student teachers and school-based practitioners. These strategies are intended to help teacher educators to survive the inherent pressures and tensions in their workplaces and roles. This chapter presents a call for agency from teachers at all levels of the educational system, asking them to take charge of their own professional work and identity even within challenging workplace settings. It offers some tools that may be useful in such a project.

In chapter three Pete Boyd examines the place of 'modelling' in the pedagogy of teacher educators. Drawing on the literature he summarises and applies an analytical framework for modelling to interview data from a case study of teacher educators in England. He argues that 'congruent teaching' is insufficient (using learning activities that might be reconstructed by the student teachers in their own classroom) and that teacher educators should develop their use of 'explicit modelling' (stepping out of sessions and reflecting 'out loud' on your pedagogy as a teacher educator). A considerable challenge to this use of explicit modelling is that it requires vulnerability

by the teacher educator. This kind of vulnerability, created because explicit modelling requires open and honest self-assessment of practice, may not be feasible in teacher education workplaces dominated by performativity. Boyd speculates that modelling might help to 'glue' the layers of teacher education together, that by being explicit the modelling may help student teachers make sense of their learning experience. In relation to the layered pedagogy of teacher education, he considers that if the language and process of explicit modelling is made clear within a programme then student teachers may in turn, for the benefit of their pupils, be more able to model how to be a 'learner' within their own classrooms.

In chapter four Susana Gonçalves, Dina Soeiro and Sofia Silva provide insight into teacher education programmes and activities for higher education lecturers in Portugal. In this context the idea that an academic should develop their knowledge and skills in the pedagogy of their subject discipline is quite new. Using a case study of developments at the University of Coimbra the authors present a rationale and evaluation of their developing pedagogy as academic developers and teacher educators. This kind of teacher education for higher education lecturers has become very common in some European countries but is at different stages of development at national and institutional levels. In terms of its place in different subject disciplines many teacher educators, those who are appointed to academic posts following an initial career teaching in schools, may feel rather resistant if they are required to complete a training programme on how to teach! However, as the authors of this chapter point out, teaching in higher education is about facilitating adult education and it has its own literature, research evidence base, language and set of approaches. The authors of this chapter argue for a collaborative enquiry-based pedagogy for teacher education in higher education and they argue for development of close links between research and teaching. In this chapter we gain insight into development of formal teacher education within a context where it is new and has no history, where previously academics would simply learn to teach by teaching.

In chapter five Deniz Kurtoğlu Eken uses analysis of 'student' voice to help evaluate a Turkish teacher education programme aimed at developing English Language teacher educators. In this case the 'students' on the programme are actually teacher educators who will return to their different workplaces and continue to educate teachers of English Language. In this sense the programme is an element of academic development aimed spe-

cifically at teacher educators. The distinctive features of the programme are considered and the generally successful outcomes are described. The chapter also analyses evaluative feedback gathered from programme participants several months after completion of the two week intensive programme. Core principles of the programme include collaborative working, a reflective approach, micro-teaching and an element of modelling as 'loop input'. A principle of 'recycling' is used to construct the programme so that issues are raised and then returned to at a later stage of the programme, but perhaps coming from a different perspective or using an alternative activity. The design of this 'teacher educator education programme' is informed by theoretical frameworks and research evidence and provides a useful source of ideas for other teacher educators. It provides an exemplar for academic developers in terms of designing short course provision tailored to lecturers in a particular subject discipline or professional field.

Teacher Learning

In chapter six Béatrice Boufoy-Bastick focuses on construction of identity by teachers in response to Neoliberal agendas that appear to be dominating the review of teacher education programmes and undermining school teacher professionalism and autonomy. Using identity construction as a unifying theme Béatrice presents a Culturometric analysis and calls for increased focus on identity construction in teacher education programmes and the development of resistance to performativity agendas by teachers and teacher educators. This call for resistance has resonance with the conception of Judith Sachs of the 'activist' teacher (Sachs, 2003). In relation to teacher educators based in the university then research is an area of work and identity in which they might express their resistance (Henkel, 2000). This possibility is perhaps constrained for some teacher educators who have moved into higher education from school teaching roles and find it difficult to develop research work and researcher identity (Boyd & Harris, 2010). Compared to university based teacher educators, those based in schools seem far less likely to be able to maintain a scholarly or research element to their work and identity.

In chapter seven Harri Kukkonen uses and develops positioning theory to understand teachers' perspectives on curriculum development. He argues for two positions, curriculum as 'a given manual' and curriculum as 'constructed in action'. His theoretical framework offers a language and concepts by which

we might be able to reconsider curriculum development in an era of high accountability and measurement of educational outcomes relying heavily on pupil test results. A key concept introduced is 'currere' which reconceptualises curriculum away from definition by learning outcomes and towards an understanding of curriculum as a dynamic and personalised interaction and mobilization for action within a social and situated learning environment. Using empirical data, Harri analyses the views of higher education students and tutors and uses the concept of 'currere' to understand conceptions of the curriculum as individualised and developed through social practices. Overall the chapter presents an argument for building connections between individual lives and the curriculum in order to engage and motivate learners. The framework and language developed in the chapter clearly have potential uses for teachers at all age phases and in a wide range of educational settings. Harri aims to support the possibility of teachers adopting a more expansive approach to education with a wider purpose than improving test results.

In chapter eight Meral Güçeri focuses on the effectiveness of continuing professional development for teachers by evaluating the impact of a Turkish programme for English Language teachers. The study shows on the one hand that even a one-shot in-service teacher education course may contribute to developing teachers as change agents by raising teacher awareness on their subject knowledge and role. On the other hand it shows that the ability for teachers to practice leadership and to take on a change agent role very much depends on their school's workplace culture. This chapter provides a key challenge for teacher education because it reminds us that our student teachers will often be boundary-crossing between the higher education programme and their real world workplaces in education settings such as schools. The different languages, values and day-to-day priorities within these two settings may be confusing and appear contradictory to student teachers. The chapter provides some insight into the challenges for teacher education around preparation and support of new teachers for the work-based element of becoming a teacher.

In chapter nine Piotr Zbróg sets out a teacher researcher study based in Poland that evaluates 'frontloading' – which is a teaching strategy for developing reading comprehension skills. The chapter argues that involving teachers in enquiry-based evaluation of teaching techniques is a powerful form of professional learning and encourages a questioning and reflective approach to practice. In this chapter Piotr argues for the need for teachers to

contribute to the research evidence base and be involved in co-construction of knowledge in the professional field. He acknowledges the danger that with high levels of accountability in schools then teacher researchers may feel constrained in their research to merely evaluate classroom techniques rather than questioning the educational provision in their school (Kemmis, 2006). The chapter raises the issue of teacher practitioner research and its place in initial teacher education programmes and in continuing professional development for teachers.

In chapter ten Rebecca Miles, Amy Cutter-Mackenzie, and Linda Harrison use Australian teachers' biographical narratives around environmental issues and education to explore how personal histories and motivations of teachers influence curriculum. They show that teacher biographies are powerful drivers of curriculum focus and this situation creates considerable potential but also challenges for national school systems in ensuring that all children engage with key environmental issues. For teacher education there are considerable challenges around the priorities for developing student teacher knowledge: of pedagogy; of curriculum content; of school systems; and of individual teacher identities. It is not feasible to develop all of the 'knowing' required by a teacher into a relatively short teacher education programme. This means that teacher education needs to be seen as a lifelong learning journey and schools need to support continued learning for their teachers. In the best schools and classrooms all of the participants, including the adults, are learning. Teacher educators need to be involved in the development of such workplace learning environments.

In chapter eleven Agnieszka Szplit uses a study of teachers of English working in Poland to consider the concept of the 'effective teacher'. The role of competences or standards in teacher education is critically considered and its influence on teacher education programmes and assessment of effective teaching is questioned. The research shows how teachers' pedagogy is influenced by their teacher education programmes and in part by the agreed set of competences that shape that provision. However the analysis goes on to show that teachers actually develop a more personalised repertoire of teaching strategies through informal workplace learning that is strongly influenced by their work context. The implications of this paper for teacher education include the need to more fully understand workplace learning by teachers and to consider how effectively new teachers are prepared for this process of learning.

In chapter twelve, providing an example of research by a teacher educator, Naomi Flynn analyses cultural educational links between European nations by focusing on the migration of Polish families to England. Based on analysis of teacher interview data she argues that teachers in England may develop a 'rose-tinted' perspective of Polish parents and children. This appears to risk overlooking the needs of these potentially anxious learners who are learning in a second language and are working to make sense of a different culture. By including interviews with Polish teachers working in an area of Poland that has experienced migration to England, Naomi reveals alternative perspectives and the dangers of stereotyping Polish children. It highlights the role of schools, teachers and teacher educators in cultural and economic development and signals the need for teachers to develop knowledge of the wider community, policy and social context in which they work. The implications of this study for teacher education include the need to consider how well our programmes prepare new teachers to analyse the wider social, economic and political context in which they will work, including the local community and the wider society.

Summary

The professional field of Teaching has a complex and layered nature. It is currently positioned within and strongly influenced by a Neoliberal context. There is considerable tension around teacher educator and teacher professional learning, and it can usefully be considered as 'interplay' between public knowledge and practical wisdom. We hope our book will provide some answers for the challenging questions around teacher educator and teacher learning. At least we anticipate that it will provoke debate and encourage teacher educators and teachers to research and publish in this area.

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SECTION ONE:

| TEACHER EDUCATORS AS LEARNERS

CHAPTER 1

Teacher Education in Scotland: The Challenges Facing Teachers and Teacher Educators within a Rapidly Changing Education Landscape

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Abstract

In Scotland, teacher training provision moved from specialist Colleges of Education to Faculties or Schools of Education within Universities. This has been acknowledged as a positive move in supporting the professional learning of teachers and aspiring teachers. There are a number of perceived challenges and tensions of such a move, particularly at time of rapid change within the wider Scottish Education system. This chapter touches upon these changes and examines the development of undergraduate and postgraduate initial teacher education within the changing policy framework that includes an enhanced approach to curriculum delivery, new requirements for teacher education and new professional standards for teachers.

Key words: Professional Standards; Review of Teacher Education; Curriculum for Excellence; Teacher and Teacher Educator Identity; Education Reform; Scottish Education

The Move of Teacher Education to Universities

In Scotland the training of teachers was consolidated through Colleges of Education during the 1960s. These 'teacher training' colleges added to a list of existing institutions supporting subject areas such as Art, Domestic Science, Drama, Music and Technical Education. Teaching Diploma courses at Colleges of Education lasted three years and for those aspiring to become teachers after concluding an honours degree from a university, postgraduate teacher training lasted one year. At that time, ten central institutions provided teacher training but this was reduced to five during the 1980s.

Colleges of Education provided initial teacher training and in-service training for the Scottish teaching workforce, but were not part of the Higher Education Funding System. It was during the 1990s that central institutions responsible for teacher training changed from diplomas and certificates towards university degrees and awards validated by the Council for National Academic Awards or accredited by an existing University. In addition, the University of Stirling was granted initial teacher training status with concurrent degrees accredited by the General Teaching Council for Scotland. This was the beginning of a shift away from initial teacher training towards initial teacher education and the establishment of an all degree teaching profession.

The 1990s was a period of considerable change for Higher Education and Teacher Education in Scotland, including the formation of the Scottish Higher Education Funding Council. The writing of Caldwell (2008) outlines the most significant changes and the underpinning philosophy, whilst Humes and Bryce (2008) relate these changes to the distinctive context of the Scottish education system. A key change, particularly relevant to the argument presented in this chapter, was the geographical merger of Colleges of Education with Scottish Universities so that undergraduate and postgraduate teacher education programmes and awards were now validated and awarded by these universities. At the time of writing a total of nine universities within Scotland provide initial teacher education.

College Lecturer to University Lecturer

Scottish Colleges of Education had recruited college lecturers from the school sector as outstanding practitioners in their field of teaching, or as experienced supervisors of student teachers. It could be argued that these college lecturers generally continued the practice they had experienced during their own teacher training (with perhaps some innovative attributes) and for some time initial teacher training did not develop in any holistic way. There was a response to changes in learning and teaching methodologies or programmes (e.g. phonics, reading and numeracy schemes, along with course content updates linked to external examinations at secondary school level). The Scottish Education Department undertook, over time, a range of reviews and published findings and recommendations in a series of "Memoranda", "Curriculum Papers" and "Reports". More importantly to note was that these reviews and findings had no significant immediate

impact on initial teacher training and subsequently initial teacher education. Historically, current developments in Scottish Education owe much to the content of these early writings.

There was, however, a move by Colleges of Education to provide enhanced skill development in the form of continuing professional development (CPD) for teachers. Most CPD at the time might only be classified as 'showman pedagogy' and bore no real relation to the underpinning professional learning needs of classroom practitioners. A small but growing number of teacher training lecturers were exploring interest in pedagogical content knowledge and specifically the work of Shulman (1986) in which curriculum subjects may be represented and formulated to make them comprehensible to both teachers and student teachers. Shulman's work categorises teacher knowledge as content knowledge (the structure and organisation of subject matter); pedagogical content knowledge (the sequencing of subject matter knowledge for teaching and how to represent this for learners); and curricular knowledge (the variety of topics and subjects supported by sequential instructional materials).

There was no requirement or expectation on lecturers involved in teacher training to engage with research activities in addition to teaching trainees and providing continuing professional development courses for teachers. Some school classroom based research existed and a growing number of teacher training lecturers did engage with this activity in partnership with school practitioners. The transition from teaching diplomas to teacher education degrees impacted on the changing role of teacher training lecturers as they moved towards teacher education. Some embraced the challenges as a range of professional support evolved over the years, whilst others resisted and continued to model their own teacher training practices.

Tensions in Teacher Educator Identities

The move of initial teacher education, as well as continuing professional development courses for teachers, from Colleges to Universities, created considerable tension within the evolving role of Teacher Educator. Some universities responded by creating a two-tier staff contract system. In these institutions Teacher Educators who do not engage with research related activities are appointed as University Teachers, whilst others who do engage with research are appointed as University Lecturers. Meanwhile, some uni-

versities, maintain a single tier staff appointment contract system, so that all appointments are as University Lecturer with an expectation for research activity and publication.

It is important to note that the definition of research relates to published peer reviewed papers and articles in respected academic journals and also in relation to the formal system of research audit across UK higher education institutions (currently referred to as the Research Excellence Framework or REF). Both University Teachers and University Lecturers who are Teacher Educators may often engage in research related activities, but these may not include publications in prestigious international peer reviewed research journals and may not contribute to research that will be recognised within research audit as high quality. Some teacher educators may therefore be engaging with research that does not score well within the official research audit system. This research may be practitioner research focused on teacher education itself or in collaboration with school teachers on aspects of learning, teaching and assessment in classrooms and schools.

It is widely acknowledged that underpinning research in relation to pedagogy provides a quality learning experience for those engaged with initial teacher education and for the continuing professional learning of early and established career teachers. Universities with teacher education within their portfolio also engage with a range of postgraduate professional learning opportunities – through Postgraduate Certificate, Postgraduate Diploma and Master Degree awards for beginning and experienced teachers. There is significant tension around managing agreed activity planning (i.e. the deployment of individual staff) in ensuring that Teacher Educators contribute to university teaching, engage with research related activities that support higher education teaching and contribute to enhanced partnership activities in relation to supporting the continuing professional learning of early and established career teachers.

Loughran (2010) firmly establishes and legitimizes the role of Teacher Educators by engaging in a discussion around the tacit practice of accomplished classroom practitioners and explores the crucial elements relating to the principles of learning and teaching. He argues that effective Teacher Educators are able to deconstruct learning and teaching and as 'experts' can demystify and make the art of learning and teaching look and feel easy through a range of sequential problem-solving activities. This expert craft includes what is referred to as 'explicit modelling'. White (2011) explores

the emerging explicit modelling of colleagues who are new to the role of Teacher Educator and in particular their effectiveness of modelling good practice to trainee teachers. Explicit modelling seems to encourage trainee teachers to "articulate their learning more clearly" through sharing their thought processes and to "integrate theory and practice" through reflection on what is learned and the context and manner in which learning takes place.

The journey of teachers who are appointed to academic roles as lecturers in Teacher Education is highlighted by Wood and Borg (2010) who focus on how these teacher educators are changing their professional identity. It is this change in professional identity that seems pivotal in relation to the effectiveness of Teacher Educators in their role of supporting trainee, early and established career teachers. Swennen, Jones and Volman (2010) explore the professional identity of Teacher Educators in further detail by examining not only Teacher Educator identity, but their sub-identities and implications for continuing professional learning. The classification of sub-identities of Teacher Educators is an important consideration in relation to identifying and overcoming perceived tensions within the role of Teacher Educator in Scottish Universities. Teacher Educator sub-identities may include (i) school teacher, (ii) teacher in Higher Education, (iii) teacher of teachers (or what Swennen describes as second-order teacher) and (iv) researcher. Boyd and Harris (2010) discuss the appointment of school teachers to university-based Teacher Educator roles and the implications for their professional learning. The term *university-based* is applied by Boyd and Harris as the focus of teacher education has moved from universities to schools in England. In a wider context too, Swennen and Klink (2009: 3) explore the term Teacher Educator as not just being applicable to the context of Universities, but also to the context of schools.

McKeon and Harris (2010) explore how professional identity and pedagogical practice might be developed by colleagues new to the role of Teacher Educator and examine 'identity construction', suggesting that Teacher Educator identities are "being constructed through their work within their teaching programmes facilitating and managing students' learning and supporting teacher mentors' work with students in schools". Williams and Ritter (2010) suggest that the professional identity of teacher educators can be established through professional learning and self-study, thus facilitating growth of personal and intellectual capacity, and conclude "that becoming

teacher educators represents an ongoing process fraught with competing and constantly changing tensions". This seems to align with how teacher education is developing within the Scottish context, with the role of Teacher Educator within a university, not merely fulfilling the role of university lecturer, but rather enhancing this role by focusing on the underpinning pedagogical research that supports effective learning and teaching practice. Pedagogy (i.e. the method and practice of teaching) is described by Loughran (2006, p. 2) as "…..the art and science of educating children……. focusing on the relationship between learning and teaching such that one does not exist as separate and distinct from the other…..". It is the relationship between learning about teaching and teaching about learning that is important in establishing and enhancing the knowledge and understanding of trainee, early and established career teachers.

Effective Teacher Educators are therefore required to engage with modelling reflection, intention and practice that encourages thinking about effective learning and teaching. This all situated within teaching, assessing (both in practice settings and in university), engaging with the professional learning of early and established career teachers and contributing to research, and knowledge transfer. This is quite far removed from the early practice of initial teacher trainers in Scotland who emulated their own teacher training lecturers. Therefore the tensions created for Teacher Educators should not be under-estimated. Murray (2011) discusses how school teachers who take up posts as university–based Teacher Educators, become un-eased by the demands of academia. Murray builds on the work of Acker (1996), Ducharme (1993), Maguire (2000) and Swennen et al (2008) in relation to the tension, stress and challenges that face Teacher Educators, highlighting that Teacher Educator identities and academic engagement are "located across both higher education and school sectors". Murray (2011) also highlights the arrangement of universities to support the professional learning of newly appointed university lecturers through postgraduate programmes in academic practice. These professional learning programmes are not specifically tailored for Teacher Educators, but Murray argues that they provide scope for lecturers to explore "a hybrid model of practitioner research and to scaffold learning about research in teacher education". These professional learning programmes for newly appointed university lecturers are accredited against professional standards for higher education lecturers and completion gains nationally recognised status.

This demonstration of the professional standards by newly appointed lecturers though award of Fellowship of the Higher Education Academy (FHEA) and the continuing demonstration of professional standards of established lecturers through the award of Senior (SFHEA) and Principal (PFHEA) Fellow of the Higher Education Academy is now a requirement of an increasing number of Scottish universities. In addition, those who have teacher education within their portfolio demand that Teacher Educators possess the minimum qualification of a postgraduate Masters degree, with a rapid move on the requirement to be registered for, or possess, a Doctoral degree. The Scottish teaching profession is only now moving further towards practitioner professional learning at Master degree level and this (and other non-accredited masters level professional learning) now a requirement in maintaining a portfolio that continues to meet the Career-Long Professional Learning standard and professional update requirements of the General Teaching Council for Scotland (GTCS). The challenge for many Teacher Educators is to ensure quality learning and teaching experiences for teacher trainees (including the support of professional learning for early and established career teachers) whilst they themselves engage with Master and Doctoral degree studies alongside the professional recognition requirements of the Higher Education Academy and the professional update of the continuing registration requirements of the General Teaching Council for Scotland (GTCS).

Developing a 21st Century Teaching Profession

In September 1999 an Independent Committee of Inquiry examined the Professional Conditions of Service for Teachers (McCrone,1999). This was a comprehensive report that examined Scottish Education and the economy; developing and supporting the teaching profession; career structure for teachers; teacher pay; teacher conditions of service; ensuring quality; future negotiating mechanism; costs, savings and next steps.

The subsequent response to the recommendations of the McCrone Report was published almost two years later (TP21, 2001). This agreement sought to put in place opportunities for all teachers to engage with continuing professional learning. This created an opportunity for university based Teacher Educators to engage with professional learning of both early and established career teachers. Within the *Professional Development* section

of the agreement, the following commitments were relevant to the role of Teacher Educators:

- a comprehensive review of initial teacher education should be undertaken
- newly qualified probationer teachers should be guaranteed a reduced teaching commitment for one year to allow them to engage in continuing professional learning
- continuing professional learning should become a condition of service for all teachers with individual plans agreed and recorded annually
- employers should ensure a wide range of continuing professional learning opportunities including those with postgraduate higher education credits
- Enhanced status should be established for classroom teachers who gain an additional postgraduate qualification at "Chartered Teacher" Masters level

In practice, following the McCrone report and subsequent agreement, newly qualified teachers in Scotland continue to be guaranteed one year full time employment and professional learning with reduced teaching contact time as part of their probationer contract. Only after successful completion of this probationary period can newly qualified teachers apply for substantive full-time and part-time teaching posts in Scotland, or gain further experience from supply teaching. In contrast, participation in continuing professional learning activities by early and established career teachers has not been implemented as originally intended. Many have engaged in what might be described as a 'patchwork of development' that might lack coherence or significant impact on learning or learners. Engagement by established career teachers in credit bearing Masters level programmes did not increase substantially for various reasons including workload pressure and the cost of self-funding course fees.

The establishment of Chartered Teacher status (linked to a postgraduate Masters qualification) was a successful development. The Chartered Teacher Masters qualification was devised by universities as a postgraduate degree programme including the submission of a substantial dissertation based on a classroom-based action research project. Successful achievement of the award also provided salary enhancement and was designed to provide a professional learning opportunity for those who did not wish to move away from classroom practice (although some teachers did use the Chartered

Teacher award for securing senior management positions). This initiative remained successful until the Scottish Government announced its demise due to financial pressures.

A review of initial teacher education was completed by the Scottish Government in 2011. The comprehensive published report was entitled 'Teaching Scotland's Future: Report of a Review of Teacher Education in Scotland' (Donaldson, 2011). This report on teacher education coincided with the ongoing implementation of a major reform in Scottish education entitled "Curriculum for Excellence". Unlike the title, Curriculum for Excellence (Scottish Executive 2004a; 2004b), is not a curriculum but an educational philosophy with a set of aspirations that seeks to enhance the Scottish Education school-based curriculum. These aspirations, commonly known as the 'four capacities', set out to encourage school students to become successful learners, confident individuals, responsible citizens and effective contributors. These are not unlike the graduate attributes that many Scottish universities seek to strive towards in their respective learning contracts with students. There continues to be much debate about this educational philosophy and also much misinterpretation which has evolved out of a lack of clarity, guidance and resourcing in relation to the implementation of the education reform. This has been confused further by the separate, but concurrent, timing of the development and introduction of new National Qualifications for middle and senior phase school students.

The impact of Curriculum for Excellence in relation to the work of Teacher Educators is very different from the perceived impact on all other university lecturers. Teacher Educators are required to contextualise the philosophy, aspirations and methodological implementation of the four capacities. They are also required to translate understanding and knowledge for teacher trainees, early and established career teachers and demonstrate how this will support and enhance school-based practice. Teacher Educators, informed by Shulman's work, design programmes of study that embed pedagogical content knowledge and curricular knowledge to support teacher education and professional learning in relation to Curriculum for Excellence. University lecturers in other subject disciplines are only recently beginning to become aware that future school students arriving at university as undergraduates will have experienced the 'four capacities' and that may have implications for undergraduate learning and teaching experiences.

Implications for Higher Education

Universities Scotland commissioned a report focussing on higher education in Scotland. The report entitled "Beyond the Senior Phase: University Engagement with Curriculum for Excellence" (Jarvie, 2012) reported on how Scottish universities were responding to the introduction of the philosophy of Curriculum for Excellence and the new National Qualifications. The report made a number of recommendations:

— develop and enhance partnerships between universities and other organisations, (including schools) and explore opportunities for university staff to support and collaborate with school staff within learning and teaching contexts

— review the learning journey of students who have experienced "Curriculum for Excellence" and who have subsequently engaged with university study

— review admission requirements to higher education and clarify for applicants the expectations of undergraduate study in university programmes, especially in subject areas not experienced in schools and Further Education colleges

— provide an immediate response in relation to providing revised guidance for prospective university applicants

— work in partnership with *Scottish Government* and *Education Scotland* to record the learning and skills achieved by university students who have engaged with Curriculum for Excellence

— seek to engage wider discussion across the Scottish Education sector to reduce duplication (within year one of university undergraduate programmes) of work previously covered in school and Further Education college

— explore and contribute to continuing professional learning opportunities for schools, including collaborative working with teachers

— examine the progress of the assessment of 'broader, softer, more generic achievement' in partnership with *Scottish Government*, *Education Scotland* and the *Scottish Qualifications Authority*

— review the recognition of prior experience for those not following through to university study from school

— review university learning, teaching and assessment strategies and share established innovation with schools

    – collaborate in partnership with Further Education Colleges regarding the design of programmes and qualifications for direct entry to year two of undergraduate degree courses

There are some aspects of the *Universities Scotland* recommendations that are, and continue to be, demonstrated by Teacher Educators in relation to their interface and partnership working with colleagues in schools. Those who are not Teacher Educators within the university sector have yet to engage with the majority of the recommendations suggested. Doyle (2013) led a study of the higher education sector in Scotland in relation to the perceived impact of Curriculum for Excellence on universities. The conclusions of the Doyle report make stark reading and although there is evidence of an abundance of goodwill on the part of university lecturers, there are large gaps in relation to knowledge, progression and engagement with the *Universities Scotland* report recommendations.

In returning to Donaldson (2011), this extensive review was completed in 2010 and made a total of 50 recommendations. In a covering letter to the Scottish Cabinet Secretary for Education, Donaldson highlighted that the recommendations were "designed to help to build professional capacity of our teachers and ultimately improve the learning of the young people of Scotland. In that way education can strengthen further its vital role in building Scotland's future" (Donaldson, 2011 pp iii).

Around this same period, McCormac (2011) led a systematic review of teacher employment in Scotland under the heading of "Advancing Professionalism in Teaching". This was an extensive review with almost 3,400 responses. A total of 34 subsequent recommendations were published, the main recommendations falling within the following areas:

    – creation of a new revised set of professional standards, by the General Teaching Council for Scotland, to support professional practice and to develop a system of re-accreditation (professional update) for registered teachers

    – teaching workforce to engage with a process of professional review and personal development, with a professional development entitlement for all other staff within a school.

    – General Teaching Council for Scotland to develop a national system for recording professional review and personal development for registered teachers

- Staff acting as professional review and personal development reviewers should receive training for this role
- enhanced professional development to be achieved through the greater mobility of all teachers and headteachers within the education sector
- programmes of professional learning to be available to all teachers covering initial teacher education through to postgraduate masters awards

In response to both the Donaldson and McCormac reports, the Scottish Government formed a National Partnership Group involving partners and stakeholders with a wide reaching remit to examine 'key aspects of teacher development from application to courses of initial teacher education through to ensuring there are development opportunities in place for our most experienced headteachers' (Edwards, et al, 2012. pp. 2). The report highlighted the complex task of implementing the Donaldson Review recommendations. In summary, Edwards et al (2012) concluded that 'teacher education and career-long learning is a complex field', and that recommended implementation plans would need to reflect the current step change in the Scottish education sector and be sustainable. The response from the Scottish Government through the Cabinet Secretary for Education and Lifelong learning was to accept all of the recommendations within the report, Russell (2012).

The General Teaching Council for Scotland consulted widely on the revision of professional standards for teachers working in Scotland and subsequently published standards for registration as a teacher, for career long learning by teachers, and for middle and senior leadership and management. The standards for registration featured three crucial areas of: Professional Values and Personal Commitment; Professional Knowledge and Understanding; and Professional Skills and Abilities. The standard related to provisional registration (student teachers and probationer teachers) and full registration (early and established career teachers) is expressed as a series of professional actions by which individuals are professionally reviewed.

The standard relating to career-long professional learning, includes all other standards and can be described as the overarching standard within the revised framework that focuses on professional learning for sustainability. Specifically the standard includes a set of core attributes relating to professional values and personal commitment, with professional actions being reviewed in the following key career-long professional learning areas of (i) pedagogy, learning and subject knowledge (ii) curriculum and assessment (iii) enquiry and research (iv) educational contexts and current debates in

policy, education and practice (v) sustaining and developing professional learning (vi) learning for sustainability.

The standards relating to leadership and management have similar core attributes relating to professional values and personal commitment with the additional key areas of (i) Strategic vision, (ii) professional knowledge and understanding and (iii) interpersonal skills and abilities. Professional actions are divided specifically for Middle Leaders and Head Teachers, with the underpinning belief that middle and senior leadership is central to educational quality. The standards for leadership and management link with the Framework for Educational Leadership

(Edwards et al 2012, Annex C) and encourage self-evaluation and reflection as an integral part of leadership development.

It is perhaps emerging that the development, modernisation and future-proofing of the teaching profession (within the Scottish context) was never going to be a straightforward task, and would require more than the implementation of a set of "root and branch" improvement initiatives and projects. This notion seems to be upheld by the number of related reviews the Scottish Government has undertaken to inform how developments might be taken forward.

Conclusion

The Scottish Education system continues to stimulate interest and scrutiny from both within the system and across the international education community. The agreement that change is required to ensure that Scottish Education continues to deliver the very best opportunities for current and future learners is positive encouragement in itself and no one would disagree that Scotland should not progress with such matters. Education reform and fundamental change to underpinning structures and processes that support the building blocks of an education system take time to evaluate, with subsequent recommendations for change and improvement requiring appropriate time-frame implementation.

If there is an emerging lesson to be shared, education reform (which is always linked in some way with agendas set within a Government's term of office) cannot be implemented simultaneously as a complete entity. Scotland can demonstrate a pedigree of education developments that have been both appropriate for the time and setting, whilst retaining capacity for further development to accommodate aspects not yet known for the future. In their

eagerness to push forward with education reform, the Scottish Government highlighted deep routed issues related to workforce planning, teacher workload, bureaucracy, perceived lack of communication and had to placate such issues through further consultation and discussion; extend implementation timescales and provide additional financial resources. Whatever the view or political stance of individuals, the Scottish Government had no choice but to engage in this way and the views of critics will always be that education planners should have known differently.

That stated and taking cognisance of the number of Scottish Government reviews, independent studies and subsequent recommendations, the challenges facing Teacher Educators in Scotland seem, and continue to be, immense. It should be acknowledged that Scottish Teacher Educators themselves have been involved in innovation and emerging good practice that has contributed to this call for change. Teacher Educator identity; construction of new identities; their role as leaders of learning; the development of personal professional learning needs (including transition and induction to university settings); the development of a personal research profile and the requirement to publish research findings and case studies; the engagement with explicit modelling and the development and reconstruction of pedagogical practice continues to stimulate debate and add to the rich tapestry that is at the core of being a Teacher Educator within a university. This tapestry can only be enhanced further through networking with other Teacher Educators, whether part of a United Kingdom or International community. These are fascinating and fast changing times for Scottish Education and colleagues await the result of how this will all 'play out'.

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CHAPTER 2

Teachers and Learners: the Professional Development of University Lecturers in Poland

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Abstract

In this chapter, the author focuses on professional development of university teachers facilitated by various forms of reflection on their professional actions. Various types of narration seem efficient in reflection. By applying quality research methodology we may obtain a useful tool for professional and personal self-development. The background for the reflections is a negative context of the neoliberal 'culture' in which universities currently operate. Such an environment is also connected with some problems of university teachers, including the lack of systemic solutions regarding their professional development, especially in terms of didactic activity and playing the role of a teacher.

Key words: neoliberalism, university teachers, pathological actions, professional self-development

Introduction

Neoliberalism, which is based on the principles of supply and demand, has invaded all spaces of life. Education and science have become a commodity responding to market demand. Nowadays, we are aware of some of the negative consequences of this development. Some university teachers feel a strong need to oppose such dominating practices which in time might lead to pathologies. Pierre Bourdieu and Martin Heidegger pointed to the diktat of pathology, which dominates in a given environment and becomes, thanks to its prevalence, a reference point and an authoritative entity for the

majority of people. The mass scale of activities results in a sense of natural-
ness of some processes and of their inevitability. It also covers the tracks of
pathological solutions, sanctioning various forms of pathological actions.

University and university teacher towards neoliberal 'culture'

The lack of thought on fundamental values and the desirability of their work,
which leads to increased pathological phenomena in the functioning of the
university, refers also to university teachers. We work in a closed system, in
which there is arguably more and more ignorance, dishonesty, mediocrity
and the lack of responsibility for students. The metaphors of university as
a plant producing the future unemployed, a laundry or a stronghold are the
best proof of the fact that universities have become the best calling card of
neoliberal institutions, whose characteristic features include:

- A gap between the ideas of humanism and commercialisation. The
  metaphors of the market are commonly used for universities as they
  are perceived through 'rendered services or offered commodities which
  can be bought or sold'. In this context, pedagogic democracy is defined
  as consumer democracy in an educational supermarket. Universities
  are under pressure to produce 'more for less' and to become entre-
  preneurial.
- Bureaucracy. The present academic reality is dominated by the 'produc-
  tion' of various types of documents connected with the adaptation to the
  requirements of the Bologna process and which have little to do with
  increasing the quality of work as most of the proposed changes are im-
  plemented only 'on paper'. This is what often happens when changes are
  imposed without consulting a given environment or without its approval.

The consequences are:

- The disappearance of direct interaction between university teachers
  and students. As part of cost savings, some Polish universities organize
  classes in groups larger than 40 students.
- Massification of academic community. University teachers must 'serve'
  hundreds of students. The political transformation in Poland resulted
  in an enormous educational boom at university level. In the last two
  decades, the number of students in Poland has increased five times.
  We have the largest number of universities and university courses in
  Europe. Unfortunately, quantity does not always translate into quality.

There is a peculiar 'alliance in a bad case' (Witkowski, 2007, p. 265) established between students and university teachers, which is tantamount to agreeing that a formal completion of a given university course equals the realization of frequently fictitious tasks by both students and university teachers. It is also the agreement to produce the 'substitutes of the intellectual elite' satisfied with examinations or tests successfully passed at the minimum level. Witkowski speaks of an academic cinema of the silent era dominated by 'increasing cynicism, rush, appearances and cultural wickedness' (Witkowski, 2007, p. 266). There is indeed fictitious value of university diplomas obtained nowadays by people, on the one hand who have successfully completed studies standardized in accordance with the Bologna process but on the other hand cannot think independently.

The processes connected with 'increasing the quality of university education', implementing further procedures concerning the functioning of these institutions and locking a university teacher's open mind within learning outcomes, do not augur well for the future of universities. 'Performance indicators', 'control and quality measures' appear to have replaced both professional ethics for university teachers and the university ethos. Great hibernation of the academic community leads to almost no scientific reflections or commentaries on the degradation of the academic culture and cultural devastation of universities.

What will this seeming educational effort of both students and university teachers, as well as insufficient care of student's individual development and the lack of responsibility for the general public interest, lead to? What kind of future teachers for our children and next generations are being educated in a world dominated by sloppy thinking, no learning effort and promoting convenience? We can even speak of the 'ritualization of appearances' as repeating situations of this type has become a norm for students.

Educational boom, which downgraded not only science but also the university teacher and student to the level of a commodity, has resulted in calling universities 'specialized organizations trading science' (Melosik, 2002, p. 83). At the same time, students have become 'human capital contributing to competitiveness on global markets and satisfying the needs of a society' (Melosik, 2002, p. 83). University teachers are both victims of neoliberal regulations regarding the state's functioning and accomplices. They allow for the depreciation of the university diploma's value and make it possible for people to obtain degree awards without demonstrating the standards and

work required. However, the demographic decline in Poland and the fear of losing one's job are the factors which strongly influence teachers' decisions and they take priority over ethical issues in such decisions. Thus, the market and the neoliberal ideology rather than professional ethics and normative thinking are decisive.

The poor quality of engagement and work by some students, generated by educational activities of universities, is not regarded as a serious problem as the existence of a given university is governed by the economy or the market as well as the number of students. Universities, however, do not feel guilty for these 'educational appearances' as they operate within a system that allows for no other solutions. Witkowski (2007) opines that in the near future new universities will have to be established for the best students and the best professors who will refuse to support what is called by Bourdieu a 'cultural bluff'.

It is impossible to separate pedagogy from economics and politics as they are embedded in an inseparable system, which has a significant influence on the quality of educational practice and being an academic instructor. Academic instructors have to realize that in spite of their position and role they all bear responsibility for their work. However, it is the university instructors who are responsible for the content and quality of education as a whole and hold the greatest responsibility as they are the ones training future teachers. What kinds of obstacles must academic teachers overcome on a daily basis in order not to lose their identity, ideas and values? Are they adequately responding to the changes in their surrounding? Are they continuously learning in order to improve communication with their students?

Continuous professional development for university teachers: a researcher or a teacher?

We must honestly admit that, in the current socio-cultural and economic conditions in Poland, recommendations concerning education of university staff are but an idea. Preparation of university researchers / teachers to function as teachers depends primarily on their own activity, initiative and will, which usually emerge once they encounter problems at work.

Since the opportunities for institutional training are rather scarce, university instructors first exhibit an intuitive approach to their work and later learn from other instructors. Quite often, they also learn from their students,

especially with regard to the newest trends in information technology or the ability to quickly gain access to information.

In the case of academic instructors one of the greatest dilemmas they face is which goal to pursue: develop as researchers or become good teachers (Reid & Petocz, 2003). Many responsibilities concerning research, teaching and administration (at least in Poland) fall on instructors and in order to maintain their position at university they must abandon the role of a teacher who is concerned with teaching quality and instead become teachers-researchers. If one desires to be promoted in an academic setting then you must be involved in research activity. A person who has chosen teaching and at the same time marginalized research will not advance in the academic structures and titles and after several years may lose their post.

Shortening the career path to eight-year cycles (8 years for a doctoral degree and 8 years for a postdoctoral degree) has forced Polish instructors to give priority to research work. As a result, fulfilling the role of a teacher has become a burden. This role is now limited to minimizing efforts (time, energy, attention) that are required for its completion. The problem is enhanced by low salaries at universities. In order to support a family, the instructor often must find additional employment elsewhere, usually at a private university. Teaching is then seen as a means of improving one's financial situation. As a result, recommendations concerning lifelong learning and training of academic staff are unrealistic, not because of the lack of willingness but the lack of time.

Any change in this situation within universities will require investment of time. 'Making time for continuous reflection and dialogue constitutes a fundamental condition for the creation of professional learning cultures' (Knowles, Holton and Swanson, 2005, p. 182). Interviews with young university teachers who have to follow a recently adopted new development path paint a gloomy picture of the situation:

> 'Initially, I thought that working at a university would be a fulfillment of my dreams but now I realize it is a nightmare. I am not surprised any more that at a university you do not move fast up the career ladder. In the past, I used to think 'five years for a PhD and seven for a habilitation' but now I have so many duties I can hardly keep up. Paper work is killing me. I can't sleep because of stress. I have to choose which tasks not to do as there are so many of them'.

> *'I thought I would manage. I thought everything was feasible but now I can see it is impossible. How to fulfill all the requirements in eight years? The preparation for my courses takes up so much time that writing a book is driven to the background. I run seven different courses and if I want to prepare for them well I have no time for writing my PhD. Is that normal?'*

Such experiences suggest that the introduction of new solutions regarding the 8-year period of employment of university research and teaching staff at Polish universities as well as tightened requirements for obtaining university degrees and a lot of bureaucratic work leads to the appearance of two distinctive components of the university teacher's role, namely scientific-research and teaching ones. The scientific-research role, which guarantees employment, is of primary status whereas the teaching role is pushed further into the background, but this is not because the university teachers do not want to or do not like working with students. The marginalization of teaching has been forced by new regulations issued by the Ministry of Science and Higher Education. It may bring the threat of university education's collapse despite the progress in the implementation of the Bologna system, which has been assumed to increase the quality of university education.

The university teacher, rather than trying to work better both in terms of research and teaching, is somehow forced to learn how to make students take as little time as possible to create ample time for pursuing a scientific career. Young university teachers have a different perception of their own professional status and put it into a negative perspective. They focus on their personal development neglecting the development of students, which is conditioned by the progress in academic advancement. Such a situation is particularly difficult for those university teachers whose requirements for academic advancement have been changed during their period of employment. As a result, they are left with a couple of years to fulfill such requirements. The negative attitude which is being discussed may also result from the novelty of the implemented changes as well as the inability to adapt to new conditions of professional development.

The researcher role of the university teachers does not look better. The poor financial situation of universities (not only the Polish ones) forces university teachers to apply for grants and write research projects which may help universities stay in the market. However, where applications for research financing are prepared not in order to discover something inter-

esting but to maintain a university, one cannot speak positively about the essence and importance of the scientific study. The very structure of a grant application causes concerns. It is required that the results of a given research and its impact on society are to be described before the research completion. Therefore, the main aim of the application is not to conduct research but to obtain funds for universities. It is time to protest loudly against such a political functioning of universities which is in line with research directions defined by government and EU entities. The preference given to academic studies which are economically beneficial leads to the collapse of humanities. In Poland, arts courses are being closed due to their underperformance and unprofitability. The pathology connected with meeting the EU requirements leads to unnecessary bureaucracy and political and economic requirements overriding the requirements of culture and humanism.

What are the solutions?

The importance of teacher self-awareness and self-reflection has been emphasized for quite a long time, both in regard to the process of one's own training as well as one's own teaching practice. Hence, there are two new knowledge types: the so called "knowledge in action" and that typical of a professional's work (including teachers) "knowing-in-practice". This type of knowledge is gained thorough reflecting in practice and serves the purpose of discovering ways of behavior in circumstances which reach beyond familiar and routine situations. According to publications, these are the most effective methods of teacher development (Butt, et al. 2012).

For the purpose of professional development academic instructors must engage in reflection, both individually and in professional groups, which may become peer support groups in difficult situations. University teachers can be offered various forms of reflection on their professional activities, of which some require a more scientific approach as they are based on quality research methodologies and other refer to research techniques of lesser scientific value. The latter, however, tend to become effective in increasing quality of one's work both in its teaching-scientific dimension as well as personal and emotional one.

The following techniques based on quality research methodologies can be recommended:

1. Forming individual narratives (autobiographical relations) which can help university teachers ponder over their experiences and professional iden-

tity and plan their professional development at a given university. Research on professional development of young university teachers shows that the experiences of university teachers differ depending on a social context of a given country (Holstein, Gubrium, 2012) and also, to a lesser extent, on informal relations in a workplace and work environment (Remmik, Karm, Lepp, 2013). This is an important research proposition as personal narratives may shed light on the problems faced by university teachers functioning in a certain social environment. Holstein and Gubrium (2012, p. 9) refer to the way 'storytelling operates in and relates to the social environment (…). From this perspective, stories and storytelling are not only conditioned by but also shape their circumstances'.

The use of auto-ethnography, in which a university teacher writes in a reflective manner about their immersion in the university culture, and about professional problems (teaching, research, relations with students and other researchers), is quite rare in higher education studies. It might be because university teachers are not willing to share their deep thoughts and concerns, which is a pity as it could be an excellent way of documenting the 'becoming of oneself' in a professional role.

The question of 'Do you know what you have experienced?' used in personal narratives may reveal the inability to express oneself and to identify meanings in one's environment. It frequently happens that thanks to auto-narration the man discovers other, previously unknown, ways of engaging into the dialogue with the world. He also notices that the pattern he has been using and to which he has become accustomed is just a habit of looking at a certain angle and that a change of perspective is possible. Other subject positions can be discovered, giving a different overview of a situation and a completely new position for the 'I'.

2. Forming group narratives based on cooperating teams. Using the theory of social learning in a community of practice by Wenger (1998) we might suggest learning through relationships with other academic teachers. It is difficult to undermine the thesis that most skills are acquired through social contact. Therefore, basic professional competencies may be developed though participation in conversations, actions and experiences of other individuals from the same field. The shared context of events or activities, using the same language to name the same occurrences facilitates knowledge construction on subjects discussed within such a unified group. The development of knowledge goes hand in hand with developing individual

competencies, where the learning process is not only connected with acquiring new information but with evaluating, assessing and expressing personal opinions about analyzed situations. Such learning through participation in teacher discussion groups not only influences an instructor's professional activities, but also who they are or who they are becoming as academic teachers and in what way they can interpret their endeavors (Michalak, 2010).

Young university teachers assume attitudes and behavior imitating other, more experienced teachers. Frequently, they collect information through an open request for help or a question. Some university teachers become guardians – vocational teachers. *'We often spoke and he always provided advice to me and supported me when I had any dilemmas. It was very important to me. In fact, I may say that he made me a teacher'.* Such a 'guardian' can be treated as an ideal representative of a group of university teachers, representing all its specific features. Regular contact, frequent talks and consultations with an experienced teacher may trigger in a young teacher 'proper' interpretations of a situation.

As in any method of working, the communities of practice approach proposed by Wenger has its flaws. The main weakness appears to be the possibility of reproducing the old, fossilized style of work, transmission of the readily available knowledge to young active teachers and the undue separation of theoretical knowledge and practice.

Participation in the process of creating a group narrative about university education and one's place in it (as a university teacher and/or researcher) can be a successful remedy. It may prompt teachers to engage in critical reflection on their professional behavior, especially their role and sense of their work in the context of the work of university teachers as a group at a given university (Smith, 2010; Zbróg, 2012; Boyd & Bloxham, 2013). This might also be a big opportunity to form research teams which could search for solutions to a given problem and design a more complex study on the university teachers' situation. The cooperation of this type may lead to the development of new research skills among young university teachers as well as to pointing to problems which have not been identified or solved elsewhere.

3. Writing narratives on a given subject together with students is a good way to elaborate a common standing, taking into account equal positions in common relations, as both sides play the role of those who both teach and learn. The historical social context referring to being a student means that at many universities students are still treated as objects. Looking at the

process of empowerment, maybe going back to the times when teachers were students or pupils themselves, may have a positive impact on the teachers' relations with students. Creating narratives together may also help identify the causes of unequal relations and raise awareness of the need for some differences to appear between teachers and students resulting from various roles played, conditioned by 'living' and functioning in a given social context. "The individual experiences and the collective understanding of the memory stories told and written and analysed in the CBW process, are not only a path to explore our ways of being and deconstruct existing patterns of meaning, but also to jointly rebuild alternative approaches to our lives" (Wihlborg, 2013, p. 377).

Other techniques supporting professional self-development include:

One of the characteristics of a teacher's activity is to be able to function in unique, changing and ambivalent situations. In such situations teachers cannot rely on previous experiences but have to make a creative effort, which is based on building new knowledge and establishing new approaches. As a form of engaging in reflection on one's own professional activities one may suggest that teachers:

1. Develop self-awareness and the skills to analyze their strengths through thinking about which of their personal features have the greatest influence on their professional life and determine their professional strengths. Teachers should think about the following:
   – What kind of a person am I?
   – What am I best at?
   – I would learn more if…
   – I would be more creative if….

   Teacher evaluations done by students may be helpful here as they are anonymous and provide assessment of the lessons. Teacher evaluations would be a good starting point for this kind of reflection on one's teaching practice.

2. Self-reflection: identify, define and creatively solve work-related problems.
   – What difficulties have I encountered in my lessons recently?
   – What problem was difficult to solve and I am not sure if I solved it the right way?

  – What situations at work are difficult for me and I do not know how
    to behave?
  – What do my students expect from me? What do other teachers expect
    from me? (When was the last time that I assessed my own lessons?
    When did I do a needs analysis for my students?)
3. Analyze specific cases, non-standard situations, for example, during dis-
   cussions in a peer support group (in self-development group, in teacher
   support group). Analyzing such uncommon situations is an opportunity
   to admit to one's mistakes – the teacher becomes more creative when she
   is not afraid of making mistakes, taking risks and trying different solutions.
   The fear of making mistakes is related to the fear of being ridiculed, losing
   one's authority and position and disclosing one's own incompetence. As
   a result, individuals retreat to secure stages of development. And teachers
   choose to operate in the familiar, safe or traditional professional settings.
   Therefore, it is beneficial if teachers in the support group share their fail-
   ures. This would be an excellent starting point for seeking the causes of
   the failures and the possible solutions through brainstorming ideas as to
   how to best deal with a given situation. This would also provide inspiration
   to search for information in different sources regarding the cause of the
   failure. Solutions created by peer support groups may be implemented in
   the teaching practice. Collective reflection on the causes and analyzing
   the problem from various points of view may help one to avoid making
   similar teaching-related mistakes and failures.

We should not forget that this type of collaboration in the peer teacher
group is an ideal burnout prevention strategy. It is also a means of building
communicative and teaching competencies of teachers. In addition, it helps
in forging positive interpersonal relationships among the teaching staff. As
it turns out, all teachers have struggles and all teachers are afraid to admit
it. According to a research study by H. Sęk (2001), teacher burnout may be
counteracted by social support gained in the same environment in which the
burnout occurs: 37% teachers in elementary schools identify the principal as
the source of such support and 54% mention their colleagues. Only this type
of support is truly effective in counteracting burnout. The support offered
outside of professional circles (family, friends, etc.) is ineffective. Interacting
with fellow teachers who work in the same setting is therefore a valuable
cure for many teacher struggles.

4. Teachers who have a strong tendency to be in control may also use self-observation, for example, using a video camera. While watching the self-videotaped lesson they may conduct a detailed self-analysis of their own practice and identify areas that need improvement. They also reflect on their own professional activity and seek solutions to the problems that may emerge. With regard to the usefulness of this method it seems that joining a peer support group may be a better option as teachers - viewing the problem from a different perspective – can offer more objective comments on the actual failures than the teacher herself. Seeking directions for development and (self-)education should be closely linked to establishing relationships with other teachers who through sharing experiences, evidence and thoughts can participate in reconstructing the view of the world and of themselves. However, self-observation may be useful in situations when there are no peer support groups operating at a university.

Conclusions

The focus on professional development of academic instructors through collaboration with students, self-reflection and analysis of difficult situations within a peer support group as presented in this article is an attempt to address the lack of professional development for Polish academic instructors. It suggests the use of a process-based perspective in preparing for the teacher's role. It is a means of "improving the ways of development" through continuous professional development of academic instructors, which stems from their intrinsic motivation and the sense of responsibility for educating others. This approach is grounded in theoretical foundations of "becoming" a teacher, which is based not only on education through gaining knowledge but also, or perhaps primarily, through educating oneself, discovering one's identity and perspectives on the world.

The objective of the present article is also to oppose the growing depersonalization of the university world, dominated by the disappearance of academic culture and professionalism of university teachers, and to focus on student and university teacher's narratives which offer a foundation for explaining and understanding the world.

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CHAPTER 3

Using 'Modelling' to Improve the Coherence of Initial Teacher Education

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Abstract

Internationally, initial teacher education programmes usually include trainee teachers in formal taught sessions facilitated by a teacher educator. These formal taught sessions are intended to build on and to shape the more informal workplace learning gained by supported teaching experience in schools. The formal teaching provides opportunities to foreground the trainee teachers' experiences as learners, but the pedagogy of teacher education is complex and the intentions of teacher educators and actual learning outcomes of these sessions is uncertain. Many teacher educators use an element of 'modelling' within their approach, although the frequency, nature and impact of this strategy is contested. Modelling may also be used by school based teacher educators during more informal workplace learning, for example when being observed teaching and in the ensuing debrief with a trainee teacher. This chapter argues that explicit modelling of 'being a learner' by teacher educators may provide the 'glue' required to make the domains of knowing and the layers of purpose in the complex pedagogy of teacher educators more coherent for trainee teachers.

Key words: modelling; congruent teaching; teacher educator; practical wisdom; public knowledge.

Introduction

In this chapter I will focus on 'modelling' within the pedagogy of teacher education. Teacher educators are 'teaching to teach' and so have good opportunities to provide a role model for their student teachers in terms of the strategies they use and the professional values they apply. This is particularly

the case where teacher educators have been appointed to their role on the basis of their previous successful practitioner experience as 'school teachers'. As will become apparent, this modelling by teacher educators is a contested area of their pedagogy and there is only limited research evidence concerning its implementation and impact on student teachers. Modelling may be used by teacher educators in formal taught sessions for student teachers but also within their more informal workplace learning in schools and classrooms (van Velzen et al., 2012). I will argue that modelling is important and has the potential to provide the 'glue' by which a complex and layered pedagogy for teacher education may be made coherent.

In the first sections I propose a metaphor for understanding teachers' professional learning and introduce the idea of a layered pedagogy for teacher education. A framework for understanding modelling is then developed and presented, based on the current literature and limited research evidence base. This framework is tested by application to the analysis of interview data from two studies of UK based teacher educators, one group were based in a case study University department and the other group worked in colleges of further education. Finally, the chapter adds some challenging prompt questions for teacher educators to the framework for modelling, and proposes its use for the further development of teacher education programmes.

Teacher learning

A higher education programme in any subject discipline will generally involve an element of 'becoming'. That is, it will involve the student in identity building and developing 'functional' knowledge, for example as a 'Historian' or as a 'Mathematician'. However, in professional fields such as teacher education, the expectations for functional knowledge and identity building are likely to be much stronger and accelerated. For example, student teachers may be expected, even on their early programme experiences in school, to be able to operate at the level of a learning assistant or responsible adult within the workplace setting. Initial teacher education programmes, within higher education at undergraduate or postgraduate levels, have added complexity because the student teachers come with a considerable prior personal experience and models for teaching based on their own experience (Lortie, 1975). However, many teacher educators, even those based in higher education, are likely to be able to model a very full range of professional

values, strategies and identities. This is because they will often have prior experience in school-teaching and 'practitioner teacher' is usually one element of their wider identity as an academic (Boyd & Harris, 2010; Swennen, Jones & Volman, 2010; Murray & Male, 2005).

Taylor (2008) investigates conceptions of 'learning to teach' held by student teachers, university based teacher educators, and school-based teacher mentors, within a UK university-schools partnership. To some extent the study aligned the conceptions held with those identified in previous phenomenographic research across a range of higher education students and lecturers (Kember, 1997). Her analysis of questionnaire and interview data identifies four ways of understanding 'learning to teach' but arguably the most sophisticated conception identified went beyond transmission and apprenticeship to consider the 'student as teacher and learner'. This conception of learning to teach 'focuses in a holistic way on student learning' and is about 'enabling students to think critically and originally, question existing practices and explore new principles' (Taylor, 2008, p. 78). It is similar to Kember's (1997) 'conceptual change' category that was identified more generally across higher education teaching and learning. The conception of a student teacher as teacher *and* a learner has resonance with Loughran's idea of student teachers being involved in both 'learning to teach' and 'teaching to learn' (2006). However, this leaves a key challenge for teacher education programmes of building links between formal taught sessions and the workplace learning gained through teaching practice.

The need to link from formal learning to practice, a key challenge for all programmes of professional education, is not adequately captured by the metaphor of 'transfer of learning'. Transfer implies knowledge gained through acquisition and movement of that knowledge. Learning to teach is more sufficiently described as 'becoming within a transitional process of boundary-crossing' (Hager and Hodkinson, 2009, p. 635). This metaphor is more useful as it considers the student teacher developing their practice and identity as a teacher and crossing boundaries between formal learning settings and their own classroom as well as between the different workplace settings experienced during their programme. The 'becoming a teacher and boundary crossing' metaphor is more aligned to situated learning perspectives (Lave and Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998) which emphasise the significance of context and the social nature of workplace learning. Much of the professional learning of the student teachers is likely to arise within

the workplace and to be social and situated (Lave and Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998) but formal learning also contributes (Fuller et al., 2005).

Metaphors, linguistic representations, are a powerful way by which we try to capture the 'experience of human learning' (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). In a classic paper, Sfard proposed two metaphors for learning in higher education, 'acquisition' and 'participation', and these reflect transmissive and social constructionist theories of learning (1998). Language used by a teacher such as 'I covered the topic thoroughly with the children' might suggest their underlying use of the 'acquisition' metaphor for learning. In this way metaphors that are commonly used by teachers may powerfully reveal and influence their pedagogy.

However metaphors for learning may be misleading (Hager, 2008) and one such metaphor is paradigmatic in professional fields such as teacher education. To what extent do you personally hold and use the metaphor of a 'gap' between theory and practice? This metaphor might be revealed when a teacher educator makes comments such as 'I need the trainee teachers to *apply* learning theory to their teaching'. A key problem with the 'gap' metaphor is that it assumes that there are two distinct bodies of knowledge, one is 'theory' and one is 'practice'. This is in line with assumptions made more widely in higher education that 'propositional' and 'procedural' knowledge may be considered as distinct bodies of knowledge (Biggs and Tang, 2011). From a sociocultural perspective this assumption is questionable and professional knowledge is better considered as professional 'knowing' that is mediated, situated, social, dynamic and contested (Blackler, 1995). To this list of the characteristics of professional knowing, and informed by Wenger's work on practice and identity (1998) it is also useful to add that professional 'knowing' is developed in negotiation with identity. As teacher educators it is important for us to consider alternatives to the theory practice 'gap' metaphor because such underlying metaphors shape our pedagogy.

From a sociocultural perspective an alternative metaphor is that teachers' professional learning is an 'interplay' between vertical public (published) knowledge and horizontal practical wisdom (Boyd & Bloxham, 2014). In this metaphorical framework (Figure 1.) the vertical domain of professional knowing is hierarchically organised through the peer reviewed publication process and includes learning theory, research evidence, professional guidance and policy. The horizontal domain of professional knowing is focused on ways of working in particular educational workplace settings such as schools

or teacher education departments in universities. This horizontal domain captures and values the situated and social nature of teachers' knowing.
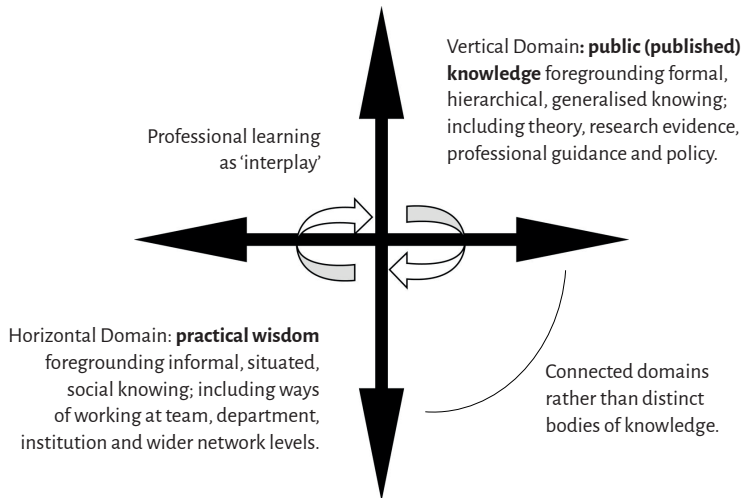
Vertical Domain**: public (published) knowledge** foregrounding formal, hierarchical, generalised knowing; including theory, research evidence, professional guidance and policy.

Professional learning as 'interplay'

Horizontal Domain: **practical wisdom** foregrounding informal, situated, social knowing; including ways of working at team, department, institution and wider network levels.

Connected domains rather than distinct bodies of knowledge.

Figure 1. A situative metaphor for professional learning (Boyd & Bloxham, 2014; Boyd, 2014)

The metaphor of 'interplay' helps to capture the contested nature of teacher knowing and the power at play in pedagogical decision-making. For example, the everyday practice of a teacher will be influenced by how other teachers in the setting work but also by the published national policies on quality assurance and curriculum. It is important for teachers and teacher educators to critically reflect on the metaphors for learning they hold, in relation to their own professional learning and in relation to the learning of their students or pupils. A study undertaken in Spain, of the metaphors for children's learning held by teachers, suggested that behaviourist metaphors dominate and that social constructivist metaphors were more widely held by trainees than by experienced practitioners (Martinez, Sauleda & Huber, 2001). In relation to their own professional learning, when reflecting on critical incidents at work, a busy teacher may privilege practical wisdom. This may constrain their engagement with research evidence or even with alternative strategies proposed by relevant professional guidance.

A layered pedagogy

The knowledge or professional knowing of teachers is complex and contested (Calderhead, 1988; Leach and Moon, 2000; Shulman and Shulman, 2004; Ellis, 2007) and the pedagogy of teacher education reflects that complexity. Figure 2. is an attempt to capture teacher knowledge diagrammatically. In this diagram the overlap between pedagogical knowledge and curriculum subject knowledge represents 'pedagogical content knowledge' which may be considered as the teacher's understanding of the key concepts within a curriculum subject and their knowledge of how to teach these ideas effectively (Shulman, 1986). However, Figure 2 represents a sociocultural perspective by combining and overlaying 'practice and identity' as a teacher and by placing the whole conception of teacher knowledge within the wider social and policy framework.
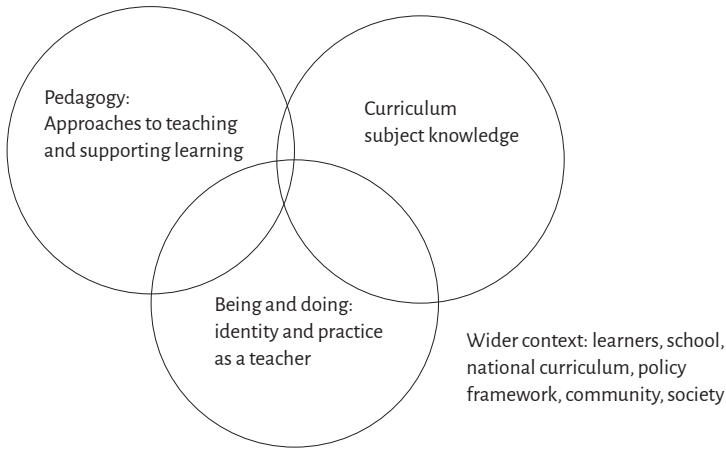
Figure 2. A diagrammatic view of teacher knowledge

This view of teacher knowledge helps to explain the multiple purposes of teacher educators so that within a formal session they may introduce a key aspect of pedagogy but they might do this within the context of teaching a school curriculum subject. In this situation the student teacher is learning about teaching strategies and related learning theory but also aspects of the subject discipline and pedagogical content knowledge. In a particular learning

activity the teacher educator may choose to foreground a particular element of this complex mixture but it may be helpful to consider these as multiple 'layers of purpose' within the pedagogy of teacher education (Boyd and Harris, 2010). The primary focus of the teacher educator is on the learning of the student teacher, but they are also concerned for their own continued learning as a higher education teacher and perhaps most importantly on the learning of the pupils (students) in the classes of the student teachers.

Combining Loughran's 'learning to teach' and 'teaching to learn (2006) with these multiple layers of purpose begins to capture the complexity of teacher education. A question arises as to what extent student teachers are able to handle this complexity. Both teacher educator and student teacher need to be aware of the layers of purpose within a formal session and explicit about which of them they are foregrounding at any one time. Of course discussion of a teaching and learning issue will often range across different layers and that is to be welcomed, but it may lead to confusion rather than clarity if the discussants are not aware of the richness and complexity of the session. For example, the use of artefacts in teacher education sessions may cause confusion for student teachers if they are unsure about the purpose (Ellis et al., 2011).

A central element of becoming a teacher is to learn to see teaching from the perspective of the learners. This is reflected in the pedagogy of teacher education through the adoption of enquiry based approaches. The completion of small scale action research by student teachers usually includes gathering and analysis of pupil voice together with other evidence of learning. The critical analysis and engagement with literature that action research requires is intended to help student teachers become critical thinkers who are sufficiently confident to question current practice and their own embedded conceptions of teaching which often may be focused on teaching as telling and learning as transmissive. Modelling by teacher educators appears to offer a strategy that introduces an enquiry based approach to professional learning and it takes advantage of the fact that the student teacher is a learner.

Current views on modelling

This section focuses on conceptions of 'modelling' as a strategy within a pedagogy for teacher education. This engagement with the literature on modelling identifies a framework in Figure 3. that represents current thinking on the strategy. The framework represents intentional modelling by teacher edu-

cators whilst it acknowledges that all teacher education experiences, many of them beyond intentional planning by the teacher educator, are likely to have some influence on the practice of student teachers.

The basic concept of modelling in teacher education is summarised by the statement that 'How I teach IS the message' (Russell, 1997) and more recently this has been referred to as 'congruent teaching' (Swennen, Lunenberg and Korthagen, 2008). Teaching is congruent when it models effective teaching and learning strategies that student teachers will be able to reconstruct in their own classrooms. The congruent teaching may also display values held by the teacher (Willemse, Lunenberg and Korthagen, 2005). A problem with using this basic concept is that the student teachers may not hear the message. They may be blissfully unaware that the teacher educator is modelling. In addition, this basic concept appears to be based on an uncritical acceptance of 'good practice', that there are effective teaching strategies and learning to teach is simply building a repertoire of those techniques and applying them in your classroom practice. In the proposed framework for modelling based on the literature and presented in Figure 3, the initial level of implicit modelling uses the term 'congruent teaching' (Swennen, Lunenberg and Korthagen, 2008) and relies on the student teacher working alone to experience and then unpack the approach of the teacher educator.

Some teacher educators use 'self conscious narrative' in order to introduce explicit modelling into their taught sessions. They 'step out' of the teacher education session and explicitly reflect in front of the student teachers by 'thinking aloud' about their design and facilitation of the session. The idea of 'stepping out' was inspired by Fowler in the French Lieutenant's Woman (Wood and Geddis, 1999) when the novel is interrupted by reflection on the author's intentions. This kind of explicit modelling is not only modelling teaching strategies and drawing the student teachers' attention to them, it is also modelling reflective practice by a teacher, although the practice involved is that of a higher education teacher. It can be argued that the modelling of being a critically reflective teacher is a higher level conception of modelling that moves beyond congruent teaching and implicit modelling of professional values and this is reflected in Figure 3. by the second level of 'explicit modelling'.

Building on explicit modelling some teacher educators attempt to provide a rationale for their approach to teaching by engaging with public knowledge (learning theory, research evidence, professional guidance or policy) and this is identified as a refinement of explicit modelling within Figure 3. (Lunenberg,

Korthagen and Swennen, 2007; Swennen, Lunenberg and Korthagen, 2008). An additional refinement of explicit modelling is to ask the student teachers to consider their own classroom practice in relation to the teaching strategy modelled and to the points raised in the teacher educator's reflection (Lunenberg, Korthagen and Swennen, 2007; Swennen, Lunenberg and Korthagen, 2008).

Figure 3. A framework for modelling based on the literature

Modelling in Teacher Education

LEVEL 1: Implicit modelling using congruent teaching that models strategies and values: the teacher educator uses strategies and demonstrates professional values that reflect 'good practice' in facilitation of adult learning but that may have some relevance to the context within which the student teachers will be teaching. This approach relies on the experience of that teaching to influence the emerging pedagogy of student teachers and subsequently their practice in classrooms. Within this level the teacher educator may facilitate metacognitive thinking by student teachers in the plenary of the formal taught sessions.

LEVEL 2: Explicit modelling of critical reflection on practice: the teacher educator steps out of the session and thinks out loud about their approach to teaching. If another teacher educator is in the session then a reflective dialogue between the two teacher educators may take the place of this 'think aloud'. The teacher educator aims to provide insight into the practical wisdom that underpins the design and facilitation of the taught session. They may refer to their underlying beliefs and values and will position the session as an example of adult education.

LEVEL 2a: Building from explicit modelling the teacher educator relates their practical wisdom to public knowledge: the teacher educator extends their explicit modelling to make some connections from the choices they have made, representing their practical wisdom as a teacher, to public knowledge (published work including learning theory, research evidence, professional guidance and policy).

LEVEL 2b: Building from explicit modelling the teacher educator encourages reconstruction by student teachers: the teacher educator may introduce an activity that requires student teachers to respond to the issues raised in the modelling by reflecting on their own classroom practice. The student teachers begin to consider how they may be able to reconstruct the approaches to teaching or professional values that have been modelled within their own classroom practice.

It should be noted that in the proposed framework set out in Figure 3. the refinements 2a and 2b are activities that build from explicit modelling, that is not to deny that they may also be used by teacher educators in other situations.

Modelling is a contested element of teacher education and the literature identifies a distinct strategy in teacher education of using a 'lesson within a session'. For example, in their paper Wood and Geddis (1999) focus on a teacher education session within which an example school maths 'lesson' is being taught as a kind of role taking with the tutor playing the class teacher and the student teachers playing the role of pupils. Role taking involves switching to lessons pitched at the age phase of the pupils that the student teachers are being trained to teach. This distinguishes it from congruent teaching which is using strategies in teacher education, a subject discipline in higher education, that have a rationale based in learning theory and may be reconstructed for use in the school classroom. Using a 'lesson within a session' is an element of modelling in teacher education that adds complexity to the situation.

Much of the literature on modelling in teacher education is based on self study but a small scale empirical study argued that student teachers *experience* the teaching by their lecturer and modelling enables the teacher educator to act as a role model (Lunenberg, Korthagen and Swennen, 2007). These researchers argue that pedagogical innovation by teacher educators, made explicit through modelling, may be powerful in influencing change in the practice of their student teachers. The study used observation of teacher education sessions and then checking of the findings with the lecturer. They found only modest amounts of modelling in the practice of their sample of ten teacher educators. Another study focused on school-based teacher educators and found that congruent teaching appeared to be widespread but explicit modelling was rare (van Velzen and Volman, 2009).

Explicit modelling as a strategy in teacher education is not straightforward and teacher educators may struggle to recognize differences between their espoused pedagogy and their actual teaching behaviours (Loughran and Berry, 2005). Collaboration and co-teaching have been found to be useful by teacher educators in developing their modelling practice (Wood and Geddis, 1999; Loughran and Berry, 2005). In a small scale study coaching support for three teacher educators increased their ability to link theory and practice as suggested in level 2a of the model in Figure 3., (Swennen, Lunenberg and Korthagen, 2008).

One of the risks of explicit modelling is that in some ways it makes the teacher educator vulnerable by requiring them to reflect publicly on their practice including all its limitations (Loughran and Berry, 2005). Occasionally, students and even colleagues may take advantage of this in inappropriate ways, perhaps by citing mistakes admitted by the teacher educator as part of their explicit reflection. Accepting this measure of vulnerability does not appear to be an unreasonable demand on teacher educators as they clearly hold positions of power in relation to their student teachers. However, in many cases, including the UK, the quality assurance context and inspection regime of teacher education help to create a relatively high degree of account-ability and it would not be surprising if teacher educators felt constrained in the extent to which they are willing to make themselves vulnerable through explicit reflection on their practice during modelling.

Very little work has been done on the impact of modelling on the learning and practice of student teachers. One study investigated a large number of students completing a child development course using a quasi-experimental approach contrasting student responses to a course based on lectures versus activity based learning (Struyven et al., 2010). This study found that there was no simple link between the way student teachers were taught and their classroom practice and showed considerable critical reflection and recon-struction by the student teachers. However, this study appeared to focus on the impact of congruent teaching rather than explicit modelling.

Teacher educator conceptions

This section applies the analytical framework for modelling presented in Figure 3. to data from semi-structured interviews in two case studies of teacher educators based in different workplace settings within the UK. This exploratory qualitative analysis provides some insight into the practice of teacher educators and is used to inform an evaluation of the framework.

TWO CASE STUDIES

One group of teacher educators (n=12) are volunteer participants based in seven Further Education (FE) colleges in the north-west region of England and they are training teachers to work in the lifelong learning sector or post compulsory phase of education. This group of teacher educators are providing Higher Education

(HE) teacher education programmes but in Further Education College contexts. They will therefore be referred to as 'HE in FE teacher educators'. The student teachers taught by this group are specialists in a wide range of subjects and may teach in the College or in the workplaces of partnership employer organisations. Many of these student teachers already have an established identity within their vocational area of work for example as a bricklayer, hairdresser, police officer and so on. The study of these HE in FE teacher educators used the semi-structured interviews of twelve lecturers with a range of professional experience in teacher education combined with prior vocational and teaching experience in colleges. The schedule for the semi-structured interviews included a prompt question asking about the place of 'modelling' within their approach to teaching student teachers and this provided a data source for the current paper.

The second group of teacher educators (n=9) were volunteer participants based in a case study university department who train teachers for early years and school age phases up to secondary school, which in England means 11 to 18 year olds. For the purposes of this paper these teacher educators are referred to as 'University based teacher educators'. The student teachers in this group are a mixture of undergraduates on three year degree programmes and postgraduates on one year courses who are training to be school teachers. The study of these university based teacher educators used the semi-structured interviews of nine lecturers in a longitudinal case study of a large teacher education university department. The lecturers had between five and ten years of experience in higher education roles combined with prior teaching experience in schools. The interview process asked them to bring and discuss a session plan or teaching resource and to discuss the relevant teacher education session in relation to their chosen teaching strategies.

CONGRUENT TEACHING

Both groups of teacher educators recognised their use of congruent teaching. They claimed to employ congruent teaching strategies, approaches and behaviours that they hoped their student teachers would experience and apply, with different degrees of reconstruction required, in their own classrooms and wider practice. The main focus of the teacher educators is on modelling of a range of strategies that may be used directly or after reconstruction by their student teachers in their own classrooms.

'*…as a Teacher Educator I want to be using the best, up to date, current practice in my teaching. Anyone who comes into my class I would like to think will see examples of to coin a better phrase 'Rolls Royce teaching' so in every way using all the inclusive practice, differentiating where I can but also embracing the best current practice as regards technologies*'

(HE in FE teacher educator)

HE in FE teacher educators training teachers for post compulsory phase hold one conception of modelling as demonstrating what is accepted in their institution as 'good practice' in teaching:

'*…College has its own Teaching and Learning Model [for Further Education] that, as teacher educators, we are expected to promote…*'

(HE in FE teacher educator)

This model of 'good practice' is usually seen as a local set of College rules about how to teach well but it is acknowledged by the teacher educators that it is strongly influenced by the views and criteria of the government appointed quality review body who observe and assess teaching during inspection visits. The review body have direct influence on teacher education practice, for example in one further education college:

'*[the programme's teaching observation proforma was] designed with those [external quality review body criteria] in mind and there is a link…and part of that was feeling a responsibility to our Trainee Teachers that when they finish with us…and they're cast out into the Institution that [external review body] type observations by…internal quality teams, isn't then a shock and we're not grading them in 1's and 2's and then the audit team come crashing in and say 'well actually you're inadequate'…*'

(HE in FE teacher educator)

The analysis suggests that for these employer-based teacher educators there are very strong and direct quality assurance contextual pressures and systems on teacher education practice. Quality assurance was also important to the

University based teacher educators, but in their workplace the institutional 'rules' for what constitutes good practice were more distinctly related to expectations for higher education of adults. However, many of these University based teacher educators use role play and congruent teaching as occasions when they feel they are demonstrating the 'good practice' of school teachers as defined by the national quality review body for teaching in schools.

Although these teacher educators mainly see modelling in relation to teaching strategies some also claim to model values such as being student-centred or supporting the diversity of learners. Some HE in FE teacher educators did not use the term 'modelling' but when probed they described elements of congruent teaching as part of their practice. Some HE in FE teacher educators considered modelling to be only appropriate to student teachers in the early stages of training. The teacher educators linked their constrained use of modelling to the fact that many of their student teachers are in vocational subjects and teach in practical workshops and workplaces. They did not consider their modelling of taught sessions to be directly relevant to these student teachers. In some ways this reflected their limited conception of modelling which was often focused on demonstrating 'good practice' in classroom teaching rather than emphasising critical reflection as a teacher.

University based teacher educators training teachers for school age phases often introduced the term 'modelling' unprompted into discussion of their taught sessions and were familiar with the term even if they did hold a varied range of conceptions of what it involves. These teacher educators frequently used a lesson within a session. In these cases to some degree they appear to take roles and treat the group of student teachers as a class of pupils in order to demonstrate school teaching and school classroom management:

> '...so I tended to model effective practice in secondary (school) classes, but I'm still wondering if modelling that is necessarily the right way that adults learn...'

> (university teacher educator)

These teacher educators do not distinguish clearly in their descriptions of practice between modelling and role taking.

Members of both groups of teacher educators claim to sometimes include an element of metacognition, learning to learn, for example in the plenary of their taught sessions. However, for the purposes of analysis this is not

considered to be explicit modelling unless some kind of stepping out by the tutor is described in which the process of metacognition is reflected on as a teaching strategy. In other words there needs to be an additional layer to the tutor's approach in order for the practice to become explicit modelling. In part this is related to the lack of distinction made by the teacher educators between their own higher education practice and the academic and age phase level of teaching by their student teachers. If this distinction is not made by the tutors in their description of modelling they are not considered to be using explicit modelling. This lack of distinction by tutors appears likely to confuse the student teachers because the purpose of the teacher educator within a complex pedagogy is not made clear to the learner.

EXPLICIT MODELLING

About half the members of both groups of teacher educators describe explicit modelling within their teacher education practice:

> '...it's very easy to watch someone who knows what they're doing and who's good at it but not actually realise what they're doing...so I try and make it as explicit as I possibly can...what I'm doing, how I'm doing it, why I'm doing it which is the most important thing...'

> (university teacher educator)

These teacher educators claim that to different degrees they think out loud and unpack the session or a learning activity within it to explain to the student teachers the choices they made in planning and facilitation. This involves some degree of 'stepping out' of the taught session and some emphasis on the impact on student teachers as learners.

Only two of the teacher educators claimed to link their explicit reflection to learning theory and most appear to only explain their practice in terms of practical wisdom. One of the colleagues explicitly introducing learning theory explained that they would specifically consider this in planning so that their choice of strategy for a session would reflect the learning theory content of the session:

> *'The organisation [and] management of the session mirrors the content, so for example if I'm doing a session on Social Constructivism…to actually get the students to talk to each other to construct their own knowledge as part of the session…'*

<div align="right">(university teacher educator)</div>

Many of the teacher educators referred to 'practice what we preach' as an explanation of this common sense approach, this is really part of their practice of congruent teaching. For example many of the teacher educators would use assessment for learning strategies in a session whose content is assessment for learning. However, only one teacher educator, unprompted in the interviews, claimed that they would include reference to learning theory in their explicit modelling.

In the data there was little significant evidence of teacher educators finding time for activities in which the student teachers were required to use critical reflection and reconstruct (or reject) the modelled strategy in relation to their own classroom practice:

> *'…it will either be through questioning…why do you think? - or it will be me actually explaining why I'm carrying out a particular task - it's teacher education - I'm explaining the process and the advantages so that the group can not only get that those benefits which I've just alluded to but also in terms of perhaps applying it to their own teaching…'*

<div align="right">(HE in FE teacher educator)</div>

The teacher educators appeared to expect student teachers to undertake this kind of reconstruction during their planning for teaching or their reflection between taught sessions or their work on written assignments. This reconstruction is the underlying purpose and intended outcome of the modelling and is at the heart of realistic teacher education (Korthagen et al., 2001) so that its absence from teacher educator practice seems questionable. In this sense then taught teacher education sessions might consist of a content focused session or activity using congruent teaching followed or interrupted by explicit modelling activity including one or both of the refinements presented in the framework.

SUMMARY

This analysis of teacher educator perspectives may be summarized as follows:
 – Congruent teaching appears to be widely used by teacher educators
 – Congruent teaching is sometimes blurred by use of role play
 – Explicit modelling is used by some teacher educators
 – Teacher educators model teaching strategies but also professional values
 – The workplace setting and quality assurance context influences what is modeled
 – Teacher educators may struggle to 'apply theory to practice'
 – Teacher educators provide only limited time and support for reconstruction by trainees

Clearly more research is required. It should include observation of teacher educators at work and also gather and analyse the voices of trainee teachers. However, despite the limitations of the interview based study it does provide some basis for developing the use of modelling by teacher educators.

Modifying modelling

Broadly speaking this analysis of UK based teacher educators supports the findings of European studies. The framework for modelling based on current literature and presented in Figure 3. provides a useful base to guide the pedagogy of teacher educators. However, as indicated by previous studies, there certainly seems to be a need for further development of modelling by teacher educators (Lunenberg, Korthagen & Swennen, 2007).

Many teacher educators appear to rely mainly on implicit modelling through congruent teaching and they need to consider to what extent this has an impact on their trainee teachers. Practitioner research, including analysis of trainee teacher perspectives would help teacher educator teams to better understand their practice. Congruent teaching as a strategy may become blurred with role play by some teacher educators and this seems likely to confuse trainees. Congruent teaching may also be strongly influenced by the workplace setting, including the quality assurance regime. Teacher educators need to develop awareness of their context and consider how it influences their strategies and professional values. Moving towards more explicit modelling might help many teacher educators to clarify their position, not least by forcing them to confront and reflect on their own pedagogical design choices.

In refining explicit modelling teacher educators appear to struggle to 'apply theory to practice' although a small scale study found that coaching was useful (Swennen et al., 2008). It may be useful for teacher educators to adopt alternative metaphors for professional learning. Positioning teacher learning as interplay between vertical and horizontal domains of knowing may help to more highly value the practical wisdom of teachers but critically consider it in relation to public knowledge including policy. In facilitating this interplay teacher educators will need to be knowledgeable, confident and skilled in critically engaging with public knowledge as well as with practical wisdom. School-university partnership in teacher education brings together teacher educators who are likely to have different strengths in each domain. The level of scholarship required of teacher educators in school-based teacher education programmes where the input of a university is minimal is a contested issue (Boyd & Tibke, 2012; White, 2013).

The refinement of reconstruction also deserves attention by teacher educators. Students may reconstruct their learning experiences in different ways as they move across in to their own classrooms as beginner teachers (Struyven et al., 2010). Allowing time and providing support for reconstruction, following explicit modelling, may not always be necessary or feasible but it certainly seems worthy of some consideration and of further investigation by teacher educators.

The analysis raises some questions for teacher educators in relation to their use of modelling and the framework based on the literature has been enhanced by including some prompt questions in Figure 4.

Figure 4. A framework for modelling, by teacher educators, in formal taught sessions

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Teacher educator modelling in formal taught sessions

LEVEL 1: Implicit modelling using congruent teaching: the teacher educator deliberately uses teaching and learning strategies and demonstrates professional values that reflect 'good practice' in facilitation of adult learning but that are also relevant to the student teachers' own approaches to teaching. This congruent teaching aims to influence the emerging pedagogy of student teachers and subsequently their practice in classrooms. Within this level the teacher educator may facilitate metacognitive thinking by student teachers about their own learning but does not explicitly ask them to consider how their own experience as learners might influence their approach to teaching.

In what ways is my teaching congruent with the workplace of the student teachers?
To what extent am I distinguishing clearly between role play and congruent teaching?
How does my context, including the quality assurance regime, influence my pedagogy?
What impact is congruent teaching having on the emerging pedagogy of my student teachers?

Teacher educator modelling in formal taught sessions

LEVEL 2: Explicit modelling of critical reflection on practice: the teacher educator steps out of the session and thinks out loud about their approach to teaching. If another teacher educator is in the session then a reflective dialogue between the two teacher educators may take the place of this 'think aloud'. The teacher educator aims to provide insight into the practical wisdom that underpins the design and facilitation of the taught session. They may refer to their underlying beliefs and values and will position the session as an example of adult education.
To what extent am I prepared to explicitly and critically reflect on my teaching?
What impact is explicit modelling having on the emerging pedagogy of my student teachers?

LEVEL 2a: Building from explicit modelling the teacher educator considers how their practical wisdom relates to public knowledge: the teacher educator extends their explicit modelling to make some connections from the choices they have made, representing their practical wisdom as a teacher, to public knowledge (published work including learning theory, research evidence, professional guidance and policy).
To what extent is it possible or helpful to relate my design choices to public knowledge?
How does my modelling help student teachers to reflect on their own classroom practice?

LEVEL 2b: Building from explicit modelling, the teacher educator encourages reconstruction by student teachers: the teacher educator may introduce an activity that requires student teachers to respond to the issues raised in the modelling by reflecting on their own classroom practice. The student teachers begin to consider how they may be able to reconstruct the approaches to teaching or professional values that have been modelled within their own classroom practice.
When and to what extent do my student teachers reconstruct their personal learning experiences to inform their own classroom teaching?
How does explicit modelling provoke such reconstruction?

Explicit modelling appears to be a strategy for linking 'learning to teach' to 'teaching to learn' (Loughran, 2006) and so for taking advantage of the position and experiences of new teachers as learners. Modelling may also be a strategy for linking layers of learning within teacher education, for example from teacher educator learning to student teacher learning. As a speculative thought, with further investigation and development, it might help student teachers in turn to model 'being a learner' for their pupils or students.

Figure 5. A layered pedagogy for teacher education

Teacher educator learning to teach (scholarship and research)	Teacher educator teaching to learn (critical reflection / enquiry)
Teacher educator uses explicit modelling of being a teacher learning from practice	
Trainee teacher learning to teach (taught sessions)	Trainee teacher teaching to learn (workplace learning)
Trainee teacher uses explicit modelling of being a learner	
Pupil / student learning	Pupil / student learning to learn

The proposal set out in Figure 5. suggests a more explicit acknowledgement by teacher educators of the domains of their complex and layered pedagogy. The teacher educator models 'being a learner' for the trainees. The trainees in turn model 'being a learner' for their pupils or students. The teacher educator is modelling being a learner and ways of knowing within the professional field of teacher education and development. The trainee teacher is modelling being a learner and ways of knowing within a particular curriculum subject discipline, for example modelling being a Historian or being a Scientist.

In conclusion, it seems clear that further research and development work is needed on the impact of explicit modelling by teacher educators on the learning and practice of new teachers, not least because modelling appears to be a strategy in teacher education that takes advantage of the explicit position and experience of the trainee teacher as a learner. It may be possible to develop 'modelling' beyond the framework based on the current literature to provide the glue that will improve the coherence for trainee teachers between the domains of knowing and layers of purpose within their complex 'learning experiences'. Meanwhile, it appears that Russell's helpful statement of 'How I teach IS the message' (1997) might need to be refined to the perhaps less exciting but more precise 'How I continue to learn to teach IS the message'.

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CHAPTER 4

Advancement of Teaching in Higher Education: a Portuguese Project

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Abstract

The paper presents a pedagogical intervention project, originated at the College of Education of the Polytechnic Institute of Coimbra, Portugal, in 2007. The ultimate goal of this project is to promote innovation, quality and excellence in higher education. Currently, the project has several activities and resources, available for higher education teaching staff and researchers who wish to improve their pedagogical skills. These include workshops, publications, teaching tips, and consulting services that address subjects as diverse as: teaching in the classroom; tutorial teaching; e-learning; assessment methods; motivation; and diversity of students. Besides being an important means of pedagogical support, these resources are also seen as an important way to disseminate pedagogical methods, strategies and innovative ideas for higher education. The project is informed by and connected to the recent literature and research on college teaching.

Key words: College teachers, Higher Education, Pedagogical support, Pedagogy

Some thoughts about the redefinition of teaching and learning

In recent decades, higher education institutions all over the globe have been redefining their view of teaching and learning, responding to advances in educational and psychological research on one hand, and to economic and social challenges on the other. Higher education institutions have been subject to the pressure of a competitive market place, which demands from them a proper preparation of undergraduate and graduate students and citizens.

This redefinition, that was greatly pushed forward by The Bologna Accord, resulted in a consequent shift in the way roles were being redefined, and educational practices were being planned and executed.

In Cross (2001) and Pinto's (2008) perspectives we were, and still are, watching a paradigm shift, concerned to foster more learning and less instruction. As Evans and Nation (2000) put it, on regard to the contemporary universities "change is the name of the game" (p. 160). Because of these transformations, more or less imposed on the system, the enhancement of meaningful and useful learning became the pedagogical focus.

Traditionally, it was expected that a teacher in a higher education system would instruct students in a certain discipline or domain. The most common pedagogical approaches where meant to convey information and this was confined to the classroom. The student was expected to attend classes, listen, study and reproduce the information imparted, usually in a written exam.

But, the change from a traditional on-campus teaching, with an exclusive system of teaching and learning to one of an open university, without walls and with an inclusive system of teaching and learning has been set (Peters, 2000), and demanded some shifts and posed a few challenges.

Teaching in higher education is nowadays a more complex endeavor (Beckerman, 2010) in which the teacher has to build educational experiences, sometimes settings, guided by the goal of enhancing students' knowledge, cognitive and psychosocial skills and learning engagement. The creation of such educational experiences is no longer confined to the classroom or instruction. Several other educational activities (such as mentoring, guiding and advising), or settings (classroom, surrounding community, enterprises, organizations) are equally part of the equation. Teachers' and students' roles are, by definition, in a major and continuous flux. Students are expected to become active, engaged and autonomous in the learning process instead of being mere passive receptors and reproducers. The teacher is expected to facilitate or promote active learning, rather than just impart information and assess its acquisition by students on a final exam. Accordingly, learning is not just receiving and remembering new information, but rather understanding what the new information means and integrating it to what one already knows, it's connecting new information to a learner´s former or existing knowledge thereby creating something new and learning is also viewed more as a process where the learner keeps learning on a continuous basis.

Some researchers consider that the process of using new knowledge to interpret experiences and enhance understanding is a social process, resulting from social interaction, rather than solely an individual process. According to Vygotsky (1962; 1978), individuals' development occurs in two mutually dependent levels: the social level (social interactions between individuals) and the intrapersonal level. To this author, the interpersonal process is converted into an intrapersonal one. Social discourse is used to interact with others, and internal discourse, with a self-regulating function, is used to talk to one's self, to think about, to reflect critically.

Inspired by Vygotsky's work, more recent researchers such as Goldstein (1999), Levine, Resnick and Higgins (1996) and Wenger (1998), came to claim that environments are a fundamental part of thought and emotional growth and development. According to these authors, environments can't be regarded as a set of circumstances in which cognitive and emotional processes function independently. Environment seems to matter.

From these researchers two main ideas arise. Firstly the learning process is active and constructed. Secondly, the building of new knowledge and meanings are closely connected with learning contexts and environments. In order to enhance individuals' higher order thought skills such as analysis, synthesis, reflexive judgment, critical thinking, and problem solving skills these contexts and environments must be necessarily rich and engaging (Astin, 1997; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). Braskamp and Ory (1994) also argue that a learning environment that promotes cooperation rather than competition, and proficiency rather than social comparisons, will encourage students to develop the important skill of self directed learning.

From all that has been written, the teacher's responsibility looms largely in the task of creating rich and engaging educational environments. This change in emphasis from instruction towards learning, demands from the teacher a whole new set of pedagogical skills.

Pedagogical approaches must also answer to a public becoming more diverse each day, which poses more challenges on us about teaching and learning processes (Pinto, 2008). Cannon and Newble (2000) also call attention to the diversity of student population, the consequent greater flexibility in learning and teaching and the concern to ensure equity in the education provided for all students. They address other challenges that are also important in our perspective and work, including strategies to internationalize higher education, a growing recognition of emotional

aspects, the enhancement of lifelong learning, and the use of technology as a tool in learning and teaching.

According to this, we believe that such responsibility demands institutional support systems and opportunities that can assist teachers with these overwhelming and continuously evolving tasks. This assumption explains the beginning of Project OPDES (Orientações Pedagógicas para Docentes do Ensino Superior - Pedagogical Guidelines for Faculty), a pedagogical intervention project, originated at the College of Education of the Polytechnic Institute of Coimbra, Portugal, in 2007.

For the purpose of the project presented here, the redefinitions of teaching and learning and the provisions of support for advancement in teaching must necessarily be framed within a conceptual model for a better understanding of teachers' training needs, their perceptions of teaching and its enacted practices. Our choice falls on Kuh and associates (Kuh & Whitt, 1988; Kuh & Hall, 1993) approach of institutional culture. According to these researchers, in order to understand how teachers behave, one must know and describe its culture. Higher education institutions are more than buildings, resources, politics and practices. They are also social communities, with a culture of its own. For this point, as stated by Fanghanel (2004, p. 578), "context is all important in making sense of an initiative of this nature".

Institutional Culture: a framing reference for a better understanding of OPDES experience

According to Kuh and Hall (1993, p. 12–13), institutional culture is defined as "the collective mutually shaping patterns of norms, values, practices, beliefs and assumptions which guide the behavior of individuals and groups in an institution of higher education and provide a frame of reference within which to interpret the meaning of events and actions on and off campus." According to these authors, institutional culture can be regarded as a lens through which members of a higher education institution (e.g. teachers or lecturers) observe and evaluate their academic experiences. This lens, as they call it, can become very useful tool for shedding light on how teachers interact with their institutions', disciplines' and departments' various characteristics and properties, concerning their approach to teaching and learning.

Four levels of analysis are possible: artifacts, perspectives, strategic values and beliefs (Kuh 1996; Kuh & Hall, 1993). Artifacts, considered the most

visible properties of an institutional culture, include physical, verbal and behavioral features that identify participants as members. All higher education institutions have physical (e.g. buildings, surrounding landscapes or other physical attributes of reference), verbal (e.g. language, stories, myths associated with its own culture) and behavioral artifacts (e.g. activities, events, daily rituals and ceremonies) that bind its members.

Perspectives refer to behavior rules and social norms that have become widely shared inside the institution. These keep its members aware of how things should be done and determine what is acceptable considering the different institutional settings.

Strategic values, the mirror of an institution' ideals, guide its members in the judgment of situations, actions, objects, people, or at problems resolution. Kuh and collaborators (Kuh, Kinzie, Schuh, Whitt, & Associates, 2005; Kuh, Kinzie, Buckley, Bridges, & Hayek, 2006) refer to these as the declared/ espoused missions and philosophies. However, not always the declared values necessarily correspond to what it's actually done (the enacted mission and values).

Institutional culture also includes the beliefs used by its members (e.g. teachers) to define their roles, their relationships with others and the nature of the institution in which they work. These beliefs are connected to their praxis. An interesting study conducted by Fanghanel (2009) reveals us that teachers' ideologies about their field play a very important role in their discipline conceptions and practices.

Most of higher education institutions have different subcultures, which may differ in terms of its values and beliefs (e.g. students, teachers, and staff belong to different subgroups). Even between teachers' group, several subcultures can be identified according, for example, to their field of expertise or discipline, to the department to which they belong, etc.

In sum, culture is entangled in institutional' mission and philosophy, policies and practices, traditions and interactions between its members. It's worth noting teachers' representations or conceptions of teaching and learning are closely attached to the context and to the meanings they give to their experiences. According to Fanghanel (2004, p. 579), because human activity is rather complex, its comprehension requires necessarily analyzing the context, i.e., take into account the interactions between people involved in the activity, in which structures such interactions occur, its underlying conventions and artifacts being used.

The Polytechnic of Coimbra has presently six colleges that offer under-graduate and post-graduate studies in the field of hard applied and soft applied disciplines. Each college has its own teaching and learning culture. Even sometimes, inside the same college, different perspectives and praxis coexist, because different fields of expertise are organized into departments, each with its conceptions and values (espoused and enacted).

Recently, a study conducted by Silva (2012) with teachers from one of these colleges confirmed, within this context, interesting issues, of importance for the project. In order to know teachers' perspectives about institutional mission and values and beliefs about teaching and learning and how those conceptions reflected on their teaching practices, Silva (2012) conducted a qualitative study with 21 teachers from one of the colleges of Polytechnic Institute of Coimbra. Afterwards, 31 students from all undergraduate courses were interviewed in order to understand if enacted practices were consonant with "espoused practices". For a better understanding, teachers from different disciplines (performing arts, social sciences, engineering, education) were selected.

For the most part of the teachers, the main mission of higher education was teaching. Only a few mentioned research. This conception reflects Portuguese history about the two existing systems of higher education: university, historically more concerned about research, and polytechnic more focused on vocational training/teaching and on applied science. Another interesting data allowed us to realize that teaching meant two things, mainly for teachers whose disciplines were in the domain of social sciences and education: to prepare students to become good professionals in their domain of expertise and to guide them towards their full potential as individuals, i.e., to foster their global development, further than just intellectual development. To teachers from engineering, teaching was more focused on vocational training. Accordingly, teachers conceived their role and pedagogical enactments: the first group of teachers was fonder of using a great diversity of pedagogical methods (e.g. active learning strategies, collaborative learning, researching and analyzing, reflexive portfolios, oral presentations and discussions of students findings, experiences resembling working experience, prompt feedback about students learning process and results); the second group focused their efforts on getting students into the subject through lectures and providing students with learning experiences similar to professional

contexts, stimulating them so solve problems, and always being present to support their learning.

Because espoused conceptions and values don't necessary mean they are enacted, students were also asked to talk about classes dynamics, confirming and validating teachers' conceptions and practices inside and outside classes. This lead us to the perception that teachers' conceptions and values of teaching and learning are a strong guide of their pedagogical behavior inside and outside class.

This study was also important by the fact it supported an assumption present since the very beginning of the project OPDES, when the first contact was made with different teachers coming from all the colleges of Polytechnic Institute: they all had different perspectives about teaching and learning, partly resulting from their experiences as teachers in a particular cultural context and their expectations towards the project reflected exactly that. One important implication for the project, if we wanted it to become successful was that any initiative/activity taken should take into consideration each teaching subculture. Another was for the need of constantly getting on feedback about their teaching needs, considering their institution mission and values in order to provide with proper and prompt support.

The organization's culture is not immune to external influence. On the one hand, if institutional culture influences the way an individual thinks and behaves, on the other, new students, teachers, other institutions or agencies outside also present its influence by bringing different perspectives and fostering different attitudes. These differences can stimulate productive disagreements and force the institution to examine its practices.

Higher education pedagogy: beginning and evolution in Portugal

Despite the fact that research about pedagogical issues and practices at Portuguese higher education institutions is still relatively new, "scarce, incomplete and fragmentary" (Esteves, 2012, p. 56), there have been some developments over the last years, revealing that the recognition and interest in this domain is growing (Alarcão & Gil, 2004; Esteves, 2012).

Esteves (2012, p. 63) tell us about some "pioneering" experiences in Portugal, examples that this author considers "paths to a fruitful alliance between research - teaching – quality". Such experiences include the engagement

of teachers from different academic disciplines in group research projects, guided by the need to understand the phenomena, to introduce innovations and assess its effects.

This increased interest in the improvement of pedagogical skills among college and university teachers has led some researchers in our country to talk about a movement, whose main intention is to raise the profile of higher education pedagogy through its discussion and dissemination (Vieira, Silva, & Almeida, 2010). The Project OPDES is a purposeful contribution to this movement since it highlights pedagogical knowledge and skills as a central aspect of faculty activities.

Over the last decade, the redefining of the higher education system and faculty activity has been a reality we cannot deny (Ramos, 2010). From a system focused on research and knowledge reproduction, we have been gradually redefining its role to one more focused on vocational and professional qualification along with the student's psychosocial development. Since the Bologna Process, these changes have become clearer and inevitable. In fact as Cunha, Amaro and Marques (2010) note, the organization of a European Education Area brought us new responsibilities concerning among others, new ways of curricula management based on the development of competences, and teaching and learning approaches different from those of a very recent past. The current European educational space, more uniform thanks to the Bologna accord, also demands that higher education institutions rethink faculty pedagogical training to adjust to this new European project aligned with the local needs.

It is assumed that in order to be or become a good teacher, a solid background within the scientific domain is no longer enough. Pedagogical knowledge and skills are also needed, and these can be promoted, learned, researched, and shared. There is a large group of researchers that pinpoint the importance of certain pedagogical practices and methods for students' learning, engagement and academic success (Chickering & Gamson, 1987; Kuh et al., 2005; Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991, 2005; Tinto, 1997, 2002, 2003, 2006–2007).

Quality in Higher Education demands great investment in pedagogical activities (Marques & Pinto, 2012). We consider traditional punctual, unarticulated pedagogical training, most of the time exclusively supported by the teacher alone, as neither adequate nor sufficient. Additionally, in agreement with Ambrósio (2001), we believe that faculty pedagogical training should

surpass or go far beyond the mere improvement of technical skills needed for the management of the pedagogical act, and also focus on the building of teachers' and researchers' pedagogical knowledge and teaching/training skills, underlining here a double role: teaching and researching on teaching and learning. In order to achieve this double function, spaces of shared discussion, learning opportunities that allow teachers to experiment and solve problems in action research modes (Kemmis & McTaggart, 2000), must be fostered and aligned, as previously stated, with the institutional mission and values of higher education institutions (Kuh et al., 2005). As Huba and Freed recognized "few of us have had opportunities to study teaching the way we study topics in our own disciplines" (2000, p. 2).

To find a synergy between teaching and research (Kember & MacNaught 2007, p.139) we may present three examples:

> "The first example shows how research can benefit teaching by providing real-life applications as interesting cases illustrating the application of theory."

> "The second example is of teaching benefiting research. Ideas and material for publications can come from planning courses and activities in courses."

> "The final form of synergy comes from teachers researching into their own teaching. Innovative teaching can be turned into publications."

As Light and Cox (2001) describe, there are tensions separating three 'worlds' – student, teacher and researcher. As they illustrate in Figure 1 Diagram A, the linear model, the teaching-research relationship is detached. "One practice is 'achieved' at the expense of the other practice".

Diagram A
(Linear Model)

research

teaching

Diagram B
(Intersubjective Model)
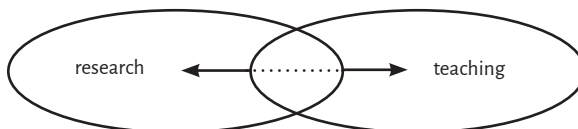
research

teaching

Figure 1 - Conceptualizing research and teaching (Light & Cox, 2001, p. 35)

In Figure1 Diagram B, the 'intersubjective' model, the relationship is described in terms of the 'overlap' between teaching and research, in a constructive engagement. The figure proposes two ways to achieve this: from research to teaching and from teaching to research. This model applies Schön's (1983) perspective of reflective practice and establishes a dialogue between these worlds, in an integrated understanding about the higher education world.

The guiding principles of OPDES are not founded in a restrictive conception of pedagogy, focused solely on the teaching and learning processes. On the contrary, these principles consider the higher education system as a multidimensional and complex context of four developmental axes suggested by Zabalza (2002): university politics; subjects, curriculum, science and technology; professional activity; students and the market place. The activities of the OPDES Project were designed to support faculty in the acquisition and improvement of pedagogical skills and the enhancement of reflexive and active questioning about the pedagogical practices of each and all, aligned with the ultimate goal of higher education: the development of highly successful students and therefore societies.

The efficacy of teaching and students' success can be improved if faculty are provided with access to the pedagogical training, support and consultancy needed to help them to know, for instance, how an individual thinks as a student, which aspects determine the learning they accomplish, and which methods or pedagogical approaches best fit the diversity in a classroom. The availability of institutional structures and support services is one important

step that can help faculty to consider the problems faced, and find, through the cooperation among peers and/or through technical support, the best solutions to solve such problems.

Portugal is still in need of a long standing tradition of action-research in this area, like that in many European countries, mainly the Anglo-Saxon countries, where for more than three decades faculty activity is thought to require specific pedagogical training. As Esteves (2012, p. 57) states "what we need to know to work in a given course, in a given subject, with a given group of students at a given institution is not prescribed in advance. We need to discover it by using the "action schemas" from theory and, if possible, constructing new theories from practices that are the subject of systematic inquiry, especially if we want to produce pedagogical change and innovation."

In accordance with Correia and Mesquita (2006), we also advocate the urgency of providing opportunities for faculty to learn and develop innovative pedagogical approaches that can foster students' success and learning.

Research development about and in teaching is a fundamental way to enhance a positive impact on teachers' pedagogical practices (Vieira, 2009). Therefore, teachers should be the protagonists of their own professional development in teaching (Esteves, 2012). The redefinition of professional teaching requires teachers to study their practices, engage in dialogue with each other and disseminate their experiences, contradicting the pedagogical isolation that has characterized their work for so long, "abandoning definitely the pedagogical autism as a way of being a teacher" (Vieira, 2009, p. 293).

Such processes of professional development of Higher Education teachers, based in individual or team project, action-research, collaborative and problem solving oriented, need to be institutionally supported (Esteves, 2012).

Pedagogical support for college teachers: The Project OPDES and the teaching center CINEP

In recent years, the pedagogical support for the teachers of our institution has been provided through several means, mainly by intensive workshops and through an open access resource bank, which includes books about teaching and learning in higher education, pedagogical methods and techniques, and an editorial line that publishes papers from colleagues based in other institutions. These initiatives have been offered not only to our

college's teachers, but also to teachers from other colleges of the Polytechnic Institute of Coimbra.

This intervention project, currently supported by a research team, with the valued contribution and involvement of other teachers from almost all colleges of the Polytechnic Institute, started with two projects: "Pedagogical Guidelines for Faculty" (OPDES) and "Pedagogical Training for Faculty" (FPES) in 2007. During the first stage, between 2007 and 2008, these projects ran with public funds from a Portuguese state organization, Fundação para a Ciência e Tecnologia. At this point the project was only intended for our Polytechnic faculty. However, today the new resources available are suitable for any college teacher and staff member from public or private higher education institutions that might be interested in acquiring or deepening pedagogical knowledge and skills. Indirectly, and long term, it's intended that college students can benefit from the project's actions and results, mainly in terms of their success, learning and development.

From the very beginning the Project benefited from an international partnership with two centers for pedagogical support and research: University Center for the Advancement of Teaching from Ohio State University, former FTAD-Faculty & TA Development (Columbus, Ohio, USA), and Centre for Teaching Excellence from the University of Waterloo, former TRACE -Teaching Resources and Continuing Education (Waterloo, Ontario, Canada). These centers are organizational structures that provide support for the diverse departments, schools and faculty through a range of activities such as pedagogical guidance and support, conferences, workshops, seminars, personal consultancy, support for research projects, planning programs and pedagogical coordination. This is in line with our intention to introduce university teachers to international culture and to other universities of a reputable international standard (Kember & McNaught, 2007).

In our project the partnership included technical consultancy and external assessment, as well as the acquisition of copyrights for using, translating and adapting some of their pedagogical resources. Being more oriented towards pedagogical training of faculty, both projects (OPDES and FPES) were articulated to develop the following activities and resources:

a) Planning and development of workshops, debates, and conferences focused on pedagogy in higher education;

b) Conception, production, adjustment and divulgation of pedagogical resources for college teachers or faculty;

c) Editing of booklets and manuals concerning several pedagogical issues;

d) Acquisition of books about learning and teaching in higher education, as well as didactical videos and pedagogical games;

e) Building a website in order to spread and make available electronic resources and give pedagogical support to faculty training. These resources support faculty in training sessions or self-directed learning. The project website is located at the Teachers' College webpage (www.esec.pt).

Since the very beginning of the Project's planning and implementation, there has been concern to assure the quality and relevance of these resources, which was mainly due to the international partnership with the aforementioned centers. A pilot course was designed, based on initial faculty pedagogical needs assessment. The evaluations of the participants were essential because they allowed the team to more precisely define their pedagogical training needs and to adjust not only the online resources (teaching tips), but the pedagogical approaches of the trainers themselves during the workshops.

The development of the project was also informed by a focus group with some teachers from our college, who contributed with proposals, critiques and suggestions. Some of these were used to improve the presentation and management of the online teaching tips, at the project's webpage. With the ending of the funding for both projects at the end of 2008 (FPES was more focused on pedagogical training through offering 29 workshops; and OPDES was more focused to make available a permanent resources bank), the team has continued the editorial activity and the improvement of the website.

As a result of the project success and the interest of teaching staff in the institutions, a new teaching center as been created in the institution. In the "Strategic and Action Plan for the 2009–2013 Quadrennial of the Polytechnic Institute of Coimbra", the creation of a pedagogical training and innovation centre was planned to better qualify the teaching staff of the institution, as delineated in our mission statement: "To create a support and teacher training center for higher education teachers, with the aim of helping to promote pedagogical qualification innovation, quality and excellence (…). The activity of this center must be articulated with the colleges'/institutes' Pedagogical Boards and serve as an instrument of intervention attuned to the results of the pedagogical evaluation of the teachers of the IPC" (p. 13).

This new structure, Centro de Inovação e Estudo da Pedagogia no Ensino Superior/ Centre for the Study and Advancement of Pedagogy in Higher Education (CINEP) – www.cinep.ipc.pt – generated new energy and enlarged

OPDES' scope of intervention, inheriting the legacy of the projects OPDES and FPES, by developing, at an institutional level, the pilot-activities started with these projects, and including consultancy, individualized tutoring, pedagogical accreditation, continuing training (workshops, courses and seminars) and the organization of an annual symposium with national and international participation.

We will briefly present these results and products developed over the last 8 years, acknowledging in advance the fact that the goals of both the funded projects OPDES and FPES and the activity of the teaching center CINEP have been largely accomplished through the voluntary involvement of a group of college teachers and researchers interested in pedagogical issues in higher education and already envisaged as a true learning community.

Results and products

1. BOOKLET SERIES AND MONOGRAPHIC SERIES

The major concerns of this two series (the booklets and the Educational Guides) revolve around the processes of teaching and learning in post-secondary education. Methods, activities, strategies and processes that foster the learning process and promote the efficacy of teaching are the core issue in this publication.

The booklet series Pedagogy in Higher Education is published twice a year (in July and December) by CINEP, both online and in paper version, and articles can be published in Portuguese, English, French or Spanish. Case studies, examples of successful projects, the explanation of specific teaching methods, study plans and teaching tips are all welcome in the articles. These can be original contributions or unpublished conference papers. At this time, almost thirty issues have been published. They cover diverse topics including: teaching methods, curriculum development, e-learning and b-learning, learning styles, collaborative learning, transformative evaluation, academic fraud and plagiarism.

The most recent Monographic Series Educational Guides, is published online and in paper version, having six volumes published and six new ones on press. This is a non-periodic collection of monographs focused on specific topics and aiming to provide faculty with specific guidelines for the educational activity. The contributions are practice-oriented and although rigorous and informed by scientific evidence, they include orientations for teaching staff, teaching tips, and strategies or methods easily replicated or adapted.

This series is a complementary resource to the booklets, because they are practice oriented, beyond just developing the chosen topics theoretically.

2. PEDAGOGICAL TRAINING AND THE ANNUAL SYMPOSIUM

Several conferences, workshops and courses have been organized for the teaching staff of the Polytechnic of Coimbra. The training sessions are planned from the needs analysis conducted with teachers and based on their working contexts. Since the first twenty nine workshops, organized under the auspices of the project FPES, seven years ago, more than a hundred sessions where implemented and successful.

Because it wasn't a specific training focused on the scientific disciplines, a shared space was created for reflection, were the teachers from different scientific domains and schools shared problems, reflections and strategies. The evaluation of the workshops and courses is very positive and the majority of the participants usually express a desire for this training to continue, because they recognize not only its contribution to enrich their pedagogical competences, but also the valuable opportunities for debate to discuss and reflect upon problems with positive effects contributing to a sense of cohesion and institutional identity. For many teachers the sharing and critical reflection of their practices through the eyes and ears of their peers is a useful way of becoming critically aware. Brookfield (1995) tells us something very similar. Colleagues' perceptions can help us to acquire a more clear understanding of our practices in need of more attentive analysis. Even with colleagues outside their disciplinary area, teachers acknowledge that they are not alone in their particular concerns. As Kamber and McNaught (2007, p. 17) argue, "if there is a disciplinary body connected to teaching, the focus is probably on what is taught (…) disciplinary bodies do not differ significantly in terms of their vision of what constitutes quality in teaching." The conversations and reflections promoted by this opportunity opened the door to sharing new ways of analyzing problems and new ways of solving them.

Besides the courses and workshops, CINEP started, in its very first year of activity the organization of the International Symposium Study and Advancement of Teaching in Higher Education (SATHE), now already in its fourth edition. This is a successful event, gathering in a couple of days the teaching staff of the whole institution for discussing issues of teaching, pedagogy and related topics.

3. LEARNING RESOURCES

Our institution has a long history in teacher training, but the library didn't have specific books or pedagogical resources for higher education teachers. As a result of our projects, the library of the College of Education has now more than sixty technical resources, including reference books about various issues within the domain of pedagogy in higher education, videos (about lecture, role-playing, body expression and voice, collaborative learning, debate moderation) and pedagogical games (simulation games, group dynamics, icebreaking, creativity promotion and problem solving, motivation games and leadership…).

4. TEACHING TIPS

The teaching tips cover diverse issues of interest for the teachers and are perhaps the simplest, but most effective product of this initiative. They provide, in a quick reading, practical ideas to make teaching more effective, because they can be adapted to the teaching activities of each teacher, regardless of the subjects and degrees. They can be read independently. Most of the teaching tips were translated and adapted from materials from the partners of the Project. Although there are forty-three teaching tips available at the moment, this is a work still in progress, with a lot of potential to be explored.

5. WEBSITE AND SOCIAL NETWORKING: ESEC.PT/OPDES, CINEP.IPC.PT AND FACEBOOK

The first website (www.esec.pt/opdes) was built to promote the dissemination of the materials produced and to support the faculty's pedagogical training. With the creation of the teaching center CINEP, part of the contents of this website, have been relocated and can be seen now at cinep.ipc.pt. This website allows the access to the several publications, such as the Booklets and the Educational Guides, teaching tips, interesting Links and reference documents, and updated information about the activities of the center, such as training, conferences, co-working, learning communities and so on. A facebook page is connected to the website and there a range of interesting events, publications and conference/ paper calls are updated on a daily basis.

6. INTERNATIONAL NETWORKING: INAPHE

CINEP created an international network called INAPHE – International Networking for the Advancement of Pedagogy on Higher Education. The mission of INAPHE is to contribute toward pedagogical innovation and quality in higher education through international cooperation of teachers and researchers. INAPHE is focused on pedagogical study and innovation in higher education, and is composed of an international network of cooperation among these institutions of higher education, via teaching support services for teachers, departments and centers of investigation.

INAPHE's members cooperate in the realm of higher education pedagogy for development of international I&D studies and projects, staff mobility, synergies for international financing, academic publications, and consulting and support for professional development of professors. The network promotes and facilitates international R&D teams, the study of teaching and learning and teaching technologies, International cooperation for innovation in higher education, Staff Mobility, Consultancy for professional development of teachers and academic Publications (especially through the booklets and monograph series).

Final notes

From what has just been stated and described, one may infer the level of effort and importance of these initiatives. Inquiries and regular assessment of the activities developed show that there's an unanimous opinion that these activities are innovative, relevant and worth maintaining.

Publishing online and paper versions of booklets and teaching tips has been an important instrument for the dissemination of methods, strategies and innovative ideas in teaching and learning. The symposium SATHE, started in 2011, is seen as a very special opportunity for the teaching staff of the Polytechnic of Coimbra to discuss (in panel sessions, workshops and round tables) their shared problems and challenges, their vison and ideals about teaching and learning and the connections to relevant topics such as teaching methods, new technologies in teaching, curriculum development and quality and certification of course, etc).

We hope that the spread and growth of this project can contribute to the expansion of pedagogical support services for faculty, the emergence of inno-

vative pedagogical environments, the commitment made by higher education institutions in promoting the quality of education they provide, resulting in the optimization of development opportunities for students and communities.

The support of leadership to the development of learning and teaching support centers, with training programs and institutional and inter-institutional educational action research projects constitutes a condition for building excellence in pedagogy (Esteves, 2008; Kuh et al., 2005). At a time of great operative changes in the contexts of higher education, it becomes even more pertinent to value pedagogical training as an important element in the performance of the teaching profession and pay attention to the signs of negative impact from the devaluation of the pedagogical aspect on the quality of teaching (Simão, Santos, & Costa, 2003).

"It is therefore important that both the general political level, as in institutional and academic plan cherish objectively the value of these missions: to this purpose, current devices for internal and external evaluation of institutions and courses, and performance evaluation teachers should play an important role in the objectification mentioned" (Esteves, 2012, p. 63).

We combine our work and our voice to others who are contributing positively to call attention to the importance of pedagogy in higher education. We conclude by addressing the invitation to readers to join the project. A first step is as simple as visiting the center's website and making suggestions for improvement: www.cinep.ipc.pt.

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Sabancı University School of Languages Trainer Education Program (SLTEP): A Case Study on Trainer Education in Turkey

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Abstract

In Turkey and elsewhere, there is a growing and challenging demand for the professional development of teacher educators in the field of language education. Trainer training continues to be a much-needed area where there is a growing and challenging demand for the education of trainers in the field of language education. This is because more and more language professionals are getting involved in professional development activities in their own institutions and beyond, carrying out classroom observations, giving professional presentations, supervising classroom research, designing various in-service or pre-service activities and courses. However, not many professionals have the opportunity to train as teacher educators and find themselves involved - or at times even 'thrown into' - teacher training with little or no support.

This chapter discusses the design, implementation and evaluation of a two-week intensive trainer training course which has been running at Sabancı University School of Languages in Istanbul, Turkey since 2004: the Sabancı University School of Languages Trainer Education Program (SLTEP). The course aims to help language professionals develop the knowledge, skills and awareness required for effective teacher training with a view to catering for the training and development needs of teachers in their own institutions and in the wider training context.

Key words: trainer education, trainer training, trainer development

Introduction

> Grasp this course with every ounce of your intellect, energy, creativity and imagination and you will be rewarded in ways you could never have conceived.

> (*A former SLTEP participant*)

Among the many challenges we face in teacher education today is also the need to ensure the provision of effective trainer educators to facilitate both formal and informal training at pre- and in-service levels. Even if they may not be called 'trainers' as such, more and more professionals in the field today are contributing to teacher training and development activities in their own contexts and elsewhere within their role as senior teachers, mentors, heads of departments, and school directors. In this paper the term 'teacher educator' is used interchangeably with 'teacher trainer' to refer to any professional involved in a range of training or education activities from facilitating a workshop or input session to supervising or mentoring teachers or working with them through classroom observation and refers not only to those who have the formal title of 'teacher trainer' or 'teacher educator'.

However, not many of these professionals have the opportunity to train as teacher trainers. Some are invited to become teacher trainers because they are highly effective as teachers and work well with their peers, always ready and happy to share with and support others; some are so interested in teacher training that they make use of every opportunity that may arise both in their own contexts and elsewhere, for example by attending workshops, teacher training courses and conferences, by offering several workshops themselves and eventually becoming more involved in training; others find themselves thrown into teacher training because they have many years of teaching experience and are believed by institutional leaders to be the 'right people for the job' (Kurtoglu Eken, 2010).

Whatever the starting point may be, the biggest challenge for any teacher trainer, including those who may even have received some formal training, is the need to continue to invest in their development. The growing demand for teacher trainers in the area of language teacher education necessitates a principled approach to trainer training which allows for exploratory and experiential learning processes promoting personal and professional development.

The Sabancı University School of Languages Trainer Education Program (SLTEP) was designed (and since then delivered) by the author in the year 2003 to help meet the above discussed needs and challenges. It aims to provide an introduction to teacher training in English Language Teaching (ELT) helping participants develop the knowledge, skills and awareness required for effective teacher training with a view to catering for the training and development needs of teachers in their own institutions and in the wider training context at the national and international level. The next section discusses the design and implementation of the SLTEP, highlighting its key principles and practices.

Design and Implementation

SLTEP is designed for language teachers in schools and in higher education in Turkey and in other countries, who have a professional interest in teacher training and is open to all teachers who would like to work in this area as well as less experienced teacher trainers in the field. The course runs every year over a two-week period in the final week of June and the first week of July, with a total of 50 hours of input. Participants are expected to attend all sessions and take active part in all activities. They are also expected to complete all tasks assigned (e.g. readings, reflection and analysis tasks, etc.). Participants who fulfill the Program requirements are awarded a Certificate of Attendance by Sabancı University School of Languages. The key aims of the SLTEP can be presented as follows:

– raising participants' awareness and knowledge of issues related to effective teaching and learning
– giving participants an opportunity to reflect on their own and others' practices as teachers and (potential) trainers
– raising participants' awareness and knowledge of effective training methodology and presentation skills
– giving participants practice in providing methodological and affective support to teachers through classroom observations and individual supervision; and in planning and presenting training sessions
– helping participants develop their knowledge and skills in conducting research in the area of teacher training
– helping participants develop their knowledge and skills in designing professional development activities

Course sessions are designed in the form of interactive lectures and workshops where participants are actively engaged in tasks and activities. There are also video-based classroom observations, simulation activities and discussions in the light of the session material presented. A key feature of SLTEP is micro training, where participants prepare and present workshops in small groups, giving and receiving feedback to and from the other groups as well as from the course tutors; the author herself and several other tutors from the School of Languages. Table 1 below provides information on the core input components on SLTEP with a specification of their weighting on the program; the number of stars in the right hand column indicates the weighting of input and discussion for the given area.

Table 1. Core input areas on the SLTEP

Area	Description	Weighting
effective teaching	beliefs about teaching and learning, criteria for effective teaching, standards in teaching, affective factors, reference in classroom observation	***
affective factors in teacher training	teacher and trainer expectations, anxiety, self-esteem, confidence and competence, support and encouragement	**
classroom observation	supervision styles, counseling and feedback skills, trainer language, principles in giving feedback, procedures and approaches for pre- and post-observation meetings, assessment of teaching practice	****
training methodology	effective training, approaches to training and professional development, trainer language, micro training, approaches to giving input, session planning, giving presentations, designing training tasks and materials	****

research in teacher training	the role of research in training and development, approaches to classroom research, designing research instruments	***
course and activity design in training and development	principles of professional activity design, types of courses, etc.	*

In terms of pre-course processes, it is always useful to carry out needs and interest analysis in order to identify participants' contexts, preferred styles of learning and their expectations. SLTEP participants are sent a needs and interest analysis survey once they register for the course. In addition to background information on their educational context and experience, participants are also asked about their perceived strengths, needs, expectations and preferences (Please see Appendix 1). SLTEP pre-course processes also include pre-course tasks where participants are invited to do some pre-reading before the program and to explore their beliefs and perceptions of teacher training (Please see Appendix 2 for an example of a pre-course task).

In both planning and delivery, aims and input are prioritized with respect to the time available but with a greater focus on quality rather than quantity, where all input, tasks, and procedures are exploited fully as part of a strong thread related to the main aims. In cases where there is a concern for the quantity of what is provided, the trainer provides some of the input in the form of handouts, task sheets, reading and thinking tasks, etc. It is also considered important to balance 'theory' with practical or hands-on processes through a principled variety of techniques and to ensure that the theory presented always relates to relevant teaching principles and practical ideas explored relate to principled teaching. Additionally, there is a need to balance trainer-centered stages with participant-centered stages both at a pair or group-focused level but also in terms of individual space as this can easily be ignored. Finally, it is both important and helpful to keep in mind the fact that the 'trainer' and the 'participants' are the richest sources of input and that there is so much that can usefully be co-produced.

The SLTEP incorporates the above discussed features through a principled approach to training and supervision based on synchronic and sequential co-

herence of input and processes; thinking and reflection-focused tasks; and an exploratory approach. For example, following an introductory session on the program, Week 1 starts off with an exploration of effective teaching, moves on to exploratory practices through research, which then leads to the key theme of classroom observation and supervision, but recycling and building further on the previously-presented areas through the concept of 'observation for research and development' (Please see Appendix 3 for the full program). Table 2 below is an attempt to illustrate core concepts and ideas focused on under the umbrella of classroom observation and supervision. The theme of observation is then incorporated into giving presentations which is the main theme in Week 2, starting off with participants' observation and reflections on the workshops they attend in the mini-conference organized on the last day of Week 1. The hands on practice in the input and the micro training activities allow for further recycling of the theme of observation, and so on and so forth. Such recycling and build up ensures a strong thread and unity across the different themes and components of the SLTEP.

Table 2. Classroom observation and supervision: core concepts and ideas

Core concepts	Descriptive examples
principles of effective supervision	supervisory styles and approaches e.g. Gebhard, 1990; the purpose and nature of observations; building the teacher's confidence and providing support; exploring teacher beliefs on teaching & learning and perceptions of self and students; finding out about the class and students; promoting the idea that the observation is focused on the *whole* lesson; discussing alternative strategies where appropriate; promoting the idea of student learning e.g. quality vs. quantity, that doing more does not necessarily result in more effective learning
the observation cycle with pre- and post-observation meetings	stages and processes; observation, feedback and reflection tools; rationale for choices; developmental data collection processes e.g. Williams, 1989

effective teaching criteria	analytical; holistic and exploratory; grounded in teachers' experiences; problems with checklists e.g. Kurtoglu Eken 2007a: 181–2
feedback skills and processes	oral and written feedback; adopting a positive attitude right from the start; considering the amount of time and effort that the teacher has put into the lesson and the idea that there is always something positive and good in every lesson; commenting on class performance and what students do as well as what the teacher does; ensuring the use of descriptive and factual information to support comments made; 'confirmatory feedback' (Kurtoglu-Hooton, 2004)
principles: trainer language and style	maintaining a balance between ideas suggested and ideas elicited; not using any negative symbols such as exclamation marks, double question marks etc. in written feedback; using modal-imbedded directives also including "maybe' and 'perhaps', "How about...?" "What about...?" etc.; avoiding the use of "should" and imperatives; and avoiding the use of 'but' with critical comments all support a constructive approach and help soften criticism; yet also being honest in both oral and written feedback, particularly with strong points and not to overpraise for positive feedback; reference to the present and/or future rather than the past in comments made and suggestions raised i.e. what the teacher can/could do rather than could/should have done and equally importantly, encouraging the teacher to do the same rather than saying "I shouldn't have done that." etc.

The reading materials, tasks, activities and other resources used on the course mostly come from a range of published articles and chapters by the author and other tutors, and some from other published sources in the area of teacher and trainer training. Several of these are sent to participants before the start of the SLTEP as reading material with several tasks for completion in preparation for the course. As the course progresses, both coreand some extra reading materials are gradually shared in soft copy on an on-line platform to allow participants to have permanent access to the sources even after the completion of the SLTEP.

Yet another core aspect of design and implementation on the SLTEP is grounded in the concept of 'loop input' (Woodward, 1986); a specific type of experiential teacher training process where the process of learning is aligned with the content of learning. Following the thread discussed above in terms of classroom observation, an example at the 'trainer training level' from SLTEP would be a task cycle where participants are invited to observe a lesson in the shoes of the trainer while they observe a lesson extract on video, taking notes using a running commentary and later give each other oral and written feedback in a simulation activity where one participant is the trainer and observer and the other the teacher and observee. Another example, but this time at the 'teacher training level' would be, for example, where SLTEP tutors use an activity or technique such as a competitive game, a running dictation, a jigsaw reading task etc. where the content would be focused on language teaching, but the process on teacher training and where the participants would also be invited to make a mental or even written note of the process and manner in which it is carried out. In this respect, most SLTEP tasks and activities also lend themselves for use in the language classroom with language learners. Participants on SLTEP are made aware of this design feature at the very beginning of the course and encouraged to make a written record of such tasks and activities throughout the program so that by the end of the program they also have notes on process options which they can directly apply in their teaching and/or training contexts.

Last but not least, post-course processes are also an essential yet often neglected aspect on training courses. Along with formative reflective tasks, and immediate end-of-course feedback, SLTEP also - and much more usefully - employs the process of delayed feedback on the course, where participants are invited to complete an online feedback and evaluation survey several months after the completion of the program.

Evaluation

Feedback immediately after a course can also be useful, but on its own, may not necessarily promote healthy reflection and feedback as the course participants may not have had adequate time and individual space to reflect or the opportunity to put ideas and work into practice in their own contexts. Since the first SLTEP in the year 2004, delayed course evaluation and feedback has proven to be a highly useful technique. Despite the fact that it is

administered several months after the course, participants seem to be happy to take part in the evaluation process; the overall participation rate over nine SLTEP courses to date has been 70.3%. This section provides a discussion of the results of this feedback and evaluation process using descriptive statistics and qualitative analysis of the data.

The feedback and evaluation survey consists of 7 open-ended questions focusing on participants' perceptions, views and experiences on the SLTEP, but also 1 rating question asking participants to evaluate a range of different aspects of the course in terms of their effectiveness (Please see Appendix 5 for the feedback and evaluation survey). The questions focus on the useful and less useful aspects of the course; application of learning in teaching and in training practices; suggestions for future courses and advice to future SLTEP participants. The survey is administered on-line using the *SurveyMonkey* software program for ease of data gathering and collation. Once the data is collated and analyzed, it is also fully shared with all participants and tutors.

The findings discussed below represent data from a total of 137 participants, which make up 70.3% of the 195 participants who completed the SLTEP between the years 2004 and 2013.

In response to the opening question on what adjectives they would use to describe the SLTEP, participants most commonly described the course as: inspiring, enlightening, enjoyable, motivating, refreshing, challenging, encouraging, practical, well-organized, professional, thought-provoking, creative, informative, effective and fruitful. These adjectives were also used in participants' responses to other questions.

Table 3 presents selected extracts from different participants and from the large data set to illustrate key themes emerging from the analysis regarding the strengths of the course.

Table 3. Data extracts on key strengths of the SLTEP

Data Extract	Key themes and concepts
The program is very well structured. It is clear that much thought has gone into the preparation and that different ideas have been tried and tested. The way in which the entire program is balanced to provide a spectrum of teacher education in a fun and active way is the aspect I find most useful. It reminds me to constantly try to think broadly while designing preparations for teachers or classroom work; that there are many things to keep in mind pedagogically and logistically, and to be efficient with time. Furthermore that in the end, these preparations should lead to simple, productive, and positive outcomes. Familiarization with many fundamentals of methods and approaches at the beginning of the program and then observing them put into practice throughout was helpful and reinforcing.	**Design of the course:** structure, sequence, balance, familiarization and practice, outcomes
I liked variety the most. That is variety of content, presentations, and styles. Still, the course also had a certain unity.	**Design of the course:** variety but also unity
... Apart from the theoretical knowledge we gained on the program, I saw how much we learned in terms of the practical aspects of teaching. Loop input and experiential learning really worked for me.	**Design of the course:** theory & practice, loop input, experiential learning
The course was extremely professionally designed. I have never had such an experience where I had to wake up early to be on time for classes and to do the readings till late in the evenings. I could never think that I could learn this much within two weeks and also all of the things that were shared were actually applicable. I also believe that as we were given the chance of practising most of the things (i.e. observation, presentation) we were able to explore our own weaknesses and strengths. I still can«t believe that whenever I need (which seems to happen almost every week these days) I go back to my SLTEP notes although I have never needed my M.A. notes.	**Design of the course:** nature and amount of learning, practice opportunities, value of course input and materials

SLTEP taught me that a little more emphasis on creative solutions can help provide more productive engagement. As a recent example, I had to directly provide some information to an audience at a workshop that might otherwise have been boring. So I did it as an interview... with myself - via a „live recording" that I did beforehand - where I recorded myself saying half of the dialogue with hesitations and provided the other half live in the classroom. A little extra work, but it added a little more flavor than just presenting it out of hand. Participants were then invited to respond via email to my „twin brother" with any questions or comments, which they did.	**Learning and applications in training:** creativity and engagement
Right after SLTEP training sessions, as a person who started working as a teacher trainer in the Teacher Development Center [at my university], I had the chance to apply some of the ideas from the sessions...we prepared and presented three sessions on training new instructors. With the help of the SLTEP sessions & the way the trainers presented them I felt inspired to help my colleagues with their professional development. Also, I have had one-on-one feedback sessions with our new colleagues on their lesson plans and peer observation reflections. During those meetings, I benefitted a lot from the sessions on the 'Observation Cycle' and 'The language of feedback'.	**Learning and applications in training:** moving into teacher training, attitude towards training, classroom observation
I found the presentations as a team to be extremely useful, as I had previously presented alone. The benefits of collaborating as a team to create professional development presentations was a really enlightening experience for me. Everyone created fantastic presentations in a limited time frame.	**Learning and applications in training:** micro training experience
I have learnt a lot of practical teaching ideas, activities, songs and games (ghosts & spiders, alphabet run, etc.), I am using most of them in my classes and I remember our sweet SLTEP days. I collected lots of ideas to share with my colleagues after the observation sessions and it helped us so much in my institution during the planning of this semester's observation rules and schedule.	**Learning and applications in teaching and in training:** practical activities, classroom observation

Data Extract	Key themes and concepts
The SLTEP made me much more passionate about my profession. It provided me with an understanding towards professional development…to explore myself in terms of my strengths and weaknesses as a teacher and maybe a prospective trainer…I didn't use to reflect on my teaching as effectively as I do now. After my experience on the SLTEP, I discovered new ways of reflection…did some other readings about reflective teaching and I now try to integrate effective reflection in my teaching…I make use of the practical activities integrated into the sessions as well as the ones other participants shared with us during their presentations. And finally, student feedback became a part of my lessons and my students really enjoy it.	**Learning and applications in teaching:** attitude towards teaching, reflection on teaching, integration of activities, integration of student feedback
With the help of SLTEP training, I can carry out classroom research on a challenging point that I have in my classes. I learnt how to design specific research questions, various research tools and carry out the study. Also, SLTEP helped me explore how to use the results of my research as practical implications.	**Learning and applications in classroom research**
The SLTEP was not only a professional development course but also a personal development course for me. I found the chance of evaluating myself from a different point of view.	**Personal & professional development**
[*advice to future SLTEP participants*] If they are looking for variety and flexibility rather than rigidness, if they want to have a deeper insight and understanding into teaching and training, if they are after maximizing their teaching experience to make it more meaningful, they should enjoy all the sessions. To me, it was not only for professional but also for personal development.	**Personal & professional development**
I am more flexible and open to situations, which require thorough concentration and hard work. In addition, the relation between my peers and supervisors has changed to a more positive and professional way since I«ve understood lifelong learning takes patience and courage.	**Personal & professional development**

The findings revealed that following the course many SLTEP participants had taken on teacher training roles and/or set up training and development units in their own or other institutions. The data additionally showed, however, that SLTEP participants who were not actually in formal teacher training roles or positions still benefitted from the course as they were able to make use of the input and learning in a range of other professional positions and situations. Some examples of these professional roles are presented in the table below.

Table 4. Feedback from participants with professional roles other than 'trainer'

Data extract	Professional role in own institution
I am not actually a trainer but an administrator. However, as my position requires, I sometimes need to observe teachers for a variety of reasons. The course helped me to understand that our attitude towards the teacher who will be observed plays a big role in the effectiveness of the observation.	ADMINISTRATOR
As an academic supervisor at my school, I am now able to make more relevant observation of teachers« lessons and make good comments that a teacher needs to know. I attend the teachers« lessons and use note-taking techniques that we discussed on the course.	ACADEMIC SUPERVISOR
I«m a mentor in my institution and I believe this term I am more effective on guiding my mentees, promoting changes, encouraging and motivating. Also monitoring my language was another important aspect of my professional development.	MENTOR
...In addition to curriculum and assessment work in the level, I also feel I am responsible for leading and training new teachers in my group. We have a level meeting every week, orientation and training programs held by our teacher trainers, mentorship in our institution, but still new teachers might feel lost from time to time. Therefore, I always try to remember that our new colleagues probably have different needs and difficulties. And the key point is the way I approach them...with my wording and even with facial expressions when talking to them.	CURRICULUM, ASSESSMENT AND TRAINING IN LEVEL GROUP

Data extract	Professional role in own institution
I am not acting as a trainer in the institution yet but I hopefully will have a chance to next year. Still, I have the opportunity to utilize all the tips, methods and suggestions in my class or when giving feedback to my peers as the academic coordinator.	ACADEMIC COORDINATOR

Although the feedback and evaluation from SLTEP participants have been overwhelmingly positive over the years it has run to date, it is also important to discuss examples of areas or aspects where suggestions were raised. While some suggestions focused on aspects related to individual sessions, others were more general in nature referring to the general set up of the course as is exemplified in the extract below.

Although it is a very useful course overall we may have had more pre-reading before the course began in order to decrease the workload during the week of the session and be fully conscious about what we were doing during the sessions.

Several participants suggested the need for a greater balance in work modes, for example between group work and individual work:

> "*Sometimes I found the group work sessions less useful because my partners and I don't share similar experiences and were on a different track*".

Although group work was beneficial and fun, there was little room for individual work. Sometimes the learner profiles we have in our own institutions were very different from what was described in the group.

Other comments referred to individual needs focused on practice areas. The concept of 'individual needs' is an important one to highlight here because there naturally was a variation in the expectations expressed on different areas of input based on participants professional responsibilities at work in their own teaching contexts. For example while one participant expressed:

> *It would be great to have more time on practice giving feedback on observations, which I found as the most useful part of the course as I will use it in my work.*

Another course participant said:

> *Personally, and since I am not doing teacher observations this year, the sessions on observations have not been directly applicable for me. That being said, I know a number of people (from the program) who have found that part of the program incredibly beneficial.*

Additionally and interestingly, there were a notable number of participants who stated the need for a longer course i.e. longer than 2 weeks.

The above discussion presents a qualitative analysis of the data obtained in the post-course delayed feedback and evaluation survey from the nine SLTEP courses run between the years 2004 and 2013. It is, however, equally important to look at the quantitative data obtained in the same period and in response to the question where participants were asked to rate the effectiveness of the different aspects of the course. Table 5 below provides data from a total of 137 participants who responded to the survey in the period indicated above. As was discussed earlier, this number represents 70.3% of the 195 participants who completed the SLTEP between the years 2004 and 2013. The ratings for each aspect are provided in percentages.

Table 5. SLTEP participants' evaluation of the different aspects of the course (*n* = 137)

	Aspects	Excellent %	Good %	Not very good %	Poor %	N/A %
1	Organizational aspects (e.g. pre-course correspondence and work, administrative issues during the program itself, etc.)	91	9	0	0	1
2	Course schedule (e.g. number of days, session times and length etc.)	54	33	12	1	0
3	Course content	76	24	0	0	0

	Aspects	Excellent %	Good %	Not very good %	Poor %	N/A %
4	Course methodology	78	20	1	1	0
5	Input sessions/workshops	67	31	2	0	0
6	Course tutors/trainers	90	10	0	0	0
7	Social program (Welcoming Reception, SLTEP Dinner, Certificate Ceremony, Farewell Party and Raffle)	93	7	0	0	0
8	Accommodation on campus	34	26	7	1	32
9	Meals on campus	48	40	10	2	0
10	Tea, coffee and cookies at break times	94	5	1	0	0
11	Overall effectiveness of the SLTEP in meeting your needs and expectations	81	18	0	0	1

As can be observed, the descriptive statistics support the overwhelmingly positive views and experiences obtained from the qualitative data with a sweeping majority of SLTEP course participants (99%) finding the course effective in meeting their needs and expectations (c.f. Item 11 in the Table 5). N/A refers to 'not applicable', representing situations where, for example, the course participant did not stay on campus (c.f. Item 8 in Table 5).

It is believed that although this section has provided a fairly representative analysis of all the qualitative and quantitative data obtained from the nine SLTEP courses run between 2004 and 2013, readers can

usefully refer to the SLTEP Blog for feedback obtained from the nine different courses where they can also view all the individuals responses received from each and every course participants (http://sltep.wordpress.com/feedback/).

Conclusion

> *Although I participated in the course shortly before I considered retiring, it was surprisingly refreshing and made me reconsider the idea of retirement. Now I am thinking of taking a short break instead and looking for further career opportunities abroad or in a different setting than a secondary school.*

> *(a former SLTEP participant)*

A course or program that sets out to help teachers develop as teacher trainers or educators is a highly challenging one to design and run as it necessitates a wide range of well-thought out processes and practices that can best cater for the different needs and interests course participants have based on their immediate and near future professional responsibilities. While some are practicing trainers, others are teachers who are yet not involved in training practices and hence have differing needs. Yet others choose to attend such a program with a view to becoming a 'teacher trainer' or getting involved in teacher training in the future.

This chapter has discussed the design, implementation and evaluation of a two-week intensive SLTEP trainer training course that has been running at Sabancı University School of Languages since the year 2004. The data and findings obtained clearly indicate that to date, the SLTEP has most successfully achieved its aims in helping language professionals develop the knowledge, skills and awareness required for effective teacher training with a view to catering for the training and development needs of teachers in their own institutions and in the wider training context.

Trainer trainers and other professionals planning courses with similar aims can usefully consider a program based on a carefully considered and well-planned balance between input-based and experiential practices which incorporate:

- a critical examination of teaching and teacher training practices
- an approach with a non-separatist approach to teacher development and teacher training
- an opportunity to reflect on one's own and others' practices as teachers (and trainers)
- an opportunity to explore and examine effective language teaching practices
- practice opportunities in teacher supervision and classroom observations of teaching
- opportunities to explore and examine training methodology
- practice in planning and presenting input sessions
- opportunities to develop research skills in the area of teacher training and most importantly
- opportunities for in depth reflection and self-evaluation

The SLTEP will be running its 10th course in June-July 2014 celebrating its 10th anniversary and later in Fall 2014 inviting all SLTEP Alumni to a one-day conference hosted at Sabancı University specifically for this purpose, allowing alumni to share their post-SLTEP work and experiences along with their views on personal and professional development since the time they participated on the course. Who knows? Maybe the colleague who was considering of retiring before s/he took the course is now in fact still actively involved in the profession.

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APPENDIX 1:SLTEP Pre-course processes: Survey on needs/wants

1. What are your reasons for wanting to do the SLTEP? Please mention in detail.
2. What do you believe your strengths are as a teacher?
3. What other qualities and skills do you believe you have that are suited to teacher training?
4. What are your preferred styles of learning? How do you learn best?
5. Are there any other points you would like to mention about your application or about your expectations? If yes, please mention them here.

APPENDIX 2: SLTEP Pre-course processes: Example of a pre-course task

Dear SLTEP Participants,
As you know we will be starting the SLTEP soon. In preparation for our first session, can you please complete the following pre-session task *before* the session? Please spare some quality time for this and try to avoid last minute preparation since this will affect the quality of the work we do.
What does teacher training mean to <u>you</u>?
In order to answer the question feel free to think back to your own experience as any or all of the following: as a participant on a teacher training course, as

a trainer on a training course, or even as a 'learner' who has been 'observing' teachers teach in their own education for more than a decade! – just reflect, you do not need to write anything.

Then do either (a) or(b) below:

a) on an A4 / colored paper, write down a few lines or a metaphor or draw a picture (any or all) representing YOUR thoughts and feelings in response to the above question (try to use the whole page if you can)

b) bring in a picture, a photograph, an object, or even a piece of music representing YOUR thoughts and feelings in response to the above question

Thank you all.

Looking forward to our first session!

APPENDIX3: The SLTEP – Program schedule

Week/ Session	Session / Activity
1/1	Introductions and welcome - Introduction to the SLTEP Teacher training as a profession Approaches to teacher training
1/2	Exploration of teaching and learning: A holistic look at 'effective' teaching - Criteria for effective teaching
1/3	Research as a developmental tool in teaching and training
1/4	Zooming in on the classroom: student and teacher engagement in research
1/5	Classroom observation 1: Teacher supervision Pre-observation meetings
1/6	Classroom observation 2: Observation data, tools and procedures
1/7	Classroom observation 3: Feedback skills I
1/8	Classroom observation 4: Feedback skills II

Week/ Session	Session / Activity
1/9 &10	SLTEP Mini-Conference (concurrent workshops given by guest tutors on various areas related to teaching and learning)
2/1	Training methodology and giving presentations 1: Types of input, skills and techniques
2/2	Training methodology and giving presentations 2: Procedures, activities, task types, data
2/3	Training methodology and giving presentations 3: Materials in action
2/4	Training methodology and giving presentations 4: Session planning and preparation – Main principles Micro training set up
2/5	Planning for the micro training
2/6	Planning for the micro training
2/7	Mini group presentations by course participants
2/8	Mini group presentations by course participants
2/9	Course and activity design in teacher training Reflection on the SLTEP experience

APPENDIX 4: The main stages in a pre- and post-observation meeting

Pre-observation meeting

- encouraging the teacher to talk about his or her students and class, trying to find out as much as possible about the learners (e.g. level, needs, interests, preferred styles of learning, group dynamics, particularly strong or weak students, assumed knowledge etc.)
- focusing on lesson aims and ensuring that they are clear, specific, relevant and realistic
- encouraging the teacher to briefly talk through the whole lesson and the materials to get a global picture, listening to her/him actively with effective verbal and non-verbal backchanneling, and making a mental note of any points for discussion (paying particular attention to e.g. aims of each stage/activity, student involvement, transitions between stages, checking of learning, examples of expected student language and answers, materials/task sheets to be used)
- focusing on questions the teacher may have about the lesson
- highlighting strong areas in the lesson planned
- focusing on areas/points that need to be considered more carefully by eliciting ideas from the teacher and offering own ideas when necessary
- revisiting any points from the previous observation
- discussing focus areas for the observation if relevant

Post-observation meeting

- encouraging the teacher to reflect on his or her lesson and exploring his/her feelings and thoughts about the experience (supervisor as active listener but also contributor)
- probing to get the teachers feelings and views on specific aspects of the lesson e.g. student involvement and participation, student and teacher motivation, aims and student learning, etc.
- highlighting / reinforcing strong points and positive aspects related to the lesson and the teacher
- sharing own data and notes on the lesson (giving the teacher a copy of the feedback tool, giving him/her time to look through the notes and focusing on points not raised or discussed during the teacher's reflection)
- focusing on general comments, highlighting the strengths (once again), discussing/summarizing areas for further improvement as well as relevant strategies

APPENDIX 5: Post-course on-line delayed feedback and evaluation survey

Dear Colleagues,

Following our work with you on the Sabanci University School of Languages Trainer Education Program (SLTEP), we would very much appreciate it if you could spare some time to reflect back on the course and share with us your feedback through this short on-line survey.

Your feedback will help us to formally evaluate the course and to consider your suggestions for similar training work with schools in the future.

Please note that your responses will be kept confidential and the collation will be done without reference to any individual names. We will of course also send you a copy of the collated feedback.

We would appreciate it if you could complete and submit the survey by...

Thank you.

1. Reflecting back on the SLTEP now, what 3 adjectives or words would you choose to describe the course? Please write them here.
2. What aspects of the SLTEP have you found most useful? Please explain.
3. What aspects of the SLTEP have you found less useful? Please explain.
4. How would you rate the following aspects of the SLTEP? Please tick the relevant box. *4 = Excellent   3 = Good   2 = Not very good   1 = Poor   NA = Not Applicable*

Questions
Organizational aspects (e.g. pre-course correspondence and work, administrative issues during the program itself)
Course schedule (e.g. number of days, session times and length etc.)
Course content
Course methodology
Input sessions/workshops
Course tutors/trainers

Social program (Welcoming Reception, SLTEP Dinner, Certificate Ceremony, Farewell Party and Raffle)

Accommodation on campus

Meals on campus

Tea, coffee and cookies at break times

Overall effectiveness of the SLTEP in meeting your needs and expectations

If you would like to comment on any of the above responses/ratings, please write your comments here:

5. To what extent are you able to apply what you learnt and experienced on the SLTEP in your teaching and/or training? Please explain and try to give specific examples.
   a) In my teaching
   b) In my training work (if relevant)
6. What suggestions would you have for future SLTEP courses?
7. What advice would you like to give to future SLTEP participants?
8. Any other comments?

SECTION TWO:

| TEACHERS AS LEARNERS

Culturometric Constructions of Teacher Identities: Professional Development versus Global Neoliberal Performativity

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Abstract

This chapter offers an integrative Culturometric response to two crucial international issues in pre-service and in-service teacher professional development. The two issues documented here are (i) the growing international dissatisfaction with professional outputs from the inherited content and legacy structures of Teacher Professional Development programmes and (ii) the global neoliberal decimation of 'traditional' education that is reducing governments' resourcing of education, transferring public educational funding to private companies and undermining teacher professionalism motivation and dedication with cost-cutting demands and reductions in professional autonomy. Our Culturometric response, so fundamental that it integrates these sweeping and seemingly disparate problems, is a memetic analysis of teachers' professional development and of neoliberal education policy in terms of identity reproduction. This response is made possible by recognising that the same processes of identity construction underlie both issues. The construction of teacher identities is fundamental to Teacher Professional Development which, traditionally 'brought out' and enhanced the unique teacher identity in each student. Performativity and other technologies of neoliberal education policy also have the fundamental purpose of re-constructing teacher identity, but in the boilerplate mould of neoliberal values abhorrent to the diversified practices of traditional humanistic education. A key Culturometric insight is that education is the enculturation of cultural identity – the DNA of cultural identity - and therein lies its meta-memetic importance, for shaping education enables continued self-replication of the ideal-type that shaped it. In response to these two crucial issues this chapter derives from its analysis (i) possible Culturometric restructurings of Teacher Professional Development programmes that can more effectively target the processes of personalised teacher identity construction and (ii) Foucaultian

based strategies of resistance to the exigencies of performativity that practising teachers can use to protect and reassert their professional identities under the yoke of neoliberal education policies.

Key words: teacher professional development, teacher identity, neoliberal performativity, memetic analysis, cultural identity

Introduction

This chapter presents one integrated response to two seemingly different current global problems in pre-service and in-service teachers' professional development. The first problem is the growing international dissatisfaction with professional outputs from the inherited content and structure of Teacher Professional Development programmes. The second problem is the increasing neoliberal global decimation of 'traditional' education that is reducing governments' resourcing of education, transferring public educational funding to private companies and undermining teacher professionalism, motivation and dedication with cost-cutting demands and reductions in professional autonomy. Here we characterise 'traditional' education policy as promoting processes and content that offer wide choice of potential cultural identities to students and is the immediate precursor of current neoliberal education policy. This traditional education is in contrast to the current imprinting of neoliberal competitive market values on humanistic caring teachers and on the education policies under which they must work. Our response, so fundamental that it integrates these sweeping and seemingly disparate problems is a memetic analysis of teacher professional development and of neoliberal education policy in terms of identity reproduction – similar to Richard Dawkins' analysis of the reproduction of ideas as genes (Dawkins, 2006; Liya, 2009; Milner, 2012; Van Xin, 2012). This response is made possible by recognising that the same identity development processes underlie both issues. Identity development is fundamental to teachers' professional development which, traditionally 'brought out' and enhanced the unique teacher identity in each student. Performativity and other technologies of neoliberal education policy also have the fundamental purpose of re-constructing teacher identity, but in the boilerplate mould of neoliberal values abhorrent to the diversified

practices of traditional humanistic education. In this chapter we show how teacher professional development can more effectively promote personalised teacher identities and how practising teachers can reassert their professional identities under the yoke of neoliberal education policies. To these ends the mimetic analysis of this chapter uses the Culturometric lens to show how each person's unique cultural identity develops towards their 'ideal-type' and strives for survival through family, friends and institutional hosts that promote their ideal-type of cultural identity. Susan Blackmore (1999) refers to this self-identity as the 'selfplex' and describes its self to institutional promotion in a similar way:

"It (the selfplex) comes about because our brains provide the ideal machinery on which to construct it, and our society provides the selective environment in which it thrives. As we have seen, memeplexes are groups of memes that come together for mutual advantage. The memes inside a memeplex survive better as part of the group than they would on their own. Once they have got together they form a self-organising, self-protecting structure that welcomes and protects other memes that are compatible with the group, and repels memes that are not. … We have already considered how religions, cults, and ideologies work as memeplexes" (p.231).

Education is the enculturation of cultural identity – the DNA of cultural identity. Therein lies its meta-memetic importance for shaping education enables continued self-replication of the ideal-type that shaped it. To situate this chapter the reader should best know that the author's ideal-type 'ism' bias in writing this chapter is the belief that to sustain the ecological viability of culture we must promote its diversity. For this, we will use Culturometrics – a family of humanist-based research methods and objective measurement processes that recognises the unique values of individuals and promotes their cultural diversity. 'Traditional' educations that preceded neoliberalism enabled that diversity of individual and institutional identities. The resulting diversity itself limited the efficacy of any single standardised, one-size fits all 'best practice' because, for example, the specialised teacher training of any religious school or secular ideology would soon bump up against individuals, families and communities that did not share its values (Grimmett, Fleming & Trotter, 2009). However, neoliberalism is a force from outside of education, from economic markets in the service of capitalism. As we shall now see, the global reach of neoliberalism is so ubiquitous that it has infiltrated the language of our thinking and through its shaping of

national education systems is severely limiting the human potential of what our students and educators can be.

We begin with the twin motivations for the study: dissatisfactions with teachers' professional development and the disastrous effects of neoliberal policies on teachers and on education.

Dissatisfaction with teachers' professional development

The international literature includes a critique of teachers' professional development which demands that it should become a more constructivist-based holistic endeavour that squarely addresses important positive attributes of teachers' professionalism that have proven difficult to objectively define and measure; such as personal culture and commitment, professional flexibility and enactment of change; an endeavour which recognises and enhances that natural creative potential that makes teachers central change agents in the lives of their students and in the shaping of society (Berry & Team, 2011; Creemers, Kyriakides & Antoniou, 2012; Darling-Hammond & Lieberman, 2012; Darling-Hammond, 2010; Darling-Hammond, Bransford, LePage, Hammerness & Duffy, 2007; Day & Sachs, 2005; Desimone, 2011, p. 69; Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012; Opfer & Pedder, 2011, p. 376; Pitsoe & Maila, 2012, p. 318; Sahlberg, 2011).

There is also growing body of recent literature, consistent with the approach of this chapter, that seeks to explain important aspects of teachers' professional development through the concept of teacher identity (Abednia, 2012; Anspal, Eisenschmidt & Löfström, 2012; Canrinus, Helms-Lorenz, Beijaard, Buitink & Hofman, 2012; Dusen & Otero, 2012; Hall, 2012; Karagiorgi, 2012; Lopes & Pereira, 2012; Nze & Ginestié, 2012; Skelton, 2012; Smagorinsky, Cook, Moore, Jackson & Fry, 2004; Somerville & Rennie, 2012; Trent, 2012; Tryggvason, 2012; Wilkins, Busher, Kakos, Mohamed & Smith, 2012). For example, on reviewing reasons in the literature for teacher attrition, Schaefer, Long and Clandinin (2012) concluded that the conceptualisation of teachers' identities prioritising intentions, culture and context is one of the most fruitful approaches to teacher development. "Some recent conceptualizations consider early career teacher attrition as an identity-making process that involves a complex negotiation between individual and contextual factors" (p.106). This promising approach of using conceptualisations of teacher's identities in teachers' professional development is further supported in the conclusion of their review:

"This work on teacher identities offers a great deal of promise to ways we might come to understand beginning teacher attrition as a life-making process ....working from a narrative conceptualization of identity and school contexts offers a promising way to understand what sustains beginning teachers, and, in this way, may offer the possibility of new insights about teacher education" (Schaefer, Long &Clandinin, 2012, p. 118).

The new research philosophy of Culturometrics formalises this corpus on changing teachers' identities by objectively defining and measuring cultural identity (Boufoy-Bastick, 2003, 2007, 2008, 2010a, 2010b, 2010c, 2011, 2012a). Based on that ontology this chapter seeks to respond to criticisms of teachers' professional development through the memetics of cultural identity. The chapter takes two substantial steps towards this major goal by (i) integrating applications of teachers' professional development corresponding to an embedded ability structure of reflection within collaboration within management and policy and (ii) by reframing the processes of teachers' professional development as the alignment of values in contexts within congruent communication – the Culturometric 'Committed Communication' framework.

'Committed Communication' is an approach, within and consistent with the philosophy of constructivism, that is relevant to the influence of stakeholders' values, attitudes and beliefs in the processes of research. This is relevant to all research simply because each stakeholder has his or her values and in all research there is at least one stakeholder – the researcher himself or herself. Thanks to the pioneering work of Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) on how even subconscious expectation – also called the self-fulfilling prophecy – biases results, research methodology now routinely uses procedures to promote trustworthiness of the research outcome. These procedures include methods, such as random assignment and triple blindedness, that seek to protect the research outcomes from bias of stakeholders' values. Culturometrics adds some of its own new methods of excluding cultural bias – such as Cultural Index regulators (Boufoy-Bastick, 2007). There has recently been much institutional emphasis promoting independence and evidence-based research in Education (Cook, Smith &Tankersley, 2012; Marsh, 2005; Slavin, 2002). However, we need to be more critical of the fundamental assumptions of this 'evidence-based' and 'practice-based' research, look more closely particularly at 'values in context' and question

why particular evidence is selected – whose facts are they - and question what is relevant to 'independence' – who determines what and who is biased (Black, 2001; Bridges, Smeyers & Smith, 2009). Hence, sensitivity to values and context is important for research validities – not only for consequential validities and for face validities. We should be clear that Culturometrics uses alignment of stakeholders' 'values in context' to verify support for the research process, NOT for verifying all truths of the research outcomes. The Culturometric methods of qualifying and quantifying the verification of research communication by aligning stakeholders' cultural identities have not been done before and to this extent Culturometrics constitutes a new research philosophy. The present chapter frames common issues in teachers' professional development, both for pre-service training and for in-service continuing professional development through the three-part Culturometric frame of 'Committed Communication'. These common issues are also categorised into three comprehensive and exhaustive concerns within the field of Teacher Professional Development; namely issues of teacher development in relation to (i) Management and policy, (ii) how different types of Collaborations can and do contribute to teachers' professional development, and (iii) harnessing the powerful processes of Reflection that continue to contribute to the successes of formal professional development programmes in education throughout the world. This chapter aims to add unity, practical utility and direction to the field by integrating these three areas of Teacher Professional Development within the three-part Culturometric framework of 'Committed Communication'. Before this is expounded, the next section explains the second motivation for this chapter - the disastrous effects of neoliberal policies on education.

The disastrous effects of neoliberal policies on education

We now turn to the devastating effects of Neoliberal policies on government-controlled mass education around the world. Education builds cultural identities - the rich possibilities of who we can be. The problem in education, put simply, is that Neoliberal policies on government-controlled mass education around the world are diminishing the diversity of cultural identities of both of educationists and of students. The performativity of neoliberal enculturation makes immoral neoliberal academics of traditional educators. The pedagogy of neoliberal enculturation reduces the infinite potential of

students to only that of 'Employee-ment' - the cultural identity of an ideal employee. The word was coined to distinguish it from the less specific 'employment' that can reference employees, employers or a generalised state (e.g. demographics of employment figures/sector). Further, the neoliberal education policies, which privilege only monetary indicators for maximising competition whilst minimising cost, have overall effects of reducing educational resources, reducing employment and greatly increasing the burdens of poverty. In this chapter we consider many national problems against the backdrop of globalisation policy processes such as mobility under 'Bologna Declaration (1999), corporatisation of education, and international competition for the cheapest employees. From its Culturometric perspective of promoting personal and institutional choice of cultural identity, and security of that cultural identity (Boufoy-Bastick, 2013a, p. 5), the themes of (i) exclusive monetary indicators of Neoliberal processes, such as globally maximising competition whilst minimising cost and cost/benefit decision analysis and (ii) Neoliberal controls of education through policy spin, recursive compliance standards and new governance structures distancing policy-makers from democratic resource-accountability, all intentionally disenfranchise education policy-users and effectively silence other local community values and cultural identities.

Overview of Neoliberal education policy

The international outcomes of neoliberal policy on education are fundamental, complex, wide reaching and disastrous. A typical disgruntled perception from the chalkboard is given by UK Professor of Education Policy, Dave Hill: "The current neoliberal project, the latest stage of the capitalist project, is to reshape the public's understanding of the purposes of public institutions and apparatuses, such as schools, universities, libraries. In schools, intensive testing of pre-designed curricula (high stakes testing) and accountability schemes (such as the 'failing schools' and regular inspection regime that somehow only penalizes working class schools) are aimed at restoring schools (and further education and universities) to what dominant elites – the capitalist class – perceive to be their "traditional role" of producing passive worker/citizens with just enough skills to render themselves useful to the demands of capital" (Hill, 2006, p.11). The following brief descriptions give an adequate introduction. Neo-liberalism is a "set of practices that are

organized around a certain imagination of the 'market' as a basis for 'the universalisation of market-based social relations, with the corresponding penetration in almost every single aspect of our lives of the discourse and/ or practice of commodification, capital-accumulation and profit-making" (Carvalho & Rodrigues, 2006). The role of a neoliberal government is to create or enhance the social conditions for a market including the employees to maintain the market– "neo-liberalism has come to represent a positive conception of the state's role in creating the appropriate market by providing the conditions, laws and institutions necessary for its operation…. In neo-liberalism the state seeks to create an individual who is an enterprising and competitive entrepreneur" (Olssen,1996, p. 340). "Neoliberal and neoconservative movements are aggressively altering our jobs and our schools. Their effects are increasingly dangerous" (Apple, 2006, p. 26). "The ascendancy of neoliberalism and the associated discourses of 'new public management', during the 1980s and 1990s has produced a fundamental shift in the way universities and other institutions of higher education have defined and justified their institutional existence. The traditional professional culture of open intellectual enquiry and debate has been replaced with a (sic) institutional stress on performativity, as evidenced by the emergence of an emphasis on measured outputs: on strategic planning, performance indicators, quality assurance measures and academic audits" (Olssen & Peters, 2005, p.313).

The far-reaching influence of neoliberalism on education

The global influence of neoliberalism on education is so vast that it is difficult as educators to comprehend our place in it and our possible influences on it. We have to come to terms with much more than our interaction with students, ideas and our particular local and national institutions. We need to be aware of Governments spread of policy through outsourcing to the private sector "private providers in education policy … through advice, consultation, evaluation, philanthropy, partnerships, representation, programme delivery and other outsourcing … Here the private sector is the instrument of a form of re-colonialisation" (Ball, 2009, p. 95). We need to be aware that international corporatisation of universities through investments and takeovers by other large business – News companies and Industrial Parks own universities (Ball, 2012, pp. 22–23). As a set of policy values, neoliberalism has a tendrilous international influencing network. Examples are neoliberal Transnational

Advocacy Networks (TANs). These are 'communicative structures' organised around the 'shared values' of their members (Keck & Sikkink, 1998). Another example is the Atlas Economic Research Foundation (www.atlasnetwork. org) with a $9 million budget (2011) http://www.charitynavigator.org/index. cfm?bay=search.summary&orgid=10435#.Up31vuIcbwg

"This site compiles information on nearly 500 think tanks worldwide who are sympathetic to the values of a free society' (Atlas website). These think tanks are committed to the dissemination of neo-liberal ideas" (Ball, 2010, p.490) The Atlas Network promotes monetarism under the neoliberal obfuscations of 'Freedom' and 'Liberty' "The Atlas Economic Research Foundation is a non-profit organization connecting a global network of free market organizations and individuals to the ideas and resources needed to advance the cause of liberty" (Dyble, 2011, p. ii). Global neoliberalism has made education into a worldwide business with an estimated value of $400 billion (Ball, 2012, p. 20). Neoliberalism serves the values of Elite oligarchy. Elite values are described by Elite Theory (Dye, 2000; Gonzalez, 2012; Putnam, 1977; Spencer, 2006) and differ markedly from the values of Traditional education (Banks, 2001, 2008; Fagermoen,1997; Kogan, 2000; Nixon,1996). The 'inevitability' of oligarchy is described by Michels' (1915) 'iron rule of oligarchy'. "Michels described as the 'iron rule of oligarchy' – the inevitable takeover of a democratic republic by a small oligarchy, a plutocracy committed to advancing the interests of the ruling class and to preserve their power in service of this class and themselves" (Petras & Veltmeyer, 2012, p. 229). Neoliberal policies are creating globally large impoverished masses. Writing in 1959 Seymour Lipset argued in his classic paper "A society divided between a large impoverished mass and a small favoured elite would result either in oligarchy (dictatorial rule of the small upper stratum) or in tyranny (popularly based dictatorship)" (Lipset, 1959, p. 75).

However, just as the complex variety and multifarious outcome patterns from games of chance often belie the simplicity of the processes which generate them – the drawing of lottery numbers, the roll of dice or the spin of the roulette wheel - so the root, growth and outcomes of neoliberal policy in education are more simply understood from the Culturometric perspectives on identity. We will first explain how the Culturometric identity framework of 'Committed Communication' is used to enable the three embedded abilities of Teacher Professional Development; (i) Reflection, (ii) Collaboration and (iii) Management and Policy. We will then extend teacher professional

development to the forth level of Administration of Management and Policy in order to understand and change neoliberal education policy from the Culturometric perspectives on identity.

Culturometric framework of 'Committed Communication'

Committed Communication is a Culturometric method allowing stakeholders to negotiate alignment of cultural identities facilitating mutual identity affirmations necessary to successful joint cooperation. 'Committed Communication' has three parts – three skill sets necessary for successful Teacher Professional Development and for effectively changing neoliberal education policy - vis. (i) Agreement of context, (ii) Alignment of values and (iii) Congruence of communication. The multifarious aspects and applications of teachers' professional development can be viewed as parts of the committed communication process and as applications of the whole process. Viewing the three embedded abilities of Teacher Professional Development through this Culturometric lens (a) demonstrates how the reader can reframe different aspects of Teachers' Professional Development as parts of the committed communication process and (b) realises that the theory and practice of committed communication integrates the field of Teacher Professional Development, (c) explains how and why these professional development processes are consistent and (d) demonstrate explicitly how the processes can be taught. Further, the objective measures offered by Culturometrics can be used to measure the improvements our teaching brings to the professional development of teachers.

Committed Communication is so called because the stakeholders in the communication process commit to aligning their cultural identities. Cultural identities are the values, attitudes, beliefs and intentions (VABI) that we associate with a given context. Briefly, cultural identity is 'values in context' and these values are communicated by displaying behaviours that signify the values. For example, a teacher's classroom practices in a given context would be teaching behaviours that communicate a teacher's identity in that context. The teacher might be a constructivist teacher or a transmission teacher in a particular context - anecdotally 'Teachers have to be okay inside because who they are is what they give'. So the first thing we note is that cultural identity depends on the context. For example, in the context of preparing students for a standardised knowledge and

skills assessment, a teacher might take the 'Sage on stage' identity values of transmission teaching in order to authoritatively train students in fast and accurate reproduction of facts and processes. However, in the different context of 'scaffolding' students' understanding the same teacher might assume the 'Guide on the side' permissive constructivist identity values. The teacher's identity is traditionally given considerable importance in teachers' professional programmes (Alsup, 2005; Connelly & Clandinin, 1999; O'Connor, 2008; Reio Jr., 2005a; Zembylas, 2005). Culturometrics' operational definition of cultural identity and of objective measurements of changes in cultural identities allow us to compare and track changes in teacher identities and so evaluate the on-going success of our professional development programmes.

We assume commitment because, within the given context, stakeholders – such as the teacher and the students - are committed to sharing each other's values, attitudes, beliefs and intentions. The mutual success of the professional collaborations is reflected in this alignment of the stakeholders cultural identities – 'alignment' is more than mere tolerance, is a positive acceptance (Boufoy-Bastick, 2011, p. xxiii). We are saying that committed communication is a set of abilities that are fundamental to the success of teachers' professional development and so need to be explicitly targeted in Teacher Professional Development programmes. We do not have to reinvent the wheel to do this. Much of the Committed Communication model is already used implicitly in Teacher Professional Development programmes and so educators will be familiar with its success. We are advocating explicit use of the theory and practical methods of the Culturometric 'Committed Communication' model to enhance these successes and we can include related sources developed in areas outside of those traditionally used in Teacher Development programmes, such as 'Branding research' (Boufoy-Bastick, 2012a, pp. xxix–xxxiii) that readers can innovatively incorporate for further success.

We now briefly describe the three parts of the committed communication process so teacher trainers can readily make these processes more explicit in their programmes and so that teachers themselves might consider targeting these processes as effective self-improvement aids. We will then show how this three-part alignment process is practically incorporated into the three integrated concerns of teachers' professional development: Management and Policy, Collaboration and Reflection.

Purpose and parts of committed communication

The Culturometric theme of this chapter is that successful professional development for teachers requires teacher competence in the Culturometric model of committed communication; whether in gaining professional expertise in collaboration, in reflection or in management and policy with government and education administrators. Committed communication works by achieving a mutual affirmation of cultural identities, where cultural identity is simply defined as one's 'values in context'. This mutual affirmation of cultural identities results from successful alignment of stakeholders' 'values in context'. Without the agreed definition of context and the alignment of stakeholders' values within that context, applied professional development simply becomes a set of contested social practices in the sense of Pierre Bourdieu (Angus, 2004).

There are three parts to the successful process of achieving committed communication vis. (i) Agreement of context, (ii) Alignment of values and (iii) Congruence of communication. Parts 1 and 2 are two steps in the process and Part 3 is a concurrent requirement: Step (i) is agreement on the context and Step (ii) is negotiating alignment of values; Both Step (i) and Step (ii) must happen within the environment of Part 3 which is the requirement that values stakeholders associate with the media of communication are consistent with their values that are being aligned. The meaning of Part 3 is that the processes of negotiation and of agreement require the teacher to also be aware of the values stakeholders attach to the media of communication and to ensure that the values of the media of communication are consistent with the values stakeholders are bringing to the negotiation and to the agreement (Goodman & Truss, 2004). Because of their different cultural identities, the teacher and the other stakeholders in the communication process can attach very different meanings to the same words, behaviours and intended policy outcomes i.e. the communication values are likely to be different for the different stakeholders. In the psychology of Neuro-linguistic Programming (NLP) this shift in the meaning of the communication behaviours from the teacher's perspective to the perspective of the other stakeholders is referred to as 'calibration' (O'Connor & Seymour, 2011, pp. 52–53). There are NLP source books we can turn to that give simple step-by-step training instructions on observational techniques for improving calibration skills in our Teacher Professional Development programmes (Gibson, 2011; Ready & Bur-

ton, 2010; Vaknin, 2011) and classic NLP guides in how teachers can align stakeholder's beliefs (Dilts, 1990).

Teachers' Professional Development

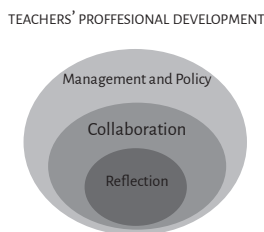Figure 1 illustrates the three-part embedded ability structure of Teachers' Professional Development.

TEACHERS' PROFFESIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Management and Policy

Collaboration

Reflection

Figure 1. Three-part embedded ability structure of Teachers' Professional Development

REFLECTION

'Reflection' is the name of the professional development process by which we become aware of values; of our own values, the values of others and the values that we and others associate with different communication behaviours. From today's mature psychoanalytic perspective 'reflection' has established an august reputation … "We go through life reflecting on ourselves to a greater or lesser extent; and it is not only a psychoanalytic truism to think that the depth and extent of someone's capacity for such reflection might be a measure of their standing as a person" (Frosh, 2012, p. 4). To help us teach and practice reflection we can call on a venerable literature of reflection in the service of teachers' professional development (Fogarty, 1994; Harris, Bruster, Peterson & Shutt, 2010; Johnson, Mims-Cox & Doyle-Nichols, 2009; Korthagen, Kim & Greene, 2012; Larrivee & Cooper, 2005; Nash, 2011; O'Donnell, Reeve, & Smith, 2011; Russell &Korthagen, 1995). However, to collaborate with others who have different values, we need to modify or change our values. To change our values with

insight we need to employ critical self-reflection. Critical self-reflection is the process of questioning one's own assumptions, presuppositions, and meaning perspectives. For help in practising the changing of our personal values we can also call on an extensive literature that uses critical self-reflection in teachers' professional training (Brookfield, 1995; Mezirow, 1990; Newman, 1998; Rymes, 2009).

COLLABORATION

When collaborating with an established group we also need to communicate our values to the group so they understand that our values are aligned with those of the group (Lieberman & Miller, 2008; Martin-Kniep, 2003). Existing groups, when collaborating, instigate formal processes to publicise the group's values and to endorse 'approved' behaviours of communication through which members can signify their own aligned values. These communication behaviours are 'approved' because they signify values that are aligned with those of the group. What we learn from this is that to utilise collaborations in Teacher Professional Development we need to identify the categories of collaboration, such as joining an existing top-down authoritative group or joining a bottom-up democratic group, or starting a peer-learning group, etc. and then instigate the formal processes for the recognition, communication and alignment of values appropriate to those categories (Cramer, 2006; Friend & Cook, 2012; Hall & Simeral, 2008; Lassonde & Israel, 2009; Porter, 2008). Much work has already been done that shows us the importance of enculturating students into the values, attitudes, beliefs and intentions of their subject disciplines – particularly in mathematics, science and in music education (Barrett, 2011; Bishop, 1991; Mapana, 2011; Vat-Chromy, 2012; Yeotis, Klein & Weaver, 2009). For further help and insight into practising and training these enculturation processes of cultural identity negotiation into the group's values in context we can also call on the anthropological and socio-cultural literature delineating options for enculturation applied to education (Cano et al., 2012; Casanave & Li, 2008; Soth, 1981; Vat-Chromy, 2012).

MANAGEMENT AND POLICY

The most diverse forms of teacher collaboration are the substance of management and policy initiatives in the service of teachers' professional development. For example, teachers might be required to conform to some 'improved' government policy, as discussed in the sections below on neoliberal performativity. A working group might be tasked with creating an educational 'consensual policy' – perhaps with some hidden political agenda – this is convincingly achieved with 'best practice' models that ignore the stringencies of diverse contexts. All three parts of the processes comprising committed communication are then in play: Part 1 – the boundary of the context can be negotiated to any degree of appropriateness by contrasting the values that determine what examples close to the boundary are in the context and which are out of the context. This is easier than it might appear because most stakeholders compartmentalise their values to specific contexts and so a total belief makeover is avoided. The values defining appropriateness can similarly be iteratively determined. Part 2, awareness of stakeholders' values and their alignment, requires awareness of values and how to align them. Reflection and particularly critical reflection are needed for insight changes of values, attitudes, beliefs and intentions. However, cognitive insight often does not go deep enough to change stakeholders' values – an example would be the little effect that death warnings on cigarette packets have on cigarette smokers. Existing therapy processes, particularly brief therapy approaches, demonstrate how a teacher (therapist) can change the values of another stakeholder (patient) without dependence on insight (self-knowledge). Such methods, as applied for example in advertising, specifically target natural enculturation processes that can be productively used to align values within an agreed education context for management and policy applications in the service of teachers' professional development. Part 3 – the values congruence of medium and message. The same processes of identifying stakeholders' values and their alignment are applied to ensuring that the stakeholders' values signified by the methods of communication are congruent with the values the stakeholders are currently bringing to negotiation. We must be prepared for the values associated with the communication process to change during the negotiation because the values stakeholders hold will be changing during the negotiation process and might not be the same as their finally aligned values. Hence, for a communication to be acceptable during the

negotiation its values need to lead acceptably, that is they need to be slightly ahead of the stakeholders' current values (Youell &Youell, 2011, pp. 75–76). One advantage of the alignment process of Part 3 over alignment processes of Parts 1 and 2 is that in Part 3 we have the option of aligning values, not by only changing values, but by also selecting communication behaviours signifying values that match those currently being negotiated by stakeholders.

We can expect success to the extent that the three parts of the committed communication model are in place. But often we can recognise that one or more of the three parts is missing and so the management and policy successes are correspondingly also only partial. Apart from Branding identity, Brief therapy and Advertising there are many existing areas where we can turn for help in practice and training in all three parts of committed communication for aligning cultural identities in the diverse applications of management and policy to teachers' professional development.

We now extend teacher professional development to administer change in policy so we may understand and modify neoliberal education policy, but first we need a deeper understanding of Culturometric's psycho-social foundations and to realise why the Culturometric perspective on neoliberal education policy is needed.

THE PSYCHO-SOCIAL FOUNDATIONS OF CULTUROMETRICS

Culturometrics brings a new and needed perspective that enables educationists to relate at a personal level to the different global exigencies of neoliberalism: "The discourses and practices of neoliberalism, including government policies for education and training, public debates regarding standards and changed funding regimes, have been at work on and in schools in capitalist societies since at least the 1980s. Yet, we have been hard pressed to say what neoliberalism is, where it comes from and how it works on us and through us to establish the new moral order of schools and schooling, and to produce the new student/subject who is appropriate to (and appropriated by) the neoliberal economy" (Davies & Bansel, 2007, p. 247).

In this chapter, we illuminate problems and solutions of education policy from a Culturometric perspective. That perspective is different, very different, from the positivist research paradigm that was originally based on the Anglophone statistical tradition of the last 90 or so years. That tradition, with its problematic assumptions for the human sciences, has come to dominate

and objectify our thinking, our morality and our humanity. It has led to and encouraged acceptance and 'scientific' approval of policies and practices that are undermining the bulwark of traditional educational systems on a global scale (Driscoll, & McFarland, 1989; Gergen, 1997; Harding, 1994; Kincheloe, 2003; Royal & Bradley, 2008; Wachtel, 2010).

In contrast, Culturometrics uses a humanistic research paradigm that follows in the steps of Weber and Maslow (Boufoy-Bastick, 2013b). It gives recognition to the most natural, fundamental and encompassing human ability we have of generating possible views of the world. When we put ourselves in the place of another person, animal or even object and intuitively know 'how we would feel, what we would do, in their situation' we generate testable hypothesis founded on our humanity. We would say the process was from the unconscious. However, according to Daniel Dennett...

"Here is how it works: first you decide to treat the object whose behaviour is to be predicted as a rational agent; then you figure out what beliefs that agent ought to have, given its place in the world and its purpose. Then you figure out what desires it ought to have, on the same considerations, and finally you predict that this rational agent will act to further its goals in the light of its beliefs. A little practical reasoning from the chosen set of beliefs and desires will in most instances yield a decision about what the agent ought to do; that is what you predict the agent will do" (Dennett, 1987, p. 17).

From that point on in the development of our grand plans or the mundane minutiae of our lives we cannot retract back into barbarism. The fundamental anthropomorphism of empathising with the object and projecting our empathic feelings into the object remains the ultimate visceral validity check for ethical action and meaning – we relate the other to ourselves. We imbue the object with values, the values we would have if we were the object in that situation and we expect the behaviour of the object to promote those values – because 'that's what we would do if we were them'. Thus we give objects cultural identities and can give them meanings from affinity to rejection in relation to aligning or opposing our own cultural identities. The objects can be animate or inanimate, people, animals, effects, institutions and even constructs and abstract ideas (Boufoy-Bastick, 2007). Traditional educationists experience policy problems when their universities try to adopt corporate identities. Parents experience problems when governments create schools that try to 'create children in their own image' rather than to the diverse identities of their parent communities (Akerlof &Kranton, 2002). If you are ever in doubt about how to proceed in Culturometrics then return to these basic tenets

and be guided by them. This is the rich subjectivity and intersubjectivity of our lives. A relevance to the neoliberal forced restructuring of our diverse cultural identities is .. "To put it simply, to the extent that neoliberal governmentalities have become increasingly focused upon the production of subjectivity, it is logical that we think about subjectivity as a site of struggle and resistance" (Ball & Olmedo, 2013, p. 85). However, we need measures and methods that mediate these inter-subjectivities and follow laws of logic to replace inappropriate assumptions in current research methods so that we can use our otherwise well-developed 'scientific' methods towards more humane outcomes. To this end, Culturometrics operationally defines cultural identity recursively as 'values in context', where the values in the context also define the context. Culturometrics develops and collects its methods using the criterion of self-norming to represent self-reference. It uses its growing family of methods (Boufoy-Bastick, 2013a, p. 65) to analyse data specifically structured to retain 'values in context' which then represent subjects' communications of their identities. Thus, Culturometrics objectively measures and compares the strengths of cultural identities.

CULTUROMETRIC ADMINISTRATION OF EDUCATION MANAGEMENT AND POLICY

In a section above, we introduced the embedded ability structure of teachers' professional development. This section extends and embeds that professional development model within the additional layer of management and policy concepts for administrative professionals in the international management of education policy. This is simply illustrated in figure 2.
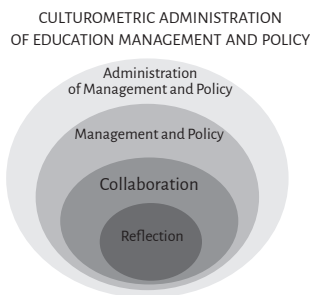

CULTUROMETRIC ADMINISTRATION
OF EDUCATION MANAGEMENT AND POLICY

Administration
of Management and Policy

Management and Policy

Collaboration

Reflection

Figure 2. From Teacher Professional Development to Administration of Management and Policy

The administrative ability-set of this last shell is primarily comprised of Cultural Identity issues in the six areas of Achievement, Family Involvement, Community Involvement, Economic influences, Standards and Governance. The contributions to Boufoy-Bastick, (2013c) have been selected as prime examples of international Cultural Identity issues in each of these constituent areas for understanding the Administration of Policy and Management for education.

From Individual Cultural Identity to an Institution's Ideal-type of Cultural Identity

Individual cultural identity – yours and mine, and that of others, is thought of as their 'values in context' (Hitlin, 2003). We have an identity for each context – for example, we have values for interacting with children, which is one context and values for interacting with adults, which is another context (Boufoy-Bastick, 2010d). The difference in these two sets of values is what defines the two different contexts, and defines our two different identities, as being different. In any given context all the values are consistent. Where we have inconsistent values we will have more than one context (Boufoy-Bastick, 2010c). This is because a context is defined by its consistency of values. Foucault used the following two contexts 'speaking at a political meeting' and 'speaking within a sexual relationship' to illustrate two possible component cultural identities within the same person. Foucault uses the term 'subject' where Culturometrics uses the more definitive term 'cultural identity'.

"You do not have the same type of relationship to yourself when you constitute yourself as a political subject who goes to vote or speaks at a meeting and when you are seeking to fulfil your desires in a sexual relationship. Undoubtedly there are relationships and interferences between these different forms of the subject; but we are not dealing with the same type of subject. In each case, one plays, one establishes a different type of relationship to oneself. And it is precisely the historical constitution of these various forms of the subject in relation to the games of truth which interests me" (Foucault, 1997a, pp. 290–291).

HIERARCHICAL STRUCTURE OF CULTURAL IDENTITY

Our identities are hierarchically structured on different levels like an organisational chart (Boufoy-Bastick, 2013a, p. 65). All the values in the contexts on any level are part of a higher order identity corresponding to a more

inclusive context. Values are only consistent within a context and not necessarily consistent between contexts on the same level or between levels. Hence, our values can be inconsistent between contexts. This is just a formalisation of 'compartmentalisation' (Bertone & Leahy, 2001; Nyström, 2009; Pratt, & Foreman, 2000; Roccas & Brewer, 2002). Our values do not influence others directly. What is overtly important in our social world is our behaviour. It is through our behaviour that our values influence others. In Culturometrics, all behaviour is an affirmation of our cultural identity - our values in context. Further, and fundamentally deep, the purpose of all behaviour is to affirm cultural identity. However, when we interact with others there is a 'slippage' in the interpretation of our behaviour. The specific behaviour we exhibit is 'chosen' because, to us, it symbolises our 'values in context'. As our values can be inconsistent between contexts, so then will be the behaviours we choose to represent our values. This shows the importance to communication of first confirming that we are in the same context – all on the same page. However, we have a tendency to just assume we are in the same context and give priority to the ascertaining values through interpretation of behaviour. Prioritising values above context in communication is a primary cause of misunderstanding and is well illustrated by the structure of many jokes. 1st Businessman 'Last year I lost everything in a fire. Fortunately I was fully insured'. 2nd Businessman 'Last year I lost everything in a flood. Fortunately I was fully insured'. 1st Businessman "A flood! How do you start a flood?"

Many chapters in Boufoy-Bastick (2013c) report the cognitive dissonance and demotivation traditional educators feel when forced to comply with neoliberal policy demands - the 'performativity' of neoliberalism. The hierarchical structure of cultural identity shows you can resolve the inconsistencies of identity, which are felt as dissonance, by compartmentalising – that is by taking one side or the other. Research on actions that follows dissonance shows that outcome identity can be decided by forced behaviours consistent with the values of the required identity outcome (Bouie Jr, 2013; Harmon-Jones, Amodio & Harmon-Jones, 2009; Henkel, 2005). Or we can resolve this dissonance by generalising to a higher level identity – where 'in the grand scheme of things', 'the end justifies the means' and 'everything will come out in the wash'. The resolution of a humanistic/neoliberal dissonance by generalisation to a higher inclusive level of identity context or by compartmentalisation to different humanistic and neoliberal contexts at the same lower level would correspond to contexts of consequentialism (utilitarianism)

or value ethics and deontology respectively in moral philosophies (Knights, & O'Leary, 2006; Manners, 2008; Micewski & Troy, 2007; Van Staveren, 2007). The compartmentalisation as value ethics (humanism) and deontology (neoliberalism) is most relevant to how neoliberal performativity forces traditional educationists to reconstruct themselves as neoliberal academics because the continual forced performativity reinforces the neoliberal context and values at the expense of inhibiting the humanistic context and values.

Culturometrics defines validity as a truth which it operationalizes as the consistency of values in a context (Boufoy-Bastick, 2003) – an Authentic Cultural Identity. When you have an Authentic Cultural Identity, all your values and their representative behaviours are consistent, there is no dissonance so you feel good about yourself. With relevance to the' value ethics' of neoliberal education policy, this is why Culturometrics contends that policy-makers cannot revert to barbarism – feeling good about doing bad things - if just one humanistic value is part of each of their authentic component identities.

Communicating policy is promoting identity

Policy is a statement of behaviours which we intend will promote our identity – values in context. Education policy for public acceptance is open to different interpretations of context. However, the operational policy that follows public acceptance defines the contexts of the values more precisely with indicators of the behaviours and standards and standards of achievement on those indicators. Initially, when communicating our values in context, using behaviours which we assume represent our values, we are likely to find that our interpretation of our behaviour will not be shared exactly by another person – not all readers will have realised the different contexts of 'insurance' for the Businessmen above. Our interpretation of our behaviour will be shared more closely by those who have shared our enculturation. Shared interpretation, approval of the values represented by behaviour, is perceived as affirmation of cultural identity by both parties – rapport. However, even if the two parties do share the same invisible 'values in context' if a different interpretation of the behaviour is made as signifying inappropriate values this will not align 'values in context'. The behaviour could be so differently interpreted as to seem to refute the other person's identity altogether. Values represented by our interpretations of manners and customs, even the interpretations of dialects, are used to judge the affinity of 'values in context'

and thus the joint affirmation of cultural identity. These identity principles of communication are used for policy acceptance in that the policy must be interpreted to affirm our values in context.

Ideal-types of Cultural Identity

We mentioned above that the purpose of all behaviour is to affirm cultural identity, or more precisely to affirm ideal-type cultural identity, communicating to oneself – as in solitary behaviour – or communicating to others as with social behaviour. We are motivated to be social according to the enhancement in the affirmation of our ideal-type cultural identity we expect and experience from others. Some of us are more 'self-sufficient' and less socially dependent on valuing the affirmations of others. For those of us who value more the affirmation of others there is much 'self-respect' and 'identity security' to be gained in seeking out and joining with others for mutual affirmation of a common ideal-type cultural identity. We prize our private cultural identity less than our ideal self. The difference can motivate self-development or be hidden as a supposed source of stigma. This inhibition in acknowledging our private identities in favour of the group ideal-type - for which we are rewarded with enhanced 'self-respect', 'identity security' and the rewards of multiple social affirmation - goes some way to explaining the developed questions of Solomon Asch, Stanley Milgram and Phillip Zimbardo as the personal worth of 'security of identity' in return for 'obedience to authority' and perhaps explains why academics change behaviour when 'promoted' to administration. It does explain the self-interest members of a cultural group – a government, a school, a family - have in promoting their public ideal-type of cultural identity. As we shall see in below, it also explains lack of family and community involvement in the neoliberal schools of neoliberal governments.

Influence of language and trust on policy acceptance

Precision of communication and need to trust the communicator greatly influence the interpretation of the behaviour. When we don't understand the values in context symbolised by a communication, we 'reflect' upon our own contexts to choose one that either affirms our identity or refutes it. In Neuro-linguistic Programming this meaning-making process is called

'trans-derivational search'. This is of relevance where the communicator is a policy-maker and the other party is the policy-user. In particular, if we trust or need to trust the communicator/policy-maker then we find a context for which our interpretation aligns with our values and so we interpret the policy as affirming our identity and accept it. For example, a policy statement might be 'We need to streamline the curriculum so that our children spend their class-time in effective learning'. At some level of identity all stakeholders can find a context that agrees with the values symbolised by this intentionally imprecise statement. However, if the policy-maker is not trusted, then the stakeholders will find contexts where the interpretation refutes their values e.g. what if the policy-makers decide to cut areas of the curriculum that I value and what do they mean by the ominous term 'effective learning'. This is the realm of the 'Spin doctor', using precisely vague 'Milton Model' language to build trust and acceptance and to ensure that contrary contexts of Policy-users are censored.

Behaviours affirming Cultural Identity: Compliancy standards are policy truth. When the compliance standards are put in place there often comes a rude awakening for policy-users. These compliance standards can define precise behaviours that users might not be able to align with the contexts they inferred from the ambiguous policy. The behaviours are attainment indicators for compliance standards. They are enforced by rewarding or withholding allocation of education resources under the policy provision. John Sargis gives examples from neoliberal education policy in the USA, including … "Another trap in NCLB (No Child Left Behind policy) is a military recruitment policy. Section 9528 requires high schools to give Type I student information which is: name, address and telephone number of each student to the Pentagon. The Pentagon then sends this information to local military recruiters. If a high school refuses to hand over this information the school will lose its federal funding" (Sargis, 2005, p.5). Policy-makers get to define the attainment indicators, both the aggregated statistics defining the label, the measures allowed for the 'evidence base' of those statistics and the cut-point levels for success. It is at this 'eye-opening' stage there might be user dissent; Google 'protest against education' to see the latest international protests and dissents, millions of them. Protesters take to the streets because neoliberal educational governance systems are changed to exclude protesters voicing their values at the compliance standards stage of policy making. The discontent of policy users is controlled by inserting additional levels of

committees in the 'negotiating' structure distancing them from negotiations with policy-makers and by narrowing the resource accountability of the policy-makers to the occasional election vote. The tall hierarchies of negotiating committees are there to protect policy-makers from the humanistic values of policy-users so that only the fiscal language of neoliberal decision making can enter negotiations; "this language of neo-liberalism is unable to convey any human emotion, including the most basic ones such as happiness, greed, envy, love or lust" (Soudien, Apple & Slaughter, 2013, p. 455). Hence, two policy lessons from Culturometrics are to never accept policy without standards and to maintain a flat negotiating hierarchy.

THE LANGUAGE OF NEOLIBERAL POLICY HAS BECOME THE COMMON LANGUAGE OF THOUGHT

In the previous sections we have seen the power of policy language to encourage the group acceptance of others as one of us and then as personal acceptance being 'like me'. But language also anchors our thoughts and their associated feelings – it makes them real. In this way our language shapes our reality. It follows that whoever shapes our language shapes us (Boufoy-Bastick, 2009). We now show how the increasing use of neoliberal language is shaping our thoughts, our decisions and our cultural identities.

Neoliberal language use and use of its related terms has increased a thousand fold since the 1980's (Boas & Gans-Morse, 2009). Neoliberal policy methods of monetisation are now so acceptable that they permeate common language, e.g. people are 'sold on' an idea rather than being 'persuaded of' an idea; what was 'the summary' is now 'the bottom line', students are 'customers' and teaching is no longer a vocation but teachers are 'in the business of' education. Kathleen Lynch observes "Student and staff idealism to work in the service of humanity is seriously diminished as universities operate as entrepreneurial, purely competitive business-oriented corporations" (Lynch, 2006 p. 10); and as Panayota Gounari (2006) argues in 'Contesting the Cynicism of Neoliberal Discourse: Moving Towards a Language of Possibility'

"By using words such as "interested parties" or "consumers," instead of "people" or maybe "citizens," neoliberalism conveniently positions subjectivities in an absolute apathy and inertia regarding any political project. Being a "consumer" already presupposes that you have a range of options and that you have the means to consume. It does not presuppose that you

can question your very identity as a consumer, nor that this very identity really strips you of any form of agency that would call into question this reductionist notion of citizenship" (p.81).

Within the mindset of 'cost benefit analysis' people are now prepared to make and accept decisions on the quality of people's lives, even on saving lives based on the cost of equipment and they prepared to accept the sickening idea of the dollar value of their lives. From 1980–2000 Feminists realised the influence of masculine language, identified it and successfully fought against it. e.g. "[M]ale-based generics are another indicator-and, more importantly, a reinforcer-of a system in which "man" in the abstract and men in the flesh are privileged over women" (Kleinman, 2000, p. 6). Over the same period monetarist language has infected of minds. This chapter call for teachers to restrain and contain the influence of monetarist language on our thinking about education.

A MAJOR NEOLIBERAL TAKE-OVER OF EDUCATIONAL THINKING IS ITS MEANINGS OF 'MERIT' AND EXPRESSIONS OF 'EQUITY'

Greater social divisions are created by Neoliberal education policies that reward 'Merit'. We now briefly question our meanings of 'merit'. In its neoliberal usage 'Merit' is given the eugenic meaning of inherited intelligence plus effort as in Michael Young's satirical book 'The rise of the meritocracy: An essay on Education and Equality': "Intelligence and effort together make up merit (I+ E =M)" (Young, 1994, p. 94). Culturometrics uses the term 'merit' in its definition of 'equality'. However, it does not use it in the unitary sense of everyone valuing one human attribute such as 'Intelligence'. Jo Littler (2013) gives an interesting account of the neoliberal takeover of this word in her 'Meritocracy as Plutocracy: The Marketising of 'Equality' Under Neoliberalism' and she uses the term in this unitary sense; "..whilst 'meritocracy' is valued for its ability to dismantle inherited privilege, it is also damned for its power to create new, unfair social divisions. The fictional 'Chelsea Manifesto' is the clearest expression of an alternative to both, with its often powerful arguments for equality, for valuing 'kindliness and courage, sympathy and generosity' over narrow conceptions of intelligence..." (Littler, 2013, p. 58). Like the 'Chelsea Manifesto' Culturometrics promotes valuing 'kindliness and courage, sympathy and generosity' and the infinite diversity of other human attributes that brought to merit can enrich society. Jo Littler (2013)

concludes her development of the neoliberal use of the 'merit' with a more social meaning of the word:

"Through neoliberalism meritocracy has become an alibi for plutocracy, or government by a wealthy elite. It has become a key ideological term in the reproduction of neoliberal culture in Britain. It has done so by seizing the idea, practice and discourse of greater social equality which emerged in the first half of the twentieth century and marketising it. Meritocracy, as a potent blend of an essentialised notion of 'talent', competitive individualism and belief in social mobility, is mobilised to both disguise and gain consent for the economic inequalities wrought through neoliberalism. However, at the same time, such discourse is neither inevitable nor consistent. It requires actively reinforcing and reproducing and can be augmented and shaped in a number of different places and spaces. The alternative to plutocracy-as-meritocracy is a more plural understanding of 'merit' - which considers 'merit' on a collective and not a purely individual basis - alongside mutual and co-operative forms of social reproduction which create greater parity in wealth, opportunity, care and provision" (Littler, 2013, p. 69).

In contrast to this unitary use, Culturometrics actively promotes a diversity of merit; where each person's choice to find or develop their chosen area of potential receives equally support and recognition – not necessarily equally from each individual but equally from society as a whole. As such Culturometric's use of 'merit is more aligned with Daniel Bell's (1972) vision, not in opposition to social democracy, but of multiple individual and group merits contributing to society in a sea of social sufficiency.

GAP-TALK VS. EQUITY: NEOLIBERAL FLATTENING OF DIVERSITY WITH AGGREGATED STATISTICS AND NOMINALISATIONS

Gap-talk is another neoliberal language area that moulds our thinking to obscure our values from ourselves. Gap-talk is a tool of recuperative education policy. Gap-talk compares two or more nominalised groups on an achievement indicator under the equity assumption that they should have equal achievements. It then proposes resource dispersions to 'close the gap'. Examples are the attainment gaps between aggregated demographic groups and some assumed educationally dependent advantages such as male and female student results in STEM subjects, the gaps between ethnic groups in IQ tests and their assumed education dependent attainments such as

employment remuneration and quality of life indicators (crime statistics, devoices, specific illnesses, age of first pregnancy, etc., etc.). In this process there are many definitions conveniently constructed and labelled under policy-maker control that can be optimised for minimax based policies to minimise resource allocation. In this value-laundering cost-cutting process the needs of specific cultural groups are hidden under aggregate labels and the actual causes of the gaps are thus obfuscated. Gap-talk of attainment differences between schools – under-performing schools - particularly affords "opportunities for replacement and/or remediation of 'failing' or 'weak' public sector institutions. The education businesses can sell school improvement – offering schools ways of accommodating themselves to the demands of state performativity and the production of new organisational identities" (Ball, 2009, p. 85). Indeed, the role of the neoliberal government is to prepare the public education sector for financial rape. "The state acts as a 'commodifying agent' rendering education into commodity and contractable forms, and 'recalibrating institutions' in an attempt to make them homological with the firm and amenable to the processes of the 'market form' thus creating the necessary economic and extra-economic conditions within the public sector within which business can operate" (Ball, 2009, p. 97).

We encourage traditional educators to contest neoliberal policy definitions given by gap-talk. Neoliberal policy definitions of gap-talk can be contested by different cultural groups. There are many points in the policy-making and policy implementation processes where the policy makers can privilege their values in context over those of the policy users. It is at these points that we can contest meanings which are detrimental to our values. For example, are the indicators of achievement valid and are the measures of those indicators valid. That is, do the behaviours chosen for indicators and the behaviours chosen as measures of those indicators represent the values in relevant context of the policy-users to which they are being applied or are the chosen indicators and measures promoting the values in a different context of the policy-makers. A major example is the narrow curriculum content for enculturation of employee-ment, whose measurement by ranked national tests results – composed mostly of cheap machine-scanned and statistically manipulated shaded multiple response-options - is used as an achievement gap outcome of what the public expect of students' education, of teachers' ability, of effectiveness of school policy and even of national competiveness! The immediate visceral validity-test of these multifarious

machinations of policy is simply how they affirm our different ideal-types of cultural identity – our ideal values in all the important contexts of our lives.

Another way of hiding diversity is by aggregating statistics. Aggregate 'chunking' is acceptable when differences are shown not to matter. We use profiles when they do matter – a mundane example is when we choose between using students' Grade point averages or their transcript profiles. Teachers better also question the 'values in context' promoted by the policy definitions of 'Equity': What groups are being compared – do any of the groups comprise relevantly dissimilar cultural identities whose values need to be considered separately; What is the achievement indicator that is being equalised - does it represent relevant values of the individuals in the groups compared; Is Equity an equality of opportunity/access to an equally valued resources or an equality of outcomes that are equally sought. We note that 'outcome' is a product' but 'access' is a process so they have no commonality for such a comparison. It is a Humanistic Culturometric intention that education gives equal access to the most personally valued outcomes. The most valued Culturometric outcome of education is 'achievement of one's potential ideal cultural identity'. Hence, the Culturometric pursuit of Equity for individuals – which resolves the issue of group representation and labelling – is that each person's access to education results in the meritocratic achievement of their potential ideal cultural identity. However, neoliberal policy acts to reduce the options of what we can be. It acts by reducing public education resources to deliver a narrow value curriculum of employment skills – narrowing the diverse potential identities of students to 'employee-ment'. Through neoliberal policy requirements of 'performativity' it reconstructs the diverse cultural identities of educators to that of neoliberal academics. Later we uncover the identity reconstructions of academics. First we look at 'employee-ment' and the policy produced student that results from this limited education.

Conclusions

This chapter presented an Culturometric memetic analysis in terms of identity construction of two major current international issues in teacher education (i) global dissatisfactions with the traditional content and process of Teacher Professional Development and (ii) the international debacle of neoliberal destruction of traditional forms of national education in terms of depletion

of public resources and the reconstruction of teacher and student identities in the oligarchical interests of capital market economics repugnant to the diversified practices of traditional humanistic education.

The analysis of teachers' professional development in terms of constructing teacher identities enables teacher education to more effectively target the three identified abilities of Teacher Professional Development with the three precise processes of Committed Communication. We identified an embedded three-ability structure of Teacher Professional Development: Reflection within Collaboration within Management and Policy. We then applied the three parts of Culturometric Committed Communication to develop these three abilities. The reader, student, teacher or teacher educator need do only three things to benefit from this new Culturometric perspective of teachers' professional development: Identify for themselves - (i) delimitations of the context, (ii) values, attitudes, beliefs and intentions of the stakeholders; and (iii) values associated by the stakeholders to the medium of communication. Readers can do these three things to achieve new understandings of their own contexts and can then benefit personally by comparing their own values within their own educational contexts – that is their own Educational cultural identity - with those of their own stakeholders. We can facilitate this by identifying the stakeholders; their values, attitudes, beliefs and intentions within the research context; and the values associated by their cultures with the medium of communication. We can expect failure to follow misalignment of cultural values and we can expect success to follow congruent communication and the alignment of cultural values. Successful outcomes in Management and Policy require stakeholders to align their cultural identities. This implies teacher competence in the two embedded abilities of Collaboration and Reflection. For success the teacher needs competence in all three parts of the committed communication process, namely the two steps of agreeing the context and of negotiating alignment of values and thirdly, the concurrent requisite of calibrating the stakeholder values implied by the media of communication; that is agreeing the context and/or negotiating alignment of stakeholders' values and/or calibrating the consistency of media and stakeholders' values. These abilities can be learnt incrementally over the period of Teacher Professional Development.

Now we must take other policy roads to new horizons of pluralist education, as for example signposted:

— by Hursh (2009) in challenging neoliberal policies the growing divide between the rich world and the impoverishment of education;

— by Hyslop-Margison, and Sears (2006) in Reclaiming Education for Democratic Citizenship;

— by Henry Giroux's reports on recent attempts by faculty and students to resist the corporatization of higher education (Giroux, 2002, 2005);

— by practical social responses to inequality and crisis (Boufoy-Bastick, 2012b; Cox, 2010); and

— by Burgmann (1993) "An 'iron law of protest' operates as surely as an 'iron law of oligarchy'; just as elite theorists insist that large organisations will be inevitably controlled by a tiny minority, so it can be claimed that people will inevitably challenge this conservative power" (Burgmann,1993, p.1).

We start at the level of the individual educationists and their cultural groups by strengthening cultural identities and generating humanistic hypotheses for resistance to neoliberal destruction of a caring identity. Teachers report that it works (Ball & Olmedo, 2013) to reflect through one's values and on the options for actions that represent one's values:

"… when the teacher begins to look for answers to questions about the how(s) of power inside and around him or her, the how(s) of his or her beliefs and practices. In these moments, the power relations in which the teacher is imbricated come to the fore. It is then that he or she can begin to take an active role in their own self-definition as a 'teaching subject', to think in terms of what they do not want to be, and do not want to become, or, in another words, begin to care for themselves. Such care also rests upon and is realised through practices, practices of critique, vigilance, reflexivity, and of writing" (Ball & Olmedo, 2013, p. 86) Others, including Niclas Rönnström (2013) and Cris Shore and Susan Wright (1999) also conclude that we can "respond to the more damaging aspects of this neo-liberal agenda through 'political reflexivity'" (p. 557).

… and so, through the clarity of our hermeneutic cycle, 'reflection' returns us strengthened to our true selves.

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CHAPTER 7

Positioning as a Means of Understanding Curriculum

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Abstract

The curriculum has an effect on how the students' engagement in their studies can be supported. It is therefore important to understand the role of the curriculum culture constructed and maintained by the institution. The purpose of my article is to investigate the meanings given to the curriculum by students and teachers of a University of Applied Sciences. I will consider the curriculum from the perspective of currere (Pinar & al. 1995) and formation of social practices (Berger & Luckmann, 1995).

The empirical data in this study comprise the narratives of 35 students and teachers from different vocations and subjects relating to their experiences and thoughts concerning the curriculum. Using the method of positioning (Kukkonen, 2007), I identified four different positions on the curriculum: endurer, acceptor, applier and innovator. Having identified these positions, I deduced two different perspectives on the curriculum. The first is 'curriculum as a given manual' and the second is 'curriculum as constructed in action'. The vocabulary of these two perspectives, as well as their concepts, argumentation and assumptions are fundamentally different. The results of the analysis show that positioning can be used as a means of identifying socially constructed and maintained practices which might hinder studying and also individual needs to support learning and studying.

Key words: curriculum, positioning, *currere*

Introduction

Demands coming from outside educational institutions have led to revision of curricula in University of Applied Sciences. It should however be asked, how profound are the changes pursued if curriculum objectives are merely written using different terminology. The curriculum regulates the limits and possibilities of students' and teachers' work and action and so it affects students' engagement with their studies. The risk is that the curriculum is understood too narrowly and technically during curriculum planning activity. In this case, the changes may be mainly rhetorical as other organisational practices may provide students and teachers with only limited freedom of action.

Understanding of curriculum requires that the way students and teachers interpret the curriculum is made visible. Curriculum can be understood as part of the formation process of social practices (Berger & Luckmann, 1995), and thus the change requires learning at both individual and organisational levels. In this way change-related resistance and criticism might be converted into a resource to support reconstruction of personal identity and reorganisation of communal practices. The *currere*-based approach to curriculum offers the possibility to problematise diverse curriculum-related assumptions and practices which may otherwise be taken for granted (Pinar, Reynolds, Slattery & Taubman 1995).

In this paper I will consider the meanings given to curriculum by students and teachers from a wide range of vocations and subjects in a University of Applied Sciences, and anchor my analysis to the *currere* and social constructivist approaches. Formation and use of curricula are affected by many interests and it is possible to consider and understand the topic from many different viewpoints. Due to this complexity, I will not discuss implementation but instead will focus on understanding of curricula.

Curriculum in formation process of social practices

In Classical Latin, the key meanings for the word *curriculum* were a race, round or track (Doll 1993, p. 126). The verb *currere* can also be translated to 'going' without the specific meaning of 'racing'. A *currere*-based curriculum would mean that recognition of the student's personal plan and support of the student's path (*currere*) are needed to promote learning. C*urrere* thinking

can be linked to autobiographical and phenomenological curriculum theory. Individuals' subjective experiences, as told by the individuals themselves, are the focus. *Currere* thinking uses the terms voice, place, space, and narrative, to describe humans' intertwining into their own life situation including personal life history, community, and culture (Pinar & al., 1995, p. 404–449, 515–566).

Institutions regulate human behaviour by setting predefined behavioural models and in this way individuals learn what kind of behaviour is typical in certain situations (Berger & Luckmann, 1995, p. 67; Heritage, 1996, p. 67). The curriculum is understood to work as an intermediary factor between the practices of the educational institution and the "external world", such as the education and labour policy, working life demands, and diverse professional, educational, and scientific traditions (Kukkonen 2009, p.153). According to Berger and Luckman (1995) people create and maintain social phenomena by means of diverse social practices. A new practice is formed as a three-phase process. The first phase is *externalisation* which means production of diverse matters, phenomena, and practices. An example of this is the so-called competence thinking which connects new definitions and obligations to teachers and students.

In the next phase, *objectivation*, these new matters and practices are repeated in narratives, speeches, and written works (Berger & Luckman, 1995). The repeated reassurances in official regulations, books, education policy comments, studies, and expert speeches lead to the new definitions and obligations starting to live their own life and be taken for granted. This has taken place for example in the case of 'competence thinking'. People have started to think it is a natural and self-evident fact that, for example, course objectives are expressed as competence statements and assessment focuses on competences or final results.

In the third phase, called *internalization*, human beings step into the given world and take the ready concepts into a part of their understanding of the world. Social reality thus becomes objective reality which humans internalise in the socialisation process to their own internal reality (Berger & Luckman, 1995). Newcomers (students) are expected to adopt the vocabulary used by the community, and the teachers are expected to change their conceptions and speech to match the new and "better" vocabulary and way of speaking (cf. competence-based curriculum).

From the viewpoint of understanding operations, it is important that everybody in Universities of Applied Science has gone through the

above-mentioned socialisation process. The earlier internalised and self-evident conceptions are probably different than those of the current discourse concerning vocational teachership. They do however work as a basis for understanding and interpreting the new terms and ways of speaking, as the earlier internalised world tends to remain (Berger & Luckmann 1995, p. 159; Rauhala, 1989, p. 39). A curriculum is also read and interpreted through the earlier understanding. The curriculum can be understood as certain kind of manuscript which gives limits and possibilities for how students and teachers can participate in the community practices (cf. Wenger, 2009) or be a part of the manuscript, its formation and use. The curriculum is thus not only written text but covers the planned, achieved and experienced viewpoints into the curriculum manuscript (cf. *currere*).

Curriculum positions

The empirical data of the study comprise thematic interviews of 17 University of Applied Sciences students and 18 members of teaching staff (Stenlund 2010, p. 7–8). All the staff members had completed 60 credits of pedagogical studies and worked as teachers. They will thus be called teachers hereafter.

I used the positioning approach in the analysis of the transcribed interview data. Positioning means the way a person places his or herself in a specific situation (van Langenhove & Harré, 1999, p. 16; Hietala, Koivunen & Ropo, 2004, p. 100; Kukkonen, 2007, 2009). The role concept loaned from the world of theatre and drama has usually been used in describing interpersonal activities and interaction. Study of interpersonal activity with the role concept alone may however override personal meanings (Kukkonen, 2007, p. 124). According to Harré and van Langenhove (1999, p. 32) the concepts of role and role behaviour focus on static, formal and ritual aspects. In contrast the position and positioning concepts are related to flexibility and dynamism. Self-made positioning is based on a person's own world of living (Rauhala, 2005, p. 112) and thus it is always subjective. Due to this, the same phenomenon (such as a curriculum) can be seen differently within different individuals' worlds, even if they had the same institutional role title (student, teacher). It is thus possible to take and to hold diverse positions inside one role.

In this article, positioning means the setting of an individual in a specific position in relation to a component of his or her life situation, the curriculum.

I approached the student and teacher interview data as narrative and recognised different themes and plot structures, as well as searching for meanings given to the curriculum by means of recognising positioning (see Kukkonen, 2007). In reading the data, the continuously considered question was: "How do teachers and students position themselves and tell about being positioned in relation to the curriculum?" According to Bamberg (2004, 135–136) it is possible to study the person-to-world and world-to-person relationships by means of positioning. As a method, positioning also suits *currere* thinking, as the focus is on the individual's experience and on the relation of the social environment to the experience (Pinar & al., 1995, p. 416).

Four different curriculum-related positions were identified within the interview data. Their key features are described below with quotations from the interviews to provide insight into my interpretation of the data. The interviewee names used here are pseudonyms.

Curriculum endurer

"One feels somehow stupid when reading basic courses later when one should already master them … not to intentionally teach people something that does not exist anymore".

(Seppo, student)

"Yes, we've a couple of matters there which have a bit of hidden curriculum nature, or there are certain things we require or want our students to do but they aren't said in the official curriculum. We take care of their implementation by ourselves but if they weren't implemented for some reason, they wouldn't stop the student from graduating in practice."

(Martti, teacher)

In the endurer's position, the attitude towards the curriculum was extremely critical and pessimistic. It was mostly talked about as a document which is made for administration and control and hardly supports studying and teaching or rather disturbs them. The curriculum was not experienced as personal, but rather as an external supervision and forcing means. "*But now we and students have many problems because of the administrative tricks*"

(Kalevi, teacher). The curriculum may also disturb work because it includes impractical or outdated demands. The teacher is positioned as a teaching official who goes through the matters set in the curriculum and ensures that students follow the instructions.*"It hasn't become clear yet who benefits from the 80-percent attendance obligation."* (Sanna, student)

When the curriculum is experienced as impractical, it may be dismissed, by both students and teachers, or handled as they consider best. *"If I go to ask, seriously, if I go and ask how many of you know our curriculum, I can tell that not many."* (Aila, teacher). Expectations of curriculum work are very pessimistic as from the endurer's position the curriculum is a necessary burden which has to be lived with. If the curriculum is understood as a manuscript, in the endurer's position, it was important to criticise the manuscript and also to dismiss it.

Curriculum acceptor

"… there're very few possibilities to proceed according to one's own interests … And there're no alternative study modes but sitting on lectures is quite a strong culture."

(Sanna, student)

"It's very closely programmed … it's almost ready before our summer holiday, and it's published for students as soon as they come to school in August and they get the whole year … it's a guideline for all work, at least with us, in teaching … when the curriculum is written to Winha (the Credit Documentation System) and implementations and others it's a manuscript for each year."

(Pekka, teacher)

In the acceptor's position, the curriculum was understood as a ready document given to students and teachers. Working life and companies define the curriculum contents, curriculum writers disseminate them inside the educational institution, and students and teachers receive the curriculum. The curriculum itself or its contents were not questioned but the criticism was mostly directed towards changes, overlapping contents

and timetables, inaccuracies, and difficulties in reading.*"And it's practically impossible to fit two timetables. As you can't be in two places at the same time"* (Tuula, student). As the working and business life defines the educational objectives, they cannot be separate from the practice. In this way, working life orientation and equivalence apply automatically. *"… our scenario starts with what we assume the working life needs and we have for example asked the advisory council's opinions"* (Katri, teacher). The curriculum is thus a document reinforcing the academic progress and implementation of teaching, and the teacher has to make sure that students work towards the objectives and attain them. But clear scheduling also leads to problems. *"I had to change the place of one course in the timetable and it led to a horrible war … I learnt my lesson and have never done it again."*

(Pekka, teacher)

In the acceptor's position, it was not considered necessary to participate in the construction of curriculum. It was considered that the expertise of heads of degree programmes and working life representatives was enough. The expectation for the construction of the curriculum was to have as clear a manual as possible. If the curriculum is understood as a manuscript, it was important in the acceptor's position to implement the given manuscript.

Curriculum applier

"… the plan isn't so binding and it can be adapted by the situation and interest. It's so free anyway. The path is praiseworthy free."

(Joonas, student)

"… in UAS (University of Applied Sciences) there've traditionally been two levels, the curriculum is made and the courses are planned inside it and in this way the teacher has had a lot of power and responsibility for the course contents."

(Pentti, teacher)

In the applier's position, the curriculum was personalised. It was used as a basis for forming personal objectives and making an operating plan or attempts were made to search for links to personal objectives. Students linked the curriculum to their expectations on future professional requirements and demands, whereas teachers emphasised their experience and field-specific expertise. In the applier's position, the curriculum was understood as a readily available but not as a document to be followed as it is. It can be modified based on the life situation, future expectations, competence, and prior experiences. *"… in the end students can largely affect it as a whole."* (Martti, teacher). A suitable whole is formed of the curriculum as are the student's individual study plan and the teacher's lesson and course plans. They can however be revised and changed during the process.

The expectation for the construction of the curriculum was to receive clear objectives and contents which can be modified for making personal plans. If the curriculum is understood as a manuscript, it was important in the applier's position to make a personal manuscript. The teacher was considered a key support person in making the student's manuscript.

Curriculum innovator

"I'd perhaps take more students in curriculum planning, what if students could first write the curriculum and then teachers wrote it too, after which they were compared and decisions were made based on it."

(Leena, student)

"…teachers very often refer to resource issues and ask where to have more hours. There's no need for any extra hours. It's just a question of how we use our time … But there're probably heads who don't have a wider understanding but for them teaching is being with students in a classroom … the thinking in the background is so old-fashioned, being paid for standing in the classroom."

(Aila, teacher)

The innovator's position included similar criticism of the rigidity and impracticality of the curriculum as in endurer's position. However, alternative ways

to construct curriculum were presented. In the innovator's position teacher and student were not considered as passive acceptors and implementors of a prior and elsewhere made impractical plan.

This position emphasised the curriculum as a part of a wider organisational, communal, professional or field-specific, and societal framework. The curriculum is based on a wider problem setting than subjects, vocations, or responding to the demands of working life. *"…it's not always worth thinking that in working life they know better what competence we need but we can also have a critical and external view on working life and how it should be changed"* (Katri, teacher). From the innovator's position, the focus is on cooperation between diverse parties as it can be used to solve many problems. Working life competences and demands have to form the basis for cooperation but they do not directly determine teachers' and students' work. The diverse parties can also negotiate on objectives and commitments as well as ways of action. *"…it's never out of the question to have a total change of the individual study plan and even deviate from the curriculum if a student makes a good suggestion."* (Jyrki, teacher)

In the innovator's position, construction of the curriculum was expected to consider diverse viewpoints and be a joint and living process. If the curriculum is understood as a manuscript, it was important in the innovator's position to understand the manuscript as a part of the context where it is produced, read, interpreted and used.

Summary

Key features of these four different positions have been collected in the following table. The table can be read both by columns with one position at a time or by rows by comparing diverse positions.

Table 1. Curriculum positions

	Endurer	Acceptor	Applier	Innovator
Nature of curriculum	Bureaucratic and administrative tool which disturbs learning and teaching	Description of courses, study modules, and course contents	Personal studying/teaching process plan (contents and/or methods)	Living process and tool for development
Purpose of curriculum	Unclear	Determines planning and implementation of studying and teaching	Gives guidelines for planning of studying and teaching	Helps to develop and reform practices
Curriculum writers	Faceless and unnamed, coming from somewhere	Experts (working life, companies, heads of degree programme)	Oneself (based on personal interests and experiences)	In cooperation (teachers, students, working life, educational institution)
Key viewpoint to curriculum	Criticism of the given manuscript	Implementation of the given manuscript	Construction of a personal manuscript	Contextualisation of the created manuscript
Orientation of activity	Managing with studies/teaching. Dropping out/resignation	Completion of study performances and compliance with guidelines	Implementation of a personal project	Evaluation, preference, development, and reform

Evaluation responsibility	Teacher	Teacher	Teacher, peer and self-evaluation	In collaboration between diverse parties
Relationship between students and teachers	Person to be supervised – supervisor	Performer – evaluator	Person to be councelled – assistant	Beginner – cooperation partner
Curriculum requirements for teachers and students	Perseverence, tolerance of frustration	Diligence and sense of duty	Interest and initiative	Cooperation, criticism, and willingness to change
Challenges	Development of coping strategies	Reconsiliation of personal work, demands of the educational institution/ curriculum, and resources	Formulation of personal objectives, and planning of personal work	Reconsiliation of diverse intresses
Expectations for curriculum planning	The curriculum would not disturb studying/ teaching	Ready curriculum which is as detailed and clear as possible	The curriculum gives room for making personal plans	Highlighting of connections between the field of study and the society

These ways of positioning can be considered as a summary of diverse voices and narratives which individuals have told in a specific place and social space as part of their experiential life situation (cf. *currere*). It should be emphasised that each student and teacher were not classified to be representative of one

position only. According to the basic assumptions of position theory, it is possible to take several positions in relation to the same matter or phenomenon inside one role and several voices can often be heard in individuals' personal narratives (Harré & van Langenhove, 1999, p. 196; Moghaddam, 1999, p. 79). The same person can thus have taken several or even all of the above-mentioned four positions at diverse phases of the interview.

It is significant that it was possible to identify the above-mentioned positions both in students' and teachers' narratives. This shows that role-based study of meanings given to the curriculum may be too superficial, narrow or simplified. Socially constructed teacher and student roles have traditionally differed from one another and have hardly overlapped. Positioning means the way a person places him or herself within the situation and its norms. It is a question of personal positioning when the institutional teacher or student role is not sufficent for analysis of the situation.

Curriculum directs positioning

Based on the positions set out above, it was possible to identify two basic conceptions of the curriculum: curriculum as given manual and curriculum as constructed in action. *The curriculum as a given manual* is understood as a ready, norm-based document made by experts and to be followed by the teacher and student. This refers to a so-called Tylerian curriculum model (Tyler rationale). Its key idea is to find answers to four questions when making the curriculum: what is the objective of teaching, what experiences does attainment of the objective require, how can learning experiences be organized for effective instruction, and how the attainment of the objectives is evaluated (Tyler, 1949, p. 1.) All these have to be planned and recorded before the students and teacher meet and thus they do not participate in formulation of the objectives. It is the teacher's task to select appropriate teaching methods (see Kukkonen, 2007, p. 76–80.) The curriculum is a text defining the courses and study modules.

The curriculum as constructedin action refers to a process in which a curriculum framework works as an outline for the action. The orientation has features of *currere* thinking as it emphasises experience, student activeness, and contextuality of learning and competence (Pinar & al., 1995, p. 414–416). Construction of the curriculum can thus be seen as a continuing communal and individual learning process. As the curriculum is understood as constructed in action, it cannot be precisely standardised in advance. Unique situations demand action and reactions

from teachers and students which cannot be fully prepared in advance. Such thinking breaks the traditional assumption of student and teacher positions in planning, cooperation and assessment. It is a question of understanding and operating in another way than before, a new kind of a curriculum culture. *"I have to say that in a couple of months meanings were built over and over again."* (Katri, teacher)

The student and teacher roles in construction of the curriculum can be studied theoretically on a continuum. On one extreme they receive the implementor positions of a ready manual. The opposite is the conception where the basis for the student and teacher positions is participation and continuous co-production of societal information, evaluation, and reform of operations. The key features of these two basic conceptions are presented in the table 2.

Table 2. Curriculum as given manual and as constructed in action

	Curriculum as a given manual	**Curriculum as constructed in action**
Curriculum assumption	Educational modules, courses, objectives etc. can be defined in advance, divided in parts, and taught/learnt in such a way that the parts form a whole again	The curriculum is a framework which develops during operation, is continuously assessed and revised, and describes directions of operation.
Construction, evaluation and development responsibility of the curriculum is based on	Expertise of officials, administration, working life, and heads of degree programme	Expertise, operation, experience and participation of community members
Curricula consist of	Contents descriptions which work as norm-based planning and implementation documents	Process descriptions which focus on the communal and individual learning and identity formation process
Focus of operation is on	External studying process, study performances, learning and teaching methods	Internal learning process, interaction, cooperation, identity work

In practice, the curriculum is probably set between these extremes. As regards curriculum planning and construction, it should be noted that the vocabulary, concepts, grounds and assumptions of learning, and knowledge formation of these two basic conceptions are different. Using a particular vocabulary makes it difficult to justify one's conceptions rationally to someone using a different kind of vocabulary. The curriculum as constructed in action cannot be justified with the vocabulary of the curriculum as a given manual. The challenge is how to have people and groups with diverse conceptions to discuss with one another and at least understand approaches deviating from their own one. One means by which this might be achieved is recognition of what kind of positions students and teachers can take for themselves and give to others, what kind of positioning they have to agree on, and what positioning they can resist and challenge (Kukkonen, 2007, p. 116).

The earlier described positions can be combined with these two conceptions to capture the diverse views of the curriculum. In the following figure (figure 1), the positions have been placed in a field where the curriculum conception has been described with the continuum "constructed – given" and the curriculum relation with the continuum "approving – critical".
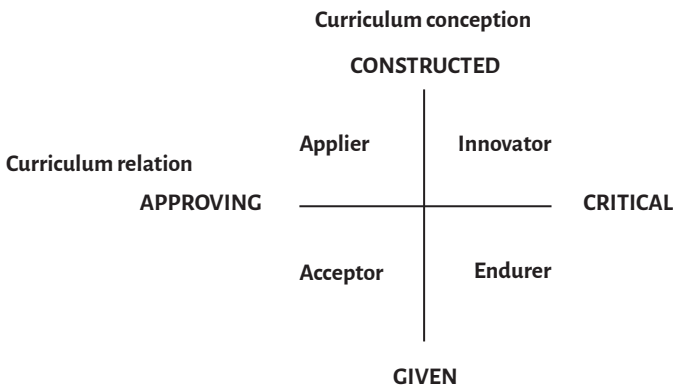

Figure 1. Curriculum conceptions and positions

The change in the conceptions of learning is connected to the identity, which creates conflict between the traditional role and the subjective identity (Carson, 2009, p. 217). When students and teachers position themselves in re-

lation to the curriculum, it can be considered as expression of personal identity. The human identity is defined based on what kind of information the person uses in trying to understand who he or she is, who he or she is not, and what he or she can become. An essential part of building a new identity is to resist change but resistance of change does not mean its rejection (Britzman, 1994, p. 58; Britzman, 1998, p. 118; Carson, 2009, p. 219). Both criticism and approval can thus be understood as part of the identity work.

The student and teacher identities are being formed in relation to the ways they are spoken to in the surrounding cultural systems. Learning can thus be understood as active participation in community practices and identity building in relation to the communities (Hall, 2002, p. 23; Ropo, 2009, p.152; Wenger, 2009, p.210–116). The curriculum culture established and maintained at Universities of Applied Sciences is thus not only related to production of knowledge and competence but it also directs identity work.

Multiple voices as resources for change

Based on positioning, it can be said that the experience of belonging and involvement are important for engagement in both studying and teaching. Belonging is related to the extent in which the student and teacher can feel they are members of diverse groups in the educational institution. Involvement is related to the experience of being able to affect and create expectations and demands concerning themselves and others. If for example teachers are allowed positions to affect the boundary conditions of their work, they can be expected to engage in development of communal operation and support of students' learning process in a different manner than required by the conventional conception of the teacher's role.

Transfer of the so-called development speech to action can be understood as social practice formation and identity work processes. The results described in this article refer to a re-socialisation process. Using the terms presented by Berger and Luckman (1995) the externalisation and objectivisation phases appeared in adopting the externally created new vocabulary and new way of talking. Their transfer to communal operation, a new operational culture within the organisation seems to require more profound individual and communal change processes. The new rhetorics of speaking and writing of objectives (for example the term student orientation) and multiple possibilities of studying and teaching did not support one another in all respects

in this data. More extensive practical effects are not to be found until the curriculum is understood differently at the level of the whole community.

Curriculum reform and change of institutional practices is not merely a question of a cognitive process, where people are expected to change their conceptions on the basis of hearing logical and rational justifications for the need for change. In identity work, attention should not be paid only to cognitive processes but also to emotional processes (Rauhala, 1989, p. 39; Berger & Luckmann 1995, p.159; Carson, 2009, p.215–216). In operational reform it is therefore important to allow voices of diverse positions (see table 1) – including resistance – as they tell how people experience themselves as parts of the curriculum manuscript, its formation and use.

> *The endurer's* position helps to critically study professional and field-specific practices, traditions, and ways of action created during prior socialisation processes.

> *The acceptor's* position helps to analyse what the plans mean in practice.

> *The applier's* position helps to notice that plans should leave room for people's own evaluation, life situation, interests, and objectives.

> *The innovator's* position helps to search for alternatives, new starting points, and functional solutions for current practices.

These positions should be understood as open possibilities and thus it is not worth categorising individuals or small groups as representatives of one position only or labelling them as opponents or supporters of reforms or development. Instead of static classifications it is worth considering what curriculum-related and operational factors activate diverse positions. In this way it is possible to move from classification of people towards genuine communal development and reform.

According to Whitson (2009, p.351) students understand and can utilise curriculum only if it is connected to the student's wider life situation and life plan. Intertwining of the student's learning paths (*currere*) and the curriculum would probably increase engagement in the community and studies and decrease the risk of social exclusion.

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The Teacher as an Agent of Change in the School Environment

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Abstract

The aim of this study is to examine how in-service teacher education may influence the role of the teacher as an agent of change in the school environment. The Turkish Ministry of National Education provides in-service teacher education in collaboration with the International English Language Education Association in order to keep English language teachers up-to-date with recent developments in education. The study evaluates to what extent in-service teacher education develops teachers as leaders, as agents of change and as contributors to school improvement. The study employs a qualitative research methodology and interview data that was collected in two phases in a Turkish city on the coast of the Agean Sea. The first phase was carried out during a one week in-service teacher education seminar, which was a six-hour per day program that covered areas ranging from skills teaching to the use of technology in language education. The second phase was carried out six months later. The first phase sample was composed of 19 course participants, and in the second phase, the 19 original course participants plus 38 of their peers and 10 school principals were interviewed. Findings revealed that some teachers, who work in a more democratic school environment, were able to develop as change agents because their principals created a flexible institutional culture. Teachers who work in a more rigid and centralized work environment, however, were not given the freedom to apply the ideas they had engaged with in the seminar. The study shows on the one hand that even a one-shot in-service teacher education course may contribute to developing teachers as change agents by raising teacher awareness on her subject knowledge and role. On the other hand, it shows that the ability to practice leadership and the change agent role very much depends on the school culture.

Keywords: leadership, change, change agent, school improvement, attitude to in-service teacher training.

Introduction

For a considerable time organisations have been perceived as systems that transform inputs into outputs. Miller and Rice (1967) developed a socio-technical model of organisations with the thought that technical or task aspects are interrelated with human or social aspects. In addition, the Miller and Rice theory emphasises that organisations have to be seen as open systems which are influenced by their environment. Being affected by their environment, all organisations are in an ongoing change as they need to evolve in order to survive, compete with the rival organisations, and grow (Armstrong, 1992, p. 154). Kanter (1984) argues that introduction to change is the responsibility of a manager, however, in order to implement change, an administrator should gain the commitment of the teams that operate within the organisation. There has been considerable debate about who should initiate change in schools, either principals or teachers, or both as school is a social organisation. One of the most discussed and studied subjects of education however, is the act of teaching and learning. Teaching has long been recognised as a complex interaction of poorly specified and not much understood variables (Weller 1971). School is a complex social organisation where all the stakeholders; teachers, students, administrators and parents are gathered together to bring up healthy, successful and happy generations. Even though it has been explored extensively, successful teaching is frequently considered to be a mystery and the teacher is seen as the victim of any kind of failure including a student fails a course or the school may not achieve an academic goal set. Hence, ongoing teacher education is provided in many educational organisations worldwide to enhance teachers' professional and personal qualities.

The In-service Teacher Education Department (part of the Turkish Ministry of National Education) offers teachers in-service teacher education and targets all aspects of teaching to support high quality education. These programs aim to develop teacher skills, empower teachers and prepare them to lead change that helps to implement the educational goals of the state. Hence, teachers are seeking to develop "finely tuned programs that map the pathways to successful teaching" (Brown, 1994, p. 292). In this context, the teacher is expected to play a number of roles while performing her profession in a constantly changing environment. English language teaching has been recognised as a profession and a field of education that is very dynamic

with its new methodologies and techniques, which are developed in order to meet the demands of the changing world. No single method has been sufficient in itself to deal with the great variety of circumstances, types of learners, and levels of instruction that constitute foreign language pedagogy (Allen and Harley 1992).

The teachers' role in this highly complex system is considered to be crucial as students are shaped by their teachers, not only in the classroom but also in the wider school environment. In this context, the teacher as an agent for change performs many roles consciously or unconsciously and enriches her repertoire through the on-going training provided to her (Ur, 1996). Fullan (1993) argues that both administrators but every educator must make an effort to be a change agent, but teachers' role in change is unique in itself. Fullan (1993) argues that education needs to be examined and improved in order to sustain professional learning communities that could be created in schools. Fullan (1993) further states that an education leader needs to support the most effective teachers, to encourage them to take a change agent role within their school environment. Teacher awareness is important, to what extent teachers realise the roles that they are expected to perform, or whether in-service teacher education activities play a significant role in this respect.

Lichtenstein, McLaughlin and Knudsen put forward the idea that "expansion of teacher knowledge plays a key role on teacher empowerment" (1992 pp. 40–41) so that teachers are able to perform their jobs with enthusiasm, confidence and authority. This leads to teacher empowerment, which is enhanced not only by providing in-service teacher education but also by assigning roles and allocating responsibility (Daloğlu & Güçeri, 1995). As a result, the needs of the schools and of society are met and leadership and change agency are exercised.

The purpose of this study is to evaluate the impact of in-service teacher training programmes on teachers' roles as change agents. These programmes are designed and delivered by the state in collaboration with universities. There appears to be a lack of research evidence on the impact of in-service courses on the teacher's role as an agent of change, whether program participants practice leadership roles at schools, and whether this training leads from teacher development to school improvement.

Collins's (2001) leadership wheel shows how disciplined people build up disciplined thought which leads to disciplined action. An effective leader catalyses commitment to vision and standards by encouraging team member

contribution to group objectives as it is perceived crucial in attaining goals in change. The Collins's wheel can be adapted to Education to become a school improvement leadership wheel (Figure 1) that may be implemented teachers who have participated in in-service teacher education seminars.
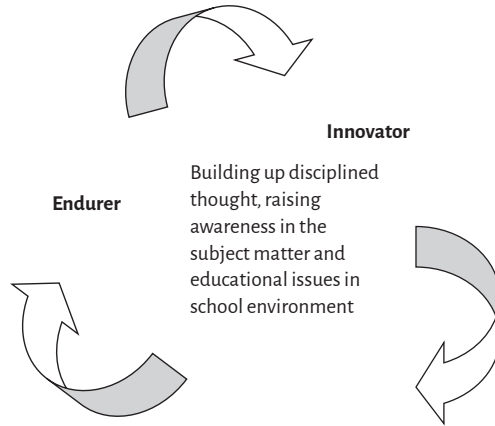

Innovator

Building up disciplined thought, raising awareness in the subject matter and educational issues in school environment

Endurer

Figure 1. The school improvement wheel (Adapted from Collins, 2001)

This research focuses on the following question: How and in what ways do teachers use knowledge gained through in-service teacher education to facilitate organisational change in their institutions?

In-service Teacher Training seminars have been held for many years. INGED acts as the liason between the Ministry of National Education and universities and provides educators from faculties of education to teach the program. Teachers from all parts of the country are invited to a 5-day intensive training program and at the end a feedback form is distributed to the participants for evaluation purposes. However, these seminars were not formally evaluated in terms of their contribution to school development, teachers' role as change agents and impact on teacher perceptions regarding professional development. This study enabled the collection of data on perceptions of school administrators, as well as those of teachers, regarding their change agent and leadership roles.

Definitions of terms

The major terms that are used in this research are defined below.

ITEP/S: In-service Teacher Education Seminar/Program provided by the Ministry of Education in collaboration with INGED.

INGED: International English Language Teachers' Association in Turkey. INGED provides teacher educators to Ministry of National Education in-service teacher training seminars.

MEB: Ministry of National Education.

Change agent is used for an individual who makes a difference in his environment in terms of new materials, new behaviour in practices and new beliefs in understanding (Fullan, 1993).

Leader refers to a committed, enthusiastic and energetic teacher who is full of ideas and hopes. Highly capable individuals make productive contributions to school development if their skills are used for school improvement (Evans, 1996).

Professional learning community enhances team spirit where collaborative culture is established, sharing, trust and support is provided. Team work is appreciated, joint action is taken and continuous improvement is achieved. (Edge, 1995)

School improvement refers to continuous improvement in school reaching every classroom that is, improvement in instruction by establishing a learning community in school environment, providing teacher and learner development by restructuring, reculturing and retiming which leads to development in community (Purkey & Smith, 1982).

Role refers to the responsibilities individual teachers commit themselves (Fullan, 1993).

ELT refers toEnglish Language Teaching

TEFL refers to Teaching English as a Foreign Language

TESL refers to Teaching English as a Second Language

Phase 1 & 2 Data collection during and after six months of the seminar

Method

This study explores the impact of an in-service teacher education seminar on teacher role, teacher contribution to school improvement and teacher attitude to professional development. Qualitative research is the methodology preferred as it enabled the researcher to have an in-depth look at the issue by communicating to the individual teachers and school administrators one-to-one, allowing the researcher to explore how they perceived their roles, how they acted or how things were done (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000). The case study method has been employed in this study, and the major benefit of the case study is that it enables a rigorous, holistic investigation of issues shaping 'the change agency' roles of the English language teachers working in the organisation. Most case studies in education are qualitative and 'hypothesis-generating', rather than quantitative and 'hypothesis-testing studies' (Merriem, 1990, p. 8). Interviews were employed as the data collection instrument as ' adventure into the experiences of others to identify what others think and feel about their worlds' (Rubin and Rubin 1995). The researcher designed four interview schedules and conducted interviews in their natural settings to gather data on teacher, peer teacher and administrator perceptions of the impact of in-service teacher training on the change agency role of teachers, teacher development and school improvement.

This research study was conducted in two phases. The first phase of data collection took place at the Ministry of Education Training Centre in the town where the in-service teacher training seminar took place. The researcher conducted interviews while English language teachers were participating in the seminar. The second phase was six months after the seminar and interviews took place both in the Centre and in the teachers' school workplace environment. In the first phase of the research 19 English language teachers were randomly selected from the total of 69 program participants. These 19 English language teachers were teaching at various state schools. In the second phase, the same 19 teachers were approached in the schools where they worked and all of them were interviewed for the second time on an appointment basis. The researcher visited the schools where these 19 teachers worked and approached the peers of these teachers to gather their perceptions regarding the outcome of the training provided.

The 38 peer teachers were specialist teachers of English, who did not attend the September seminar, or teachers specialising in teaching subjects

including history, music, maths and literature. Teachers were heterogeneous in terms of experience as some taught at primary and some at secondary levels. Secondary level teachers were heterogeneous as they taught at a variety of schools including selective, vocational and science schools. A sample of 10 school principals were interviewed in their schools to gather their perspectives on the impact of the seminar on participating teachers. Principals were interviewed in their offices on an appointment basis. Peer teachers were approached informally and during each interview notes were taken or the interview was audio recorded if agreed by the interviewee.

All the interviewees were prompted to discuss the impact of in-service teacher training on the change agent role of the seminar participants who were supposed to initiate innovations at schools with the new knowledge that they had gained. The interviewer also prompted participants to discuss how new knowledge was exploited and shared with other teachers. This provided insight into teacher contribution to school improvement and teacher attitude to professional development during and after the provision of in-service teacher training.

Figure 2. shows the numbers of interviewees involved in each phase.

Phase 1 ----------------------- 19 English teachers participating in the seminar
Phase 2.1 ----------------------- 19 English teachers as above
Phase 2.2 ----------------------- 38 Peer teachers working with the above
Phase 2.3 ----------------------- 10 school principals, managing all of the above

Figure 2. Interview samples in the study

Sampling

Purposive, or in Patton's term 'convenience', sampling method was employed in this research study (Patton, 1987, p.1). There were 69 seminar participants of varying age, professional experience and school context. The researcher aimed at a sampling strategy to capture maximum variation as Patton (1987) supports that such an approach helps researchers select a small sample with diversity. Each interview took around 30 to 45 minutes and they were audio – recorded with the permission of the participants in order to cap-

ture an accurate record. Notes were also made for double checking of data transcrition and for the cases where recording was not permitted. Later, the recorded interviews were transcribed fully and have been archived.

It was helpful that the 19 participants were reinterviewed with no attrition in the second phase. In addition 38 peer teachers were interviewed. Of these peers 19 were English language teachers and the rest were the teachers of maths (3), science (3), music (4), history (2), geography (2), biology (2), or classroom teachers (3) who were responsible for a particular class in primary education.

A total of 10 school administrators were also interviewed in phase 2 of the research study and the aim of the interviews was to explore principals' perceptions of teacher change and of the change agency role of English language teachers who participated in the in-service teacher training seminars. Interviews were held at schools in the principals' own working context and the data was recorded if permission was granted, otherwise the researcher took detailed notes of the answers provided. Each interview took around 40–50 minutes.
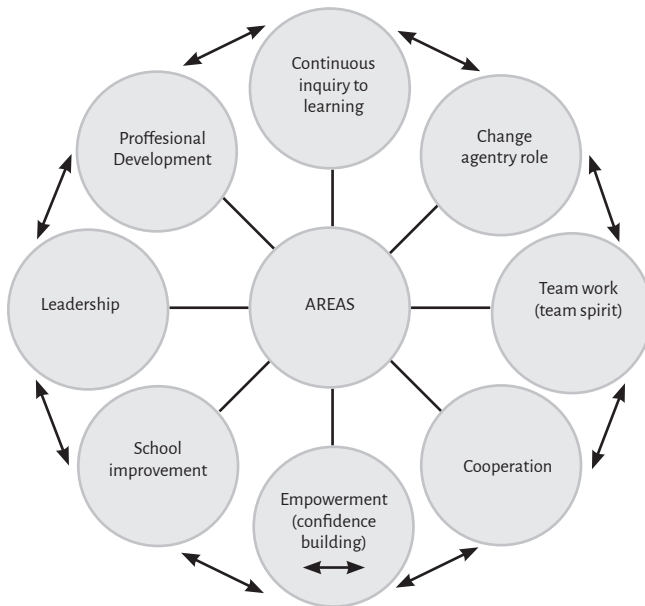

Figure 3. Interview framework with all its constituents which specify the areas of the research study

Data were triangulated to ensure reliability by interviewing not only those 19 seminar participant English teachers but also the randomly selected 38 peer teachers who did not attend the seminar but who were working in the same schools alongside the seminar participants and 10 school principals. The data gathered from all of these sources were analysed.

Results

The results from data analysis can be grouped under the following headings:
1. Attitude to In-Service Teacher Training
2. Change and change agency role
3. Team work
4. Empowerment and knowledge of pedagogy
5. School improvement
6. Professional awareness and attitude

Within the results related to attitude towards in-service teacher training, three groups of teachers were identified: the first group, composed of the teachers who volunteered to participate (11), the second group,composed of the teachers who said that they participated willingly (5), and the final group, composed of the teachers who were "not keen on attending but somehow they found themselves in the seminar room" (3). This data suggested that the majority of teachers (16) were reasonably enthusiastic concerning in-service teacher education. After six months, some of the teachers expressed their inspiration and future plans related to in-service teacher education. This was important in demonstrating the impact of in-service teacher education on individuals' career development plans.

Three teachers commented that the program affected their mood positively: "I learned recent teaching methods and techniques." and "I can share them with colleagues."

There seemed to be an age related element as one teacher commented: "No change in me but the seminar changed my colleagues...especially young colleagues learned a lot". This comment was important as it suggested overconfidence of senior teachers and also their attitude to professional development.

Two teachers complained about the attitude – namely hostility- of their colleagues while they tried new techniques in their schools."I felt empowered during the seminar but later I felt great diasappointment when I was using the ideas in my environment. I was told that I was making a lot of noise while I employed new techniques!"

These descriptions reinforced the point that teacher personality affects his/her perception on in-service teacher training. Kurtoğlu-Eken (2000) in her research on 'jizz' states that "personal qualities refer to the general attitudinal qualities that the teacher has and displays as a teacher" (p. 157). Kurtoğlu-Eken (2000) lists personal qualities as positive, friendly and caring attitude, openness and receptiveness as well as dynamic, cheerful, lively and pleasant manner. Clearly, individual experiences around teacher training play a significant role in developing biases and prejudices, however, personal qualities such as background, knowledge, awareness, attitude and manner and, perhaps more importantly, interpersonal skills, clearly have an impact on individuals.

The analysis suggests that three factors which impinge on teacher attitude to in-service teacher training are school culture, teacher attitude and quality training. Therefore, when an in-service teacher education program is designed these three factors need to be carefully observed and taken into account.

Discussion, Conclusions and Implications

The purpose of this study was to investigate the impact of in-service teacher training on the new role of the English language teachers, in terms of their performance as agents for change, contribution to school development and attitude to professional development from the views of teachers who attended the seminars, their peer teachers and the school administrators.

Findings of this study show that when teachers voluntarily participate in in-service teacher training, they may develop a positive attitude toward professional development. When they grow professionally, they build confidence and as a result, they are empowered, allowing them to act as change agents. After the seminar, teachers became even more willing to learn about the innovations in their profession. In this study, three factors have been surfaced, which affect teacher motivation to attend in-service teacher training seminars. Teacher and administrator data show that individual attitude to work, school culture, and teacher trainer quality are three important areas which shape teacher attitude to in-service teacher training.

The analysis reveals that the majority of the teachers, who attended the seminar voluntarily, changed either in their teaching behaviour or their approach in ELT or in their teaching methods, techniques or use of technology. This created an observable and positive change in them, however,

change is constant and this kind of seminar should be repeated regularly in order for the teachers to catch up and keep up with the change taking place in many aspects of their work. The results of this study identify 4 areas in which teachers developed thanks to the seminars; knowledge, skills, attitude, and awareness. Teachers were empowered to take on further roles, mainly involving a leadership element, such as materials producer, exam writer, workshop leader and project team leader. As a result, teachers' reflective behaviour supported school improvement by reflecting experience on the the other colleagues as well. As Barth (2001a) believes, every teacher has a hidden capacity to lead and every teacher can perform leadership roles, as the majority of the seminar participants did in this study subsequent to the seminar and related to its focus.

The analysis suggests that teacher workload is a significant issue. Teacher workload hinders teacher capacity and may pressurise a teacher to give up her leadership role but choose to teach (Barth, 1990).

The results of this study reveal the following assertions as teacher leaders develop capacity to:

– initiate change at schools
– navigate new tasks in schools
– establish a learning culture in the staff rooms
– model professional growth
– help others with change
– build confidence to perform tasks district wide
– encourage cooperative development
– promote professional development
– bring/initiate change to school culture

The above qualities can only be used if and when team work is established, support and encouragement is provided, and resources are made available. This raises the issue of collaboration and effective team work at all levels. McCarthy (1992) emphasizes collaborative inquiry between teachers, administrators, parents and students to achieve change in the school culture because school culture is a reflection of national culture. In-service teacher education is not an option but a requirement for schools to accomplish their reform goals. As stated before, reform goals are not accomplished solely through teachers' inquiry, but collaborative effort should be expected.

The analysis suggests that most of the teachers were encouraged to participate in professional development activities. Following the seminar, the

majority of the teachers performed leadership and change agency roles within their schools while several did so in their districts. The in-service teacher training seminar broadened teachers' horizons in pedagogic areas, encouraged team work and led to school improvement as long as collegial and administrative support was provided. The role taken on by the school administrators, in collaboration with teachers, students and parents, shapes the school culture. School is therefore a unique entity where an enormous amount of collaboration is required.

It is worth emphasizing that offering such one-off seminars may not be very productive as it might only lead to short term empowerment. Instead of one-off seminars, or in addition to them, regular school or district based developmental activities should be organized. University and school collaboration should be established and joint professional development seminars, workshops or conferences held. Teacher motivation should be kept high by enhancing further development activities. More importantly schools should establish a learning culture where all teachers and administrators develop their professional knowledge and skills. Awareness of school administrators should be raised on the issue particularly in recent times as the current educational reform initiative is taking place in Turkey.

Further research may provide valuable data on the impact of in-service teacher training seminars / programs on the teacher role as an agent of change, school improvement and teacher development. This would help us to explore how generalisable some or all of the findings of this study are across a variety of different contexts.

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Evaluation as a Source of Reflection for a Teacher Educator in the Process of Creating Methodological Projects

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Abstract

The key aspect of this paper, presenting a new idea to other teachers, is checking the effectiveness of theoretical proposals in practice. The aim of the project was to gain information from practitioners about how effective frontloading is as a method of developing students reading comprehension skills. The feedback, referring to various aspects, is of great significance for teacher educators, as it enables them to develop effective and tested tools to be used in teacher education.

Key words: evaluation, feedback, frontloading, teacher's education

Introduction

Evaluating the practical effectiveness of theoretical teaching concepts or strategies is essential for teachers and teacher educators. Therefore, before a theory related to teaching solutions can be considered effective and disseminated it must first be verified by practicing teachers as an effective and useful tool in teaching practice. This also pertains to the implementation of solutions developed in different educational systems, since it is often the case that the ideas may have to be adapted to fit the cultural context. Each of the teachers was equipped with aids making the practical use of *frontloading* at schools possible. The term frontloading refers to assisting students to read key texts with a defined purpose or focus by providing support before, during and after their reading activity. The teachers' task was to conduct a lesson,

note their impressions and evaluate the recommended solutions. The findings support the use of frontloading and have significance for teachers and teacher educators in design of future projects.

Method of evaluation

In the first stage of evaluation of an innovative teaching strategy a verification procedure should be employed. This would initially determine the potential of a given theory or strategy and its application by affirming the effectiveness of its assumptions and the proposed strategies within real educational contexts. After the lessons, based on the new ideas, have been put to the test in an authentic school environment, one should obtain feedback with regard to their quality and usefulness. The measure of didactic potential of the new method should first be expressed as a function of four different factors which include:

a) increasing the effectiveness of the new methods (expanding competencies with regard to reading comprehension proves that the method may be useful and may become part of the teaching resources for a given subject);

b) the appeal of the lessons as seen by the participating students (student satisfaction with regard to participation in a lesson taught using the new method is a strong argument supporting its use in school);

c) teacher satisfaction with the lesson (satisfaction yields greater involvement and leads to further exploration of the new method).

d) organizational ease (for example, methods which are organizationally easier to implement during a lesson *and* fulfill the conditions *a, b* and *c* are of greater practical value).

Following the process of positive verification – identifying the strong points of a given method – the next stage may be falsification, which is identifying the weak points which may be improved. Both evaluation approaches may be used simultaneously. All the abovementioned activities are part of the teaching evaluation process, namely reflection on the undertaken activities, which in result should provide the teacher trainer with insight about the extent to which these solutions should be promoted.

The aim and subject of the evaluation

In this project the goal was to obtain feedback from teaching practitioners regarding how *frontloading* (Buehl, 2004) as a method for improving stu-

dent competencies with regard to reading comprehension. The multifaceted feedback is of particular value for the teacher educator as it allows for the affirmation of the original forms or the suggested ways of reaching the desired educational goals. It also facilitates the introduction of modifications and encourages one to promote the proven tools among students and teachers.

Problem description

PISA research studies conducted in 2000 indicated an important problem in a Polish school setting with regard to developing reading comprehension skills. By these skills we mean processing information, reasoning, interpretation and reflection on the text to achieve a goal set by the reader himself. The tests revealed a rather negative state of student competencies in this area. It should be mentioned that students obtained an average result of 479 points with the European average being 500 points. In subsequent years teachers focused on practicing the specified types of exam tasks teaching their students how to solve them. As a result, in the following PISA research studies, the students obtained significantly higher results (2003 – 497/494; 2006 – 508 / 492; 2009 – 500 / 494).
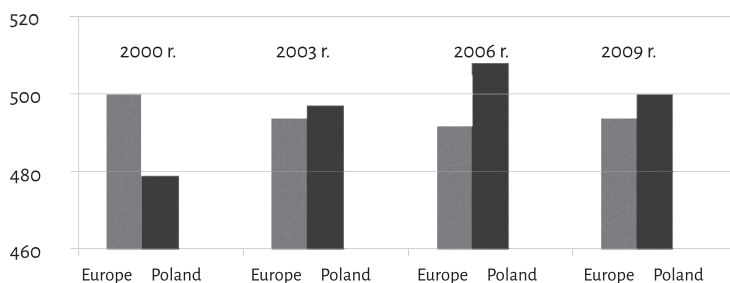
The results of European and Polish students in the years 2000, 2003, 2006 and 2009.

This result should be supplemented by the following information: Range I of reading competencies spans from 335 to 481 points (simple scanning of the text) whereas range V includes scores higher than 625 (stating a hypothesis, solving less typical tasks, connecting information, selecting arguments). Still, the level of comprehension is not satisfactory.

One of the practical issues pertaining to the more complex tasks may stem from the fact that students while reading the texts without a clear focus do not engage in the text (Duke, Pearson 2000). They try to grasp the whole text and retain in memory both important and unimportant information. This reading approach stifles motivation and does not pique the readers' curiosity. The readers are not prepared to select information or reconstruct meaning. The individual level of reading comprehension is then a derivative of competencies with regard to reading techniques, general knowledge related to the new material and the range of active and passive vocabulary. The aim should be to control and influence the process, and develop reading comprehension skills which should be devoid of the intuitive factor (Moore, Readence, Rickelman, 2003). *Frontloading* - or focused reading – is useful in this aspect. *Frontloading* is a method used to prepare the reader for conscious engagement with the text. Planning the process of text exploration (focused pre-reading tasks) and the possible clarification of certain while-reading tasks and post-reading interpretive/analytical tasks that relate back to the pre-reading focused tasks allow students to achieve the desired competencies that facilitate a more successful search for meaning.

Stages of the evaluation

Exploring the *frontloading* methods and the desire to implement them in Polish school settings were the starting point for this project from my perspective as a teacher educator. As an author of textbooks - which include the elements of this method – and as a university instructor, I was convinced that focused reading may significantly enhance the practice of teachers. Theoretically, the techniques developed based on the assumptions of focused reading seemed appealing. However, the most important issue was the evaluation by independent practitioners in a real school setting. The process of evaluation was divided into four stages.

Stage I. In order to prepare teachers for evaluating the selected methods, separate sessions were conducted for post-graduate Polish students. These sessions focused on *frontloading*. In the first stage the teachers were divided into two groups. The first group performed a reading task without preparation and then answered questions testing the level of deciphering the meaning; the other group engaged in focused reading. The level of comprehension proved to be more satisfactory in the focused reading group, in which the teachers

scored 46 out of 50 points (whereas in the first group they scored 38 points). Without a doubt, this encouraged the participants to examine *frontloading* in greater detail as the method features new, quite interesting and engaging ways of working with students that stimulate activity during the lesson.

Stage II. During the workshops the teachers were familiarized with the ideas and selected techniques of *frontloading* including *Anticipations Guides*, *K–W–L plus* (Moore, Readence, Rickelman, 2000; Buehl, 2004). As a result, every participant was asked to develop a set of activities for any given text according to the set algorithm. During presentations within the individual groups the teachers presented the results of their activities. The reconstruction of four practical units during Polish lessons in schools was recommended.

Stage III. Every teacher was provided with resources about the practical application of *frontloading* in a school setting. Their task was to conduct a lesson with their students, note down their thoughts and evaluate the suggested ideas. The aim was to hold four comparative lessons based on the same reading a) using the previously employed methods b) using *frontloading*. Next, they were supposed to check comprehension of given areas, determine the level of personal satisfaction, assess student involvement and the level of difficulty concerning the use of the method in relation to other methods used previously.

Stage IV. Ten teachers conducted observations in their lessons in a familiar context over the period of one month. The lessons organized using familiar methods were juxtaposed (in the same classroom) with lessons based on the *frontloading* techniques (in a different group at the same level). After the lessons the teachers sent their comments via email. Below is a comparison of the observation results: the diagrams show the assessment of four aspects which were considered in the evaluation.

1. The students participating in the focused reading classes scored 8 points higher.
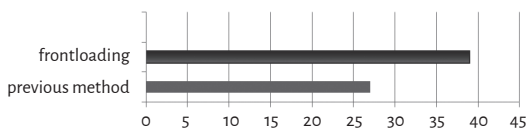
Average test result – maximum 45 points.

2. The teachers were more satisfied with the lesson when using *frontloading* techniques (3 points more) than when they used other tools.
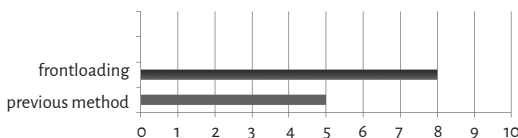

Average assessment of teacher satisfaction on a scale of 1–10.

3. According to the teacher, student involvement during the focused reading lessons increased by 4 points.
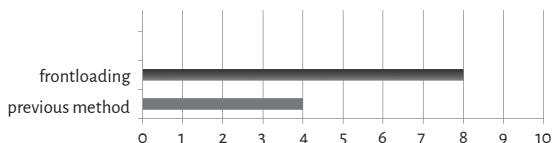
Average assessment of student involvement on a scale of 1–10.

4. The focused reading lessons required more preparation from the teachers. They agreed that using this method is more challenging than using the previously implemented methods.
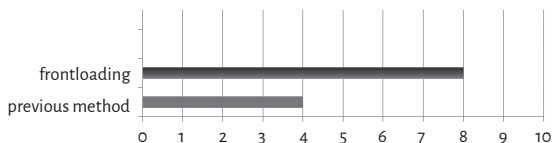
Average assessment of the method's difficulty on a scale of 1–10.

Discussion

Would a discussion section be useful to international readers, it might reflect on the project in relation to relevant literature including concise paragraphs perhaps on the following:

— The teacher education process began with a quasi-experimental practical task that revealed differences in comprehension of a text…to what extent was this a powerful way to establish engagement of the teachers? (including citation of relevant published work)

— There are different sources of professional guidance and research evidence on frontloading…to what extent did the analysis reveal questions or even evaluative evidence about the techniques of frontloading? (Engaging with the frontloading literature and research evidence.)

— The project relied heavily on teacher evaluation…to what extent did the teachers in turn rely on evidence of student achievement…what were the limitations of the research, beyond merely the limited size of the teacher sample? (possibly referring to literature on teacher research)

— The project demonstrated co-operative research evaluation of a new teaching strategy between a university based teacher educator and school-based teachers…what are the characteristics of that collaboration that helped or hindered an effective piece of research and development work leading to increased understanding and change in classroom practice? To what extent did teachers learn about evaluative research as well as about frontloading? (referring to literature on collaborative research with teachers)

Conclusion

The comparison has revealed that the focused reading lessons using *frontloading* techniques were better assessed in three key aspects, whilst noting that only four lessons were conducted using the specified algorithm. Although this is only the first part of the evaluation process, the results may fill one with optimism as to the quality of this approach to reading. Higher results, greater teacher satisfaction with the lessons, greater student involvement all send a positive message to the teacher educator – a person implementing theoretical and practical foundations of the method and creating activities that encourage teachers to use it. In the long run one may expect that the

positive evaluation of the differences will be maintained and assume that as the individual techniques are mastered the lessons will require much less preparation.

The evaluation has given the teacher educator the grounds for further development of *frontloading*, its enhancement and implementation of additional techniques in Polish school settings. More teacher groups may also be encouraged to use and evaluate the method. Equally satisfying was the evaluation procedure itself, applying the tools for assessing the usefulness of the new method of working with students. The fact that it was conducted in such a limited setting entitles the educator to repeat the assessment of the methods with a larger group of respondents. One may also be inclined to use the falsification method – the procedure used for identifying strengths and weaknesses – which in result leads to the elimination of weaker links and enhancing those which most directly determine effectiveness.

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Teacher Education: A Diluted Environmental Education Experience in Australia

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Abstract

This paper presents the findings of a small-scale research project about student teachers' perceptions and experiences of environmental education. The context of this study is a pre-service teacher education faculty in rural New South Wales Australia. A combined methods approach was applied, with a survey designed from rich data elicited through focus group interviews. The focus of this paper is on the findings of the survey, revealing that prospective teachers' preparedness in environmental education is diluted by their teacher education experience and that such experiences are not providing a stimulus for novice teachers to practice environmental education.

Key words: Environmental education; teacher education; pre-service teachers; environmental knowledge; primary/elementary teacher education; mixed methods.

Teacher Education: A Priority for Environmental Education

In Australia… the teacher education goals set out in international agreements [and] global initiatives on reorienting teacher education towards sustainability are yet to be effectively recognised in national education policy. This, reflected in the dearth of teacher education programs in EE, has resulted in a lack of competencies amongst teachers to effectively teach EE in schools (Tilbury, Coleman & Garlick, 2005, p. 49).

Fien and Tilbury (1996, p. 34) maintain that the inclusion of environmental education in teacher education acts "as a stimulus to its introduction into the school curriculum", and specifically, that the "development of an effective teacher training course in environmental education would result in a top-down curriculum innovation approach". Whilst the inclusion of environmental education at the teacher education level is seen as a means of exposing the wider population to environmental education (Fien & Tilbury, 1996), a number of researchers argue that it is the lack of pre-service and in-service teacher training in environmental education1 that poses one major barrier preventing and/or limiting the effective implementation of environmental education in primary schools (see Ballantyne, 1995; Cutter-Mackenzie, 2003; Jenkins, 1999–2000; Mastrili, 2005; Mckeown-Ice, 2000; Powers, 2004; Spork, 1992; Tilbury, 1992, 1993, 1994).

Oulton (1996, p. 1) claims that "only limited progress has been made at the school and teacher education levels" to incorporate environmental education into the formal education system. This trend was also shown in a study undertaken by the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) in five OECD countries, including Australia, which identified teacher training as the weakest aspect of environmental education programs in all five countries (OECD, 1995). Additionally, the OECD (1995; cited in McKeown-Ice, 2000, p. 4) study found that:

> …few teachers, or anyone else for that matter, think that teachers are well prepared for teaching environmental issues… the traditional disciplinary structure and pedagogical practice of higher education serve as impediments to environmental education, and higher education institutions are located in a critical place to both produce and legitimise knowledge.

In Australia, there is limited research about the practices or provision of environmental education in teacher education. Phipps (1991), Cutter (1998), (Jenkins, 1999–2000) and Cutter-Mackenzie and Tilbury (2002) have all undertaken small-scale evaluative studies of environmental education in teacher education. While the course structure of pre-service teacher education is certainly important, student teachers' personal disposition, perceived knowledge, beliefs and attitudes of their tutors towards environmental education has a significant influence on student teachers' enthusiasm to teach environmental education. Cutter (1998) reported that many pre-service teachers categorise environmental knowledge as unimportant. In addition,

Cutter-Mackenzie and Tilbury (2002 p. 30) found that "prospective teachers do not have the pedagogical content knowledge to effectively teach environmental education in primary schools". Furthermore, Cutter-Mackenzie and Tilbury (2002, p. 17) claimed that "university based teacher education reinforces attitudes by its emphasis on… the downplaying of knowledge". They concluded that prospective teachers' lack of environmental education pedagogical content knowledge has significant implications for environmental education (Cutter-Mackenzie & Tilbury, 2002).

Although research shows that environmental education practice in teacher education is scant, very little empirical research has been undertaken in Australia. More specifically, research is now required which explains existing patterns of environmental education provision and identifies reasons as to why teacher education programs are still failing to adequately prepare students in the area of environmental education (Tilbury, 1993). Whilst this was, in part, the impetus for this research, the overall focus of the study was on student teachers' perceptions and experiences of environmental education in their teacher education programs. We will now discuss the conceptual framework of the study.

Theoretical Underpinnings

The study has theoretical underpinnings in teacher practices, knowledge and beliefs. Turner-Bisset (2001, p. 4) characterises teaching as:

> a knowledge-based profession… [It] carries with it the notion that teachers work towards a state of expertise, of mastery over all the kinds of knowledge, skills and processes needed for expert teaching.

Lortie (1975, 2002) and Cuban (1984) contend that teachers will often reproduce the strategies they have had as primary, secondary and teacher education students. Lortie (1975, p. 65) discusses the effect and the influences of the time spent as a student on prospective teachers' images of teaching as the 'apprenticeship of observation'. Lortie (1975, p. 62) suggests that through the apprenticeship of observation, student learning about teaching can be "intuitive and imitative rather than explicit and analytical; it is based on individual personalities rather than pedagogical principles" (see also Hatton, 1988; Grossman 1990). Similarly, Thomas and Pederson (2003, p. 322)

maintain that "teachers' professional frames are both individually and socially derived - shaped by experiences as well as by expectations and values".

According to Grossman (1990, p. 10), through the 'apprenticeship of observation' students have an awareness of teachers' actions rather than their goals, resulting in memories that are "unlikely to provoke prospective teachers to connect the means of instruction with potential ends". Another aspect of the apprenticeship of observation refers to the way many pre-service teachers "rely on their memories of themselves as students to help shape their own expectations of students" leading to unrealistically low or high expectations of students (Grossman 1990, p. 11).

Korthagen (2001) claims that many pre-service teachers often suffer from 'transition shock' as they become novice teachers, leading them to conform and dismiss the reform based benefits and methods taught during their initial teacher education. To this extent, Grossman (1990, p. 16) suggests that if teacher education has a strong impact on pre-service teachers' then "what teachers learn from subsequent experiences in classrooms may be shaped by prior coursework". Alternatively, if teacher education has had a weak impact, subsequent teaching is "likely to be overwhelmed by classroom experience" (Grossman 1990, p. 16). Thus, Morrell, Flick and Wainwright (2004, p. 199) argue that teacher education providers who aspire to drive change and guide pre-service teachers to move in educational reform directions at the K-12 level, need to improve teaching practices modelled at the teacher education level:

> …if prospective teachers have firsthand experiences in learning… through strategies that are reform oriented, they will develop a stronger appreciation for the value of the coursework and will use this model for more effective pedagogy when they begin their own teaching.

The implications of teacher education practices on prospective teachers' interest and preparedness for teaching environmental education can be far reaching. There is growing evidence that in-service environmental education professional learning and development has a significant influence on teachers' ability and inclination to teach environmental education (Spork, 1992; Cutter-Mackenzie, 2003; Cutter-Mackenzie & Walker, 2003). Researchers such as Phipps (1991), Tilbury (1993) and Cutter (1998) suggest that at the teacher education level the influence of university teaching staff is the most powerful to the provision of environmental education, in comparison to student, insti-

tutional and external influences. Whilst Norman (1983; see also Grossman, 1990) has shown that pre-service teachers' beliefs are often developed through observations and experiences of teacher education and school practical experiences, Cutter-Mackenzie (2003) argues that pre-service environmental education (in its current form) has little influence on teachers' knowledge, beliefs and practices. Without the inclusion of effective environmental education at the pre-service level there is not the opportunity for prospective teachers to develop theoretically based understandings of teaching philosophies, methods, beliefs and knowledge in this area. As such, the underpinning agenda of this research project was to examine student teachers' perceptions and experiences of environmental education in pre-service teacher education.

Research Methods

This study is based upon a two year honours program undertaken by Miles and co-supervised by Cutter-Mackenzie and Harrison. A combined methods approach was used to investigate the research question. Second and third year students at one campus of Charles Sturt university were the informants. The key areas of the course where students were exposed to environmental education were through the 'social studies' and 'science and technology' curriculum subjects. By the conclusion of the course, all students undertook two curriculum subjects in all key learning areas. At the time of this research the second year students had completed the first curriculum subject of both units, and the third year students had completed both social studies curriculum subjects and were part way through the second science and technology curriculum subject. In addition, an environmental education elective, Education for Ecological Sustainability, was available to be taken in the third or fourth year of the degree; however, it had not run for several years and had not been undertaken by any of the current cohort of third or fourth year primary education students. The first year students were not included in the sample as it was felt that they had not yet received sufficient pre-service teacher education. A fourth year sample was not recruited as the course structure meant that no further opportunities for environmental education occurred after the third year of the course as all curriculum subjects had been completed.

Initially, focus groups were used to ascertain the environmental education experiences of the participants using a semi-structured interview format. All

second and third year pre-service primary education students were invited to participate in focus group interviews. Three focus group interviews were facilitated with the seven student teachers, four second year participants and three third year participants. The areas of discussion covered in the focus groups included participants' understandings of the environment and environmental education, their experiences of environmental education through their teacher education and school experiences, and their confidence in teaching environmental education.

A questionnaire was designed from the information elicited from these focus groups, a review of similar environmental education questionnaires and appropriate literature. The content of the questionnaire focussed on three key areas: teacher education experiences involving environmental education; knowledge of environmental education and where this knowledge was obtained; and beliefs about environmental education.

The questionnaire consisted of nine closed ended questions including five point Likert scale, multiple choice and ranking style questions, with one open ended question asking participants to describe environmental education. There were also several demographic questions referring to age, gender, course being undertaken, and year level. Demographic questions were asked to establish participants' areas of teaching interest or chosen electives.

The survey was then administered using convenience sampling to collect information "from members of the population who were conveniently available to provide it" (Cavana, Delahaye & Sekaran, 2001, p. 261). As such a subgroup of second and third year students within the Bachelor of Education (Primary) and Bachelor of Teaching (Primary)/Bachelor of Social Science (Psychology) at Charles Sturt University were surveyed. The total possible population of the second and third year cohort was 176 students enrolled in the subjects where the survey was administered. A response rate of 149 (85%) was achieved.

The age of respondents ranged from 19 to 48, with a mean age of 22. The cohort demographics showed that females accounted for 71% in the pre-service Bachelor of Education (Primary), and for 88% of students in the pre-service Bachelor of Social Science (Psychology) / Bachelor of Teaching (Primary) (see Table 1). As such, the survey sample was representative of the wider cohort and of pre-service teacher education courses in general (Charles Sturt University, 2006).

Table 1. Year level, course and gender details of survey respondents

	Course N (%)		Gender N (%)	
	Primary Education	Psychology/ Education	Male	Female
Second year N = 66	66 (44.3%)	0	21 (14.1%)	45 (30.2%)
Third year N = 76	60 (40.3%)	16 (10.7%)	22 (14.8%)	54 (36.2%)
Out of phase (third/fourth year) N = 7	5 (3.4%)	2 (1.3%)	3 (2%)	4 (2.7%)
Total	**131 (88%)**	**18 (12%)**	**46 (30.9%)**	**103 (69.1%)**

Following administration of the survey, the data were coded and entered into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS, version 11.5). Rated scale items were entered as scales from 1 to 5 (ordinal measure). Scores for the questionnaire items that were written negatively were reversed when entered into SPSS (1=5, 2=4, 3=3, 4=2, 5=1), to be consistent with the other items. Items requiring a ticked or circled answer were entered as 0 (not ticked) or 1 (ticked), (nominal measure). Preliminary descriptive analysis was carried out to determine frequencies, distributions, and means and standard deviations at the item level.

The survey was intended to provide a measure of student teachers' experiences of environmental education during their initial teacher education. To do this, exploratory analysis of the rated-scale data was conducted at item level using Spearman's correlations and Cronbach's alpha reliability tests, in order to develop composite variables (interval measure) for further analysis. The data are now presented in accordance with the themes of the study.

Results and Discussion

Environmental Education Experiences[3]
Participants were asked to indicate the sources of their environmental knowledge, where they had received exposure to environmental education through their course and which subject areas had covered environmental education content. Overall, the media and previous schooling (primary/secondary) was attributed by many participants as their main source of environmental knowledge (68.7% and 56.8% respectively). As shown in Figure 1, teacher education was reported as a source of environmental knowledge by less than one third of participants (31.8%).
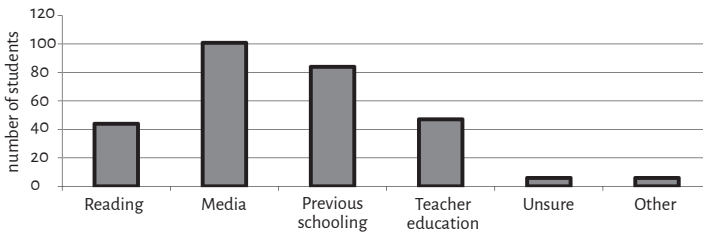

Figure 1. Sources of Environmental Knowledge

Pre-service teachers begin their teacher education with already established knowledge and beliefs based on their previous experiences. As outlined previously, teacher education needs to challenge and deconstruct prospective teachers' beliefs and develop their knowledge of the subject matter. However, these results show that for many of the prospective teachers sampled, teacher education is not a major source of environmental knowledge and, as such, is less able to challenge and deconstruct these future teachers' beliefs and knowledge of the environment.

To explore this further, participants were asked which aspects of their course and which curriculum subjects they felt had included environmental education content (see Figure 2 and Figure 3).
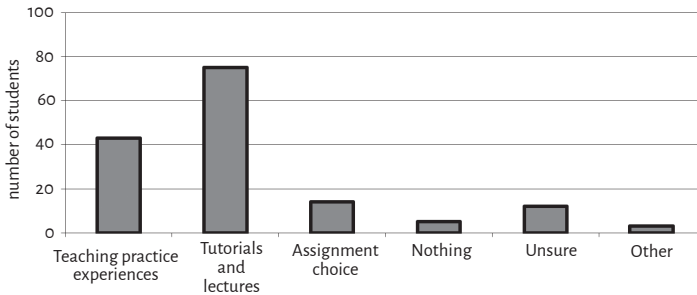
Figure 2. Most Environmental Education Exposure

Subject tutorials and lectures were reported as the area of most exposure to environmental education (50.3%). Teaching practice experiences in schools were reported by less than one third of participants (28.9%), despite by this stage the second year students having already undertaken 10 weeks of school based experiences and the third year students having undertaken 16 weeks. Rather fewer respondents reported assignment choice as contributing to their exposure of environmental education (9.4%). These results may imply that whilst lectures and tutorials may cover environmental education content, this is not often followed up by assessment or through subsequent teaching practice experiences. It is important to note that as well as university experiences of environmental education, schools and teachers have the opportunity to provide pre-service students with environmental education experiences through their teaching practice experiences.

To extend on this, participants were asked to report which curriculum areas and electives they were receiving the most environmental education exposure to through their teacher education (see Figure 3). Human Society and Its Environment (social studies) and Science and Technology were reported by almost all participants (92% and 89% respectively). This was consistent with the focus group results where participants named these two subjects as covering environmental education content. In addition this supported the work of Cutter-Mackenzie (2003), Robottom, Malone and Walker (2000) and Linke (1980) which found that environmental education was predominantly situated in the social studies and science curriculum areas. The remaining subject areas nominated were: art and personal development/health (18%);

physical education and English (11%); and drama, music and maths (6%). Figure 3 shows the distribution of student selections for this question.
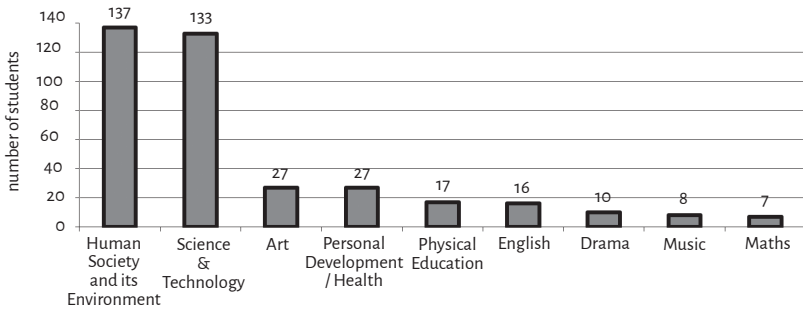

Figure 3. Teacher education curriculum areas with environmental education content

In order to describe each participant's overall exposure to environmental education in their teacher education course, a derived variable, *total environmental education content*, was computed by adding together the number of curriculum areas nominated by each student. The maximum number of subject areas that could be nominated was nine. The mean score for *total environmental education content* was 2.6 (*SD*=1.6), the minimum score was 0, and the maximum 9. Frequency analysis showed that 56.4% of survey participants reported that they had received environmental education content in two subject areas, 14.8% reported three subject areas and 16.1% reported they had received environmental education content in four or more subject areas. Only 12.7% responded that they had received environmental education content in one subject area or less.

Although half of the students sampled reported subject tutorials and lectures as exposing them to environmental education, it is apparent from the above results that this exposure is considered by the majority of students to be contained to primarily two curriculum areas. In addition, these results show that many students do not consider they are being exposed to environmental education through the schools in which they are undertaking their teaching practice experiences.

Preparedness to Teach Environmental Education

Previous studies have indicated that teachers are more likely to teach those subjects they are knowledgeable about and have an interest in (Grossman, Wilson & Shulman, 1989). The same study also found that teachers who had received more teacher education preparation in a discipline area were more likely to teach in that area, and that the level of syntactic knowledge of teachers had strong relationship to their curriculum and pedagogical decisions.

Three questions in the survey asked students to rank their level of interest, knowledge and preparedness in teaching environmental education on a 1(low) to 5 (high) scale. Table 2 shows the distribution of ratings across the scale and descriptive statistics for each of these questions.

Table 2. Student interest, knowledge and preparedness to teach environmental education

Survey question item		1 Low	2	3 Average	4	5 High	M	SD
2. Interest	n	2	19	73	38	17	3.3	0.89
	%	1.3	12.8	49.0	25.5	11.4		
8. Knowledge	n	17	51	69	11	0	2.5	0.80
	%	11.4	34.2	46.3	7.4	0		
4. Preparedness	n	25	59	62	2	1	2.3	0.78

These results showed that most students were reasonably interested in teaching environmental education. The Mean score was 3.3 on the 5-point scale, with 85% rating themselves at 3 (average) or above. For knowledge and preparedness, however, a different pattern emerged. Means were 2.5 and 2.3, respectively, with 93% and 98% rating themselves at scores of 3 (average) or below. This is consistent with the stage one interview findings where participants indicated that they were keen to draw on environmental education in their future teaching, but felt that they did not have enough knowledge. Whilst it could be inferred that pre-service teachers do not feel prepared or confident to teach in any area, several studies have shown that effective pre-service teacher education and subsequent teaching practice experiences, in areas including mathematics, health education and violence education, has a significant effect

on pre-service teachers confidence and preparedness to teach in these fields (Kandakai & King, 2002; Lowery, 2002; Myers-Clack & Christopher, 2001).

The relationships between participants' interest, knowledge and preparedness were examined using Spearman's rank order correlation analysis. Scores on the three items were moderately correlated with correlation coefficients ranging from $r(149)=.31$ to $r(148)=.46$, $ps<.001$. Table 3 shows the correlation matrix for these three items.

Table 3. Spearman's correlation values for student-rated interest, knowledge and preparedness

	Interest in teaching environmental education	Preparedness to teach environmental education
Interest in teaching environmental education N=149	-	
Preparedness to teach environmental education N=149	0.31 **	-
Overall knowledge of environmental education N=148	0.37 **	0.46 **

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The strongest relationship, $r(148)=.46$, $p<.001$, was between ratings of students' preparedness to teach environmental education and their self-rated overall knowledge of environmental education, showing that those students who reported higher levels of knowledge also reported higher levels of preparedness. Note, however, that most participants had low ratings on both of these items, showing that there is a relationship between lack of perceived knowledge and feeling unprepared (Table 1). Weaker relationships were seen between interest and preparedness in teaching environmental education, $r(149)=.31$, $p<.001$, and interest and knowledge in teaching environmental education, $r(148)=.37$, $p<.001$. This may be due to a mismatch between participants' higher ratings for interest, but lower ratings for knowledge and preparedness.

Conclusion

This study has begun to examine the patterns of environmental education provision in teacher education and has generated findings on the links between students' knowledge and preparedness in teaching environmental education. Over a decade ago, Tilbury (1993) claimed that teacher education was failing to adequately provide environmental education training for prospective teachers and the results from this study support this conclusion. Despite national and international policy rhetoric about the importance of pre-service teacher preparation in environmental education, the present study has shown that there are still inadequate levels of environmental education provision at the teacher education level and that pre-service teachers' preparedness for teaching environmental education is overwhelmingly low. If this study is typical of Australian teacher education in preparing novice teachers in environmental education, little has changed in the adequate provision of environmental education in pre-service teacher education over the last fifteen years. In short, it appears that, at least for the pre-service teachers involved in this study, current teacher education providers are not taking advantage of the interest many prospective teachers have for environmental education. In addressing this, teacher education curriculum must consider new ways and approaches to better prepare future teachers in the area of environmental education.

Notes

[1] The same problems have been reported in early childhood and secondary education. It is important to note that the focus of this study was primary level teacher education.

[2] Throughout this paper, use of the term 'tutor' refers to all university teaching staff.

[3] Environmental education experiences also refers to the participants' knowledge experiences.

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Effective Teachers: Developing Individual Strategies as a Complement to Teacher Education

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Abstract

The chapter examines how the individual strategies of effectiveness are built in practice of teaching, and how teachers employ their university-based knowledge into their practice in the lessons. The aim is to gain deep understanding of teachers' individual strategies of effective teaching as a complement to teacher education. The author describes some chosen teacher competency standards and uses a study of primary teachers of English in Poland to understand the relation between teacher education and its influence on their practice. She tries to find the way university teaching prepares teachers to develop their own practice and modify it in their own workplace. The author claims teacher education should benefit more from the observation of teaching practice and support teacher competence development for better learning outcomes.

Key words: primary education, in-job teacher professional development, reflective practitioner.

Introduction

Modern society, the knowledge society, demands new teachers and new systems of education. The teaching profession is charged with the task of building the human skills and capacities that are considered to be critical in our changing world. Therefore, the question of teachers' competences and skills must be considered within wide contexts and this suggests new possibilities for modernising teacher education. One of the important issues that

have received increased attention recently is overall school effectiveness and teachers' impact on student achievements (Mujis, 2006). The range of research focuses on achievements in specific curriculum areas such as English (IBE, 2012), reading or mathematics (Ejsmont, 2009); or attempts to show that significant academic advantage for their pupils can be derived solely from the teacher's performance and quality in the classroom (Rockoff, 2003) as well as that the level of pupils' knowledge is connected with the reception and interpretation of the syllabus by their teacher, appropriate selection of forms and methods for the teaching aims outlined in the curriculum (IBE, 2012).

In order to evaluate and assess teaching effectiveness, the researchers usually employ commonly accepted methods and tools, among which learners exam results dominate (Seldin, 1999), sometimes combined with other data sources including teachers' observable behaviours (Arreola, 2000), student interviews and teaching scholarship (Berk, 2006) or the relation between input and output (Johnes, 2006). There are also various national level standards of teacher effectiveness used by evaluators, school inspectors and teacher educators and developers (Gocłowska, 2013; North, 2010; EAQUALS, 2011). Critical consideration of these national published professional standards or competences shows how quickly the demands made on teachers are increasing and changing in attempts to raise standards of teaching. All of the national frameworks for teaching standards promote evidence-based education, with formal requirements for high-level skills.

Despite the avid interest in the relation between teaching and students' achievement in international literature, there are still gaps in understanding how teachers develop their strategies for effective teaching and how they construct their knowledge-based practice. Therefore, using the context of teaching foreign languages to young learners, the purpose of this chapter is to explore the relationship between teachers' overall competences, their understanding of effective teaching of English as a foreign language and its application in the case of young learners.

Competence and / or Effectiveness

"*The range and complexity of competences required for teaching in the 21*st *century is so great that any one individual is unlikely to have them all*" *(*Supporting…:1).

It is useful to consider the relationships between university programmes or professional frameworks for teacher competences and the development of effective teaching. In recent years, there has been considerable debate around the conceptual meaning and parameters of "competence", and various approaches to defining it (Report…, 2011) . The definitions for 'competence' often mention various components (Prucha, 2006; Zbróg, Kaleta-Witusiak, Walasek-Jarosz, 2013) present several complex classifications (Strykowski & others, 2003), describe how they develop in teacher education (Kwiatkowska, 2008) or professional cooperation (Śliwerski, 2006). Crick (2008) proposes the following definition of competence:

> *"A complex combination of knowledge, skills, understanding, values, attitudes and desire which lead to effective, embodied human action in the world, in a particular domain. (…) Competence implies a sense of agency, action and value" (Crick, 2008:2).*

This definition appears to be broad but many researchers and theorists claim that understanding competences as skills and abilities is too narrow and too technical. They emphasise more the reflective aspects: rational and critical evaluation of professional behaviour; feeling of authorship, transgression and development (Gołębniak,1998). A similar argument is seen in the definition of competence by Biesta, who emphasises the need for educational judgement (2009a; 2011). This perspective holds that competence (understood as being able to do things) is insufficient, and teachers need to exert professional judgement to decide what they should do. The scientific evidence and university-based knowledge about 'effectiveness' might be useful to teachers, but they need to make their own, often quick, decisions on what works in a particular situation, to respond to their own class, and develop their personal approach to working with learners (Bauml, 2009). "*The ability to make situated judgements about what is educationally desirable*" is called good teaching (Biesta, 2009b).

The nature of effective teaching has been a constant concern of academics, teacher educators and researchers, who have studied the problem from various perspectives. They have investigated the relation between learners' educational results and instruction (Good & Brophy, 1986), and learners' active participation in the instruction process (Marzano, 2000; Walberg, 2003).

Another study shows that the teacher's 'good' behaviour has a considerable significance, and raises pupils test results by 10–15% (Muijs & Reynolds,

2002). This 'one-group pre-post test' study provides statistical analysis of the achievement effects of a set of teacher variables such as the teacher's subject knowledge and use of teaching methods. Other factors influencing a pupil's learning include their personality and learning styles, but, research by Mujis, Campbell and Kyriakides suggests that the are of less importance than the teacher's behaviour (2005).

There have been many attempts to identify the qualities of effective teachers and their knowledge and skills, but "*there is little agreement regarding which specific behaviors constitute effective teaching*" (Bell, 2005: 259). Numerous researchers agree, however, on some dimensions that exemplify effective teaching, such as being enthusiastic (Cheung, 2006), having a good rapport with learners (Lowman, 1996) or using games in the classroom (Król, 2007). Simultaneously, in search of a definition of teacher effectiveness, Hunt described it as:

> "*The collection of characteristics, competencies, and behaviors of teachers at all educational levels that enable students to reach desired outcomes, which may include the attainment of specific learning objectives as well as broader goals such as being able to solve problems, think critically, work collaboratively, and become effective citizens*".

One useful example framework for teacher competencies was developed through an OECD report that defines teacher quality in five dimensions:
1. **Knowledge of substantive areas and content**; in the case of the research considered within this chapter this includes knowledge of English language, pedagogical content knowledge, pedagogy for teaching foreign languages and pedagogy for teaching young learners;
2. **Pedagogic skill**; including the acquisition and ability to use a repertoire of teaching strategies;
3. **Reflection and ability to be self-critical**; this is arguably a key hallmark of teacher professionalism;
4. **Empathy and commitment**; acknowledging the dignity of learners, managing the emotional aspects of classroom practice and responding sensitively to diversity;
5. **Managerial competence;** this may be referred to as classroom management skills (OECD, 1994).

Nordenbo and others (2008) also tried to define which dimensions of teachers' competences can contribute to pupil achievement. On the basis of a narrative

synthesis of 10 years of empirical pedagogical research, they concluded that three competences contribute to learning in children and young people. They are

1. Relational competence demonstrated by pupil-supportive leadership, giving the pupil a chance to practise self-management, and taking into consideration various pupil's capabilities. The features mentioned are significant in the process of teaching children, as the individual differences are stronger then in later ages and highly effect learning and personal development in childhood.

2. Rule management competence – a general establishment of rules for the work of the class, cohesion with previously learnt material and a constant progression, etc.

3. Didactic competence-ability to employ a variety of forms of material and approaches, to establish clear teaching aims to plan and organise learning activities, etc.

Certain aspects of didactic competence are subject-specific in character. In relation to language teaching one of the categories of teachers competency, called by Leban "*Subject-connected knowledge and skills*" (2003:78), comprises the knowledge of the target language and university-based knowledge. This is knowledge that is both general and specialist, knowledge of the topics dealt with, and of the lexical and language usage connected with them, knowledge of the four main language skills (listening, reading, speaking writing) and knowledge of special skills, such as communication skills, behavioural skills, negotiation and presentation skills.

According to Leban, there are several other categories of teachers' competency which may be summarised as follows:

- General and special world knowledge and skills (e.g. culture, literature, music and film production),
- Policy-connected knowledge and skills (in Poland teachers are obliged to prepare their learners to participate in the European Union and, at the same time, to shape their national identity and strengthen patriotism as well as know international standards and certificates, threshold levels and tools such as the Common European Framework of References and the European Language Portfolio)
- Mission-connected knowledge and skills (for inspiring pupils, motivating them for self-development)
- Tool-connected knowledge(using modern technology in teaching) and IT skills

- Workplace and society connected knowledge and skills (e.g. managerial skills, academic management, time-management skills, etc.)
- Flexibility and inclination to life-long learning.

The category that is highly important for further discussion in this paper is referred to as "*Teaching-connected knowledge and skills*", because it relates to both theoretical and practical knowledge used by effective teachers. It touches several aspects of didactics, methodology, classroom preparation, material development and writing, course design, and assessment, which all come together to help produce the effectiveness of teaching.

Selvi (2010) attempts to identify the competencies of new teachers and describes the research regarding the professional competencies of English Language teachers. Analysing the perspectives of teachers and teacher educators, he indicates that teachers' professional competencies must be discussed from different points of view, and are complex combinations of those developed by teacher education and gained in school practice. They are

1. Field competencies (related to the content of teaching);
2. Research Competencies (competencies in designing and carrying out the research in teaching fields);
3. Curriculum development and implementation competencies;
4. Lifelong learning competencies;
5. Social-Cultural Competencies (knowledge about social-cultural background of students and teachers, as well as local, national and international values) ;
6. Emotional Competencies (values, morals, beliefs, attitudes, anxieties, motivation, empathy and so on);
7. Communication Competencies;
8. Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) Competencies;
9. Environmental Competencies (defined as competencies for ecological and environmental safety).

Research by Berry (1990), carried out with two groups of English teachers working in secondary schools in Poland, set out to determine which components of teachers' competency they find most significant for their practice. As a result the following ranking was developed:

- The most important feature of a good teacher of foreign languages is their proficiency in the target language;
- The second most important feature of a good teacher of foreign languages is their knowledge of pedagogy;

— The lowest ranked feature of a good teacher of foreign languages is their knowledge of culture and literature within the target language.

Certainly knowledge and skills of the target language appears to be a reasonable prerequisite. Language classroom teachers are often the only speakers with whom learners can interact and they will rely on the teacher's language use as a model for their developing language skills. Educational changes in Poland have recently increased the requirements for language teachers, including their level of proficiency in the target language (Zawadzka, 2004). The primary teachers of English are also expected to develop their language-based knowledge to include the use of nursery rhymes and chants, children's literature, physical activities and action-games (Szplit, 2011). However, high linguistic competence is not enough. Knowing the language does not mean that the teachers will be able to engage their students and help them to learn. Therefore, modern teaching concepts strongly emphasize the dual nature of teacher competence: to have both high linguistic competence knowledge and high levels of pedagogic skill providing in the ability to use effective methods and techniques in teaching.

While building the descriptive profile of the effective foreign language teacher, Werbińska discusses different types of knowledge, among which the first and most crucial is the teacher's knowledge of a foreign language (2006). However, she emphasises that it not only language proficiency, characterized by many people learning a foreign language, but also knowledge of HOW to use the language for teaching (including the ability to use the professional vocabulary) that refers to pedagogical content knowledge. Thus, the effective teacher's competency has different forms:

1. **Competence in arranging the language class**: which involves the ability to adapt the language level, and the methods and activities arranged to the needs and abilities of the student. This skill is absolutely crucial for teaching young learners, as makes it easier to learn a foreign language.
2. **Competence in using and teaching four language skills**: using reading, listening, writing and speaking in an integrated way,
3. **Ability to meet the needs of students**; related to both the choice of teaching content and sources, teaching aids and materials;
4. **Knowledge of cultural contexts**; which helps to remove barriers to communication,
5. **Knowledge of** pedagogy; which includes knowledge of learning theory and practical skills in using various methods of teaching as well as IT knowledge,

6. In addition, an effective teacher has knowledge of psychology and sociology and awareness of values and beliefs.

The literature considered above indicates that several components of knowledge are transformed by classroom practice and at the same time derived from it. The professional identity of teachers is shaped by their knowledge acquired during their academic education and developed by their experiences in classrooms and schools. The proposed frameworks for the competency of English Language Teachers emphasise the interplay between teachers' practical wisdom and public (published) knowledge (Boyd & Bloxham 2014). Hence, a good deal of emphasis is paid to design programmes for teachers that encourage such interplay, both in initial teacher education and as a part of professional in-job development. Several professional organisations or associations provide courses aiming at professional development for teachers of English and offer certification for qualified teachers. One of these is The Certificate in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (CELTA), an internationally recognised qualification awarded by the University of Cambridge. It is a common requirement for those who wish to become an English language teacher or for existing teachers of English who do not have much formal training. The course covers various issues, among which the principles of effective teaching have a great significance. That is why the course grade is determined primarily by the performance of the candidates in teaching practice in real EFL classes. The teachers who need to teach English to children and teenagers take the Young Learner (YL) Extension to CELTA (CELTYL). It covers six main topics, which might be understood as reflecting the components of teachers' competency:

1. Language awareness;
2. The learner, the teacher and the teaching/learning context;
3. Planning for effective teaching of young learners of English;
4. Classroom management and teaching skills for teaching English to young learners;
5. Resources and materials for teaching English to young learners;
6. Professional development for teachers of English.

The list of components provides a basis for criteria for assessing teachers' effectiveness. Building from the the Young Learner Extension to CELTA syllabus, we may consider that effective teachers are able to:

1. Understand the importance of planning for effective teaching by paying special attention to young learners' needs and interests,

2. Distinguish between different kinds of teaching strategy and different kinds of lesson formats, with specific reference to the way in which language can be taught through topics, tasks and activities,

3. Match strategies and lesson formats to the needs of particular learners.

The criteria may be used for teacher education programmes as well as for evaluation of teachers' work, for example during lesson observation. They also provide a framework to guide teachers' independent professional reflection and improvement of practice.

Reality of school practice

In the previous section I have claimed that the one of the most significant competencies for effective teaching is the teacher's ability to reflect on their own teaching, critically examine the methods used and look for alternative, more effective, ways of teaching. Teachers should be "*prepared to question the underlying assumptions…about what makes a good teacher*" (Boyd, 2014:269). One way of doing this is to systematically evaluate their own teaching and its impact. Evaluation is usually considered as systematic study and assessment of information with the goal of providing useful feedback for the teacher about his/her teaching. Its aim is to improve instruction and encourage learning. Evaluation of effectiveness is understood in this chapter as being the reflective link between what the academic knowledge suggests will be most effective and the reality of what teachers do.

There are different ways to organise the evaluation process in education, and usually in more formal situations it is systematic and objective. However, teachers' decisions are more often dependable on their subjective opinions and self-assessment. The aim of on-going informal evaluation is to provide information day by day, minute by minute, to enable its incorporation into spontaneous decisions. The teachers need to respond immediately to learners' reactions and modify their teaching strategies, and much of their practical wisdom is held as tacit knowledge, rather instinctive and difficult to describeto others (Boyd, 2014). The teachers usually do not have much time or any "objective" criteria, but have to follow their own understanding of effective teaching. That is why the approach chosen for my research is rather personalised and individualised. The purpose of the research is to provide insight into the reality of effective teaching, by means of describing what the teachers do to achieve the learning outcomes and what techniques

of teaching English to young learners are understood by them as worthwhile and effective.

In the context of Poland there is a potential risk in relation to my approach to evaluation, as it is not focused on measurable learners achievement. However, the teaching-learning process being described refers to children, and there are technical problems in relation to measuring children's language in an objective, standardised way. According to the Common European Framework of References, the language proficiency level of children aged 6–9 years, as in this case, is not classified and well described. The lowest level possible is A1 that is achieved in Polish schools at around the age of 12 years, at the point of finishing primary school. The national curriculum in Poland for young learners does not provide guidance for frequent measurement of childrens' achievement, as it mainly indicates what the learners should be able to do and talk about after the first class (age 6–7) and at the end of the third class of the primary school (age 8–9).

That is why the teachers of English to young learners in Poland need to identify their own criteria to evaluate children's everyday performance and progression and the worth or significance of a learning activity. The analysis of the questionnaire and interview data suggests two main categories that help to illustrate the aspects teachers take into consideration. Teachers in the study consider the following criteria in the individual evaluation of their own teaching:

1. **Behavioural**: learners' involvement in the tasks provided, in the form of their engagement and behaviour, for example by asking additional questions, asking to continue the task, or displaying strong emotions.
2. **Linguistic effectiveness**: the level of receptive language achieved and learners' performance in the form of productive language demonstrated at the particular lesson and after a break.

The criteria are similar to those developed within the wider literature, but what is particularly interesting is how the teachers understand them in real life situations, what they mean for practitioners. Hamer suggests similar criteria for effective teaching and claims that effective teaching causes:

(1) high involvement of learners and their motivation to learn and

(2) increase in learners' competences (1994).

An additional perspective is derived from Boyd (2014) who emphasises that teachers need to shift attention away from their teaching performance onto the learning experience of their learners, with a focus on the learning outcomes but also the wider purposes of education and development of the learner.

The approach to evaluation chosen for the research study reflects the complexity of classrooms and schools and aims to avoid teachers being sidestepped in the evaluation process and made only objects of the process. The research was conducted among 120 primary teachers who teach English in primary schools, to children aged 6–9. All data was collected in years 2011–2013, among teachers who graduated from English Language Departments (61 people, later in the chapter called English teachers) and from Pedagogy Departments, Early Education and English Teaching (59, later called primary teachers). The study involved teachers from 20 cities and towns in the Świętokrzyskie Region, Poland. All the respondents were aged 23–45, but the variable of age was not found to be important in the research, as there have been no significant differences identified in the teaching approaches among the age-based groups. The other variables that were seen, but turned out to be not so important were the education and the length of employment. The only variable having a slight influence on effective teaching strategies was the field of education (English or Primary teaching).

The research was completed through the use of several questionnaires dealing with a wide range of aspects of teaching. Each of the questionnaires included diverse questions concerning effectiveness of teaching and seeking the teacher respondent's personal understanding. The respondents were asked to present their opinions about what methods or techniques they apply to teaching, and which they find effective. In all of the issues the teachers were prompted to describe concisely what they do in order to achieve the intended learning outcomes. Some of the respondents (24), chosen at random, were also interviewed to exemplify and clarify their approach to effective teaching. For the interview sample the researcher chose 12 primary teachers (coded with a number and letter P) and 12 English teachers (a number and E letter).

The aim of the research was to find out the teachers' strategies of effective teaching, built on the foundation of their knowledge and professional experiences. The findings help to informthe design of professional development programme for EFL teachers.

The effectiveness strategies

The initial question is what methods and techniques the teachers find useful and effective. All (120) respondents were asked to choose some examples of practice toconsider, analyse and rank in order from the most effective to

the least effective. This first step was crucial, as the further research focuses on the effective strategies identified by teachers. The ranking task produced the following:

1. Using songs and chants (80%)
2. Using stories (77%)
3. Using games (72%)
4. Using visual support (59%)

In each case the teachers were asked to explain what they do, how often and why

Songs and chants

The first most effective method of teaching English to young learners is, identified by Polish teachers, is the use of songs and chants. The overwhelming majoority of the respondents (80%) report advantages of using songs and chants in their own teaching. They emphasise the following aspects of the effectiveness:

1. *They make the learners active and encourage to learn. (T5E),*
2. *They help in imagination development. (T6E)*
3. *During singing together a good atmosphere is created.(T9P),*
4. *Develop motor skills and physical condition" (T12P, talking about action songs),*
5. *They are effective if we practise pronunciation of new vocabulary. (T2E),*
6. *They introduce new vocabulary in a funny way. (T8E),*
7. *Are used for practising speaking.(T12P).*

The first four statements are based on behaviour and general development of the learners, but the last three focus on linguistic skills and practical aspects of teaching a language. The data from the questionnaires let the researcher enumerate the positive effects of using songs and chants. The responses provide s clues about what the teachers are seeking when selecting a method of teaching.

A significant rationale provided by teachers for using songs and chants in the classroom is their impact on motivating students to learn English (22%). The songs are chosen as an effective tool as they help to develop attention, concentration and memory of students (18%). The next reason given for using songs and chants is integration of the class while singing (18%). Some of the interviewed teachers also mentioned the situation in which they use the song where a group is not fully disciplined (46%) as it easily "*grasps their attention*" and "*stops their talking about other things*". The respondents also

stressed, moreover, that they choose a song as an effective way of relaxing children (16%).

There are no strong differences apparent between the Primary teachers and English teachers in this matter. A slight difference is in the approach used to develop communication skills. The Primary teachers see some advantages of using song (11% of primary teachers, and 3% of English teachers), as they "*use some fragments of the song in some lessons*". For example they start and finish each lesson with the same song or use some questions introduced in a song for the arrangement of the classroom. The difference between the two groups of teachers is caused the range of songs the teachers have learned during their studies (9 English teachers wish they knew more children's songs from work at the University). The English teachers say that they "*know the song from the lesson*", "*almost do not know any chant and tongue twisters good for kids*" and "*use only the song that is in the course-book*".

An additional slight difference between the two groups of teachers is that the English teachers (4% of the respondents) mention that songs are used in the development of tolerance and openness to others. And this response does not appear at all in the primary teachers' questionnaires.

STORIES

The second most effective method that was pointed out by the teachers for teaching young children is the use of stories. 77% of the respondents were absolutely sure about the effectiveness of it, and 21% chose the option "rather effective". Only two teachers (both English teachers, 2%) had no opinion about the effectiveness of using stories in language teaching with young children. During the interviews the teachers express their opinions about the effects the stories have, and they mention both behavioural aspects (see example statements 1 to 3 below) and linguistic outcomes (see example statements 4 and 5 below):

1. *The lesson is more attractive and the kids are interested in what is happening (T5P),*
2. *The stories give them relax and let me lower the stress(T4E),*
3. *The stories help the children to find out about their strengths and talents (T3P)*
4. *The children learn the vocabulary better (T4P),*
5. *They learn grammar easily (T4E).*

The main issue in reflection by the respondents focuses on what skills stories develop effectively. Assessing the effectiveness of using stories in English lessons, the teachers chose three main skills that they feel are particularly developed by using stories:

1. Stories are effective tools for developing **reading comprehension**. 89% of the respondents claim that stories are the best method if they want to develop understanding of written text and lexis, especially if the the story is supported by visuals.

2. Reading stories aloud is considered to be effective by 80% of the teacher respondents. The detailed descriptions of techniques going together with storytelling and further interviews with teachers indicate that reading aloud is considered effective only if used in training pronunciation (83%). The other uses of reading aloud are considered to be ineffective, as the teachers have to correct learners too often and children cannot focus on understanding the sentence or passage. The teachers feel that they "*waste too much time, stress the kids too much, and achieve nothing*" (Teacher 1P) and the learners "*will not get what the fragment is about. Neither the reader nor the rest of the group.*" (Teacher 1E).

3. In third place as an effective teaching method the teachers use stories to develop silent reading (36%). The intended learning outcomes are difficult to measure in this situation, but the teachers observe the learners' behaviour while reading and assume that receptive language is developed ("*they show some fragments of the story to each other*", "*smile and comment on the story plot*") and the children are involved in reading ("*it's the only situation when they* (the learners) *sit quietly looking at the book*", "*I cannot start the next activity and they still think of the fairy tale*").

Several respondents mentioned also *whispering* (9%) and *peer-story-reading* or *group-story-reading* (8%) as techniques employed within story-based lessons. The results suggest that the many teachers find them rather ineffective. They explain reasons such as "*short concentration span*" (T2P) of the learners and "*a need to monitor and prompt the children to read all the time and do not stop*" (T4P). Additionally only the primary teachers mentioned the techniques, which implies that English teachers may not know these ways of using stories.

The teachers were also asked how they assess the effectiveness of chosen activities and tasks in story-telling-based lessons. They ticked all they find effective (so the results do not make 100%), taking into consideration

behavioural and linguistic aspects, and two rankings of the most effective techniques were prepared. The findings show some differences between the group of primary teachers and English teachers. While evaluating the behavioural component of effectiveness both groups indicate the same, three, activities. The respondents emphasised the involvement of children in (1) miming (93%) primary teachers, and 49% ETs), (2) drawing illustrations to the stories (55% primary teachers, 86% ETs), and using art and craft (36% primary teachers, 42% ETs). The linguistic criterion let the researcher prepare the two separate rankings, showing the most effective techniques as the first. In each case only few the most effective techniques are enumerated.

Ranking for the primary teachers:
1. pre-teaching new vocabulary before storytelling (100%),
2. asking story-based questions (79%),
3. putting the story-based-pictures in the correct order while listening to the story or after it (71%),
4. stopping and asking what happens next (64%),
5. true-false exercises, with physical response of the learners or the short answers yes-no (57%).

The interviews show that all the primary teachers (100%) use visual support – such as pictures, book covers, flashcards, puppets, and posters for all story-based activities.

Ranking for the English teachers:
1. pre-teaching new vocabulary before storytelling (87%),
2. asking story-based questions (84%),
3. putting the story-based-pictures in the correct order while listening to the story or after it (71%).

The teachers who are the English teachers, not Primary education specialists, indicate also two more techniques: gap-filling and crosswords. In the interview the respondents claim that the story is more effective and brings better learning outcomes if in a written form and that telling a story is ineffective as "*children do not listen*", "*get lost quickly*" and "*do not remember the plot after the lesson*". Other opinions of the English teachers were questioning about the the use of true-false exercises (which eres highly effective in the opinion of the Primary teachers). The English teachers use it almost only with sentences and a passage. The reasons are that "the children do not know where to find the information

to answer the question" or "they do not know how to answer", so they probably lack the vocabulary or communication skills. The opinions suggest that the English teachers focus their attention more on linguistic aspects of the story then the primary teachers, who create a language acquisition activity not teaching a language. The interviews also show that a huge number of English teachers do not use any visual support with the stories (10 Teachers out of 12), unless they ask children to draw. But, at the same time they rarely (3 Ts out of 12) use the drawing for any spoken language practice, rather than for "*ending the lesson*", "*homework*" and "*time-spending*". All the opinions suggest that, for the English teachers, effective use of story means working with a written form of the story and not story-telling.

GAMES

The third method which emphasised strongly by (72%) of respondents is the use of games. The first aspect described is the behaviour of the learners. The teachers use the games taking into consideration the following advantages:

1. 35% of the teachers highly value the possibility of catching and maintaining the learners' attention,
2. 32% of respondents think that games and play stimulate logical thinking and train the learners' memory,
3. 22% consider the games responsible for motivation for learning English.

The second aspect was the linguistic development. Again, all the teachers see huge number of advantages of using games. Analysis of the data indicates that 92% of the teachers see the impact of games on greater understanding and memorizing vocabulary. A significant proportion of the teachers who declare the games are very effective (77%) mention the greatest achievements in listening and speaking. 15% of them argue that games develop the ability to read in English. Only 8% of the respondents observe that the fun and games negatively affect the ability to *write* in a foreign language.

VISUAL SUPPORT

The respondents' additional most effective strategy for teaching English to young learners is using visual support of various forms. 59% of the respondents consider using visual support the most effective. This may be due to the fact that students "*like to work with the cards picture, illustrations, posters, and photographs*". It should

also be noted that such aids "*are simple to prepare*", which in turn affects the time of preparation by the teacher for the class. Some of the Primary teachers (58%) find asking the learners to prepare illustrations and pictures an effective method of teaching, as the learners "*have to think carefully what to draw and what they know from English lesson at the same time*", and "*focus their attention on vocabulary for a long time*". The respondents also indicate that they use visual support because it is the easiest and the quickest way to diversify teaching, and they also feel there are a dominance of 'visual learners' in all their classrooms.

The data collected shows that all the teachers have a tendency to use visual cards for almost each class. They feel that the biggest advantage of it is that they easily "*focus the students' attention*" and "*do not have to translate the meaning into Polish*". However, the advantage of using only the target language in the classroom, was seen mainly by the English teachers (83%), and the Primary teachers mention many situations in which they translate or mix the first language and English (100%).

Several teachers mention the use of a puppet as a visual support. They claim it "*might be a puppet in the theatre to admire and model the language*", "*asks questions to the kids*" and "*gives them a lot of fun*".

An interesting conclusion might be made, while comparing the teachers' strategies of using stories and other tools such as songs, chants, games or visual support. The story is chosen as a whole, and the linguistic aspects accompany the story. The aim of the lesson is usually to present the story or to talk about it, and some specific learning outcomes appear additionally. The teachers think to themselves "*what can I teach when I have the book?*" or "*I see some grammar to teach*", "*I have to remind this and that to use the story*". The strategy might be called *resource-led*[1]. The teachers just "have" a story and match some learning outcomes to it.

In the cases of using songs and chants, or games and visuals, the strategy is opposite. The teachers know what they need to teach and then, as a result they choose a song to fulfil the objective and achieve the desired learning outcomes. The strategy might be then called *outcome-led*[2]. The interviews with the teachers show these differences strongly, as the teachers usually have their favourite songs or games to teach a particular language aspect or a topic (e.g. 22 teachers use "Head and Shoulders" to teach parts of body,

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[1]   Term suggested by Pete Boyd in private discussion with the author.
[2]   Ibidem.

or "What's missing?" with the flashcards). There is little or no difference in the opinions of the Primary teachers and English teachers in this matter.

After analysis of the questionnaires and interviews, a conclusion may be drawn that knowledge strongly influences the teachers' approach to the effectiveness of using variety of methods and techniques in classrooms. Teacher education that places more emphasise on the linguistic aspect of a language appears to prompt teachers to focus on it within their own classroom practice. The way the Primary teachers are educated let them consider a more playful atmosphere and individual contact with the learners.

Conclusion

The modern effective teacher should become an organizer of interesting tasks using a wide range of ways to engage and inspire students, and employ diversified techniques and tools to enhance the learners' experience. This understanding of the effectiveness of teaching is seen in the approaches discovered within the research study. The effective teacher is expected to select appropriate methods and techniques deliberately and then systematically observe their impact on students' learning. All the techniques and methods the teachers know are assessed according to the personal, somewhat standardised evaluation methods. The crucial factor influencing the choice of method is how well it helps the learners to master knowledge and skills. All the respondents use the methods that they acquired in the process of teacher education, but during their practice they developed their own strategies for selection of appropriate methods, techniques and forms of work that help to enhance the learning process. Hence, the recommendation for teacher education is to prepare the student teacher to become reflective practitioner and lead their further professional development.

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Realities and Perceptions for English Teachers of Polish Children

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Abstract

This chapter examines the responses of English primary school teachers to Polish children arriving in the south of England since 2006. Schools in England have a changing pupil demographic, which reflects changing patterns of trans-European migration since the accession of new member states to the EU in 2004 and 2007. There is evidence that this shift is one experienced not just in inner-city schools most commonly associated with minority ethnic populations, but in a wide range of schools in rural and smaller town settings in a number of counties across the country. In adjusting to new identities and new languages in their classrooms, teachers in areas not previously associated with national or ethnic differences are required to respond pedagogically and pastorally in new ways. Their beliefs are compared with the views of migration held by Polish teachers' from one Polish town affected by migration. Interview data are analysed in order to explore differences in perception towards Polish migrant families and their children. Discussion centres on English teachers' very positive responses to Polish children, and of how the teacher-friendly behaviour of Polish families may support the construction of stereotypes that are not necessarily a reflection of reality as experienced by the children.

Key words: diversity; ethnic minority; migrant; stereotypes.

Migration and Teachers' responses to difference

We start with an exploration of the literature surrounding how teachers respond to children from different national and ethnic backgrounds. The minimisation of difference is a common theme identified by research when exploring how teachers respond to 'otherness' in their children from ethnic

minority families (Bennett, 1998; Goodwin, 2002; Hoffman, 1996; Mahon, 2006). This minimisation is characterised by an attempt to find similarity rather than embracing the possibility of diversity, and in teachers might be done for the best of reasons. For example, studies among teachers in the US have found that practitioners are loath to recognise difference overtly for fear that this acknowledgment is of itself a form of discrimination (Hoffman, 1996; Mahon, 2006). Thus, teachers' perceived unwillingness to embrace diversity in any detail is perhaps born of beliefs that 'seeing only the mind and heart of a child is best practice' (Mahon, 2006).

Where individuals have some knowledge of different cultures, they are more likely to be able to adopt an ethno-relative, rather than ethno-centric, approach to their relationships with people unlike themselves (Hammer, Bennett, & Wiseman, 2003). The less experienced teachers are with responding to difference, the less likely they are to engage critically with their pupils' backgrounds (Hoffman, 1996) and thus allow some transformation of their own thinking. Mahon (2006) argues that this lack of acknowledgement of difference, this comfort with a white western world view, is the privilege of those who have the power to marginalise. Where English teachers are the holders of considerable social and cultural capital in the classroom, based on their ethnicity and the unacknowledged riches associated with being an English speaker (Bourdieu, 1991), it is possible that this comparative wealth may render them less likely to question their own responses to migrant children and more likely to see similarity than difference.

The relationship between pupil ethnicity and teacher expectation is well documented. There are several studies from the UK clearly demonstrating a mismatch between teacher expectation and ethnic minority pupils' attainment potential that suggest a powerful link between a largely white profession and an under-achieving non-white pupil population (Gilborn & Mirza, 2000; Pearce, 2003). However, what is not clearly recorded, with the exception of some reports on Polish children in London schools (Sales, Ryan, Rodriguez, & Alessio, 2008), is teacher response to the grouping known in the UK as 'white other' in which Polish children are now a significant percentage in some areas of the country.

Kitching's study in an Irish secondary school suggests that racialised construction of pupils' classroom identities is formed on lines that closely map to schools' and teachers' existing beliefs about identity (Kitching, 2011): he suggests that when faced with both Black and Eastern European new

migrant pupils, teachers are most likely to look for an image of the 'desirable learner' and respond favourably when they 'see' this. Thus, although it is not necessarily meaningful to generalise studies of teacher response to difference to white 'new arrivals', there is an emerging data set that suggests teachers look for generalised images of what they would like to see in their pupils and that this may play out differently across different nationalities as much as it might do across different ethnicities.

In this way, it is possible that Eastern European pupils in the UK are emerging as part of the 'model minority' myth that has been identified for Asian pupils in schools in the US (Flynn, 2013; Li, 2005; Ng, Lee, & Pak, 2007). The dilemma for the model minority student is that teachers' hopes of them are set so high, based on generalised expectations from either previous experience or simply on perception, that where pupils' academic outcomes don't match teachers' expectations of their potential, their performance may be interpreted unfairly and responsibility for improvement is seen as lying with the pupil rather than with the teacher (Li, 2005, p. 75). Furthermore, there is evidence that teachers expect more of parents of their model minority pupils, particularly in relation to their capacity to teach their children English at home (p. 80).

The Shifting Field and a 'New Migration'

In the first part of the twenty first century super-diversity characterises neighbourhoods in UK cities and more recently in smaller towns and villages (Vertovec, 2007, 2010). Ethnic diversity in UK school communities has previously been associated with inner-city school settings; however, among the number of migrants coming to the UK since 2004 are citizens from EU accession states, who are settling in areas not previously associated with migrant populations. Of these a significant number are Polish and by late 2010 Poles made up one of the three largest non-UK born population groups in all countries and most regions in the UK (ONS, 2011). These Polish workers and their families are often referred to as part of a 'new migration' (Favell, 2008).

Favell (2008) asserts that the enlargement of the EU since 2004 poses the biggest demographic change in Europe since the end of the second world war because these 'new migrants' have rights to work and to move freely within EU countries as European citizens: this makes comparison with Post-colonial and US theories of race, migration and ethnicity largely redundant (p.

706). This 'new migrant' identity bears particular relevance in education in the UK because professional discourse and culturally focussed initiatives in the past 15 years have tended to focus around the attainment of Black and Asian pupils who are perceived as linked with Britain's colonial past, or with children of asylum seekers (DfES, 2003; Tikly, Haynes, Caballero, Hill, & Gillborn, 2006). Apart from guidance related to the teaching of gypsy, Roma and traveller children (DCSF, 2008) there is no explicit nationality separation of the group referred to in pupil data collection as 'white other'. Thus the modulation to less obvious 'difference' in the classroom is relatively under reported and unmentioned in professional dialogue in the UK.

There is a confidence recognised in relation to Polish migrants which fosters the perception that they are part of a different type of migration (Favell, 2008; Garapich, 2008). They have tapped in to structures which support the rapid growth of social capital; notably a burgeoning of Polish newspapers, website and radio stations which have facilitated all aspects of the process of moving to a new country (Garapich, 2008). Polish mothers in the UK also appear to have built considerable social capital through dynamic social networks in their own and the host community (Ryan, Sales, Tilki & Siara, 2008, 2009). There is of course an argument that Poles are allowed access to social and economic capital because of differences in the way that 'new migration' is constructed by the press and national policy (Warren, 2007), but not all research builds such a positive picture of recent Polish migration. Observations have also been made that attitudes to new migrants are no different from those towards previous generations of new arrivals; ignorance about people's home countries, tendency towards negative stereotypes and limited social contact between British people and Eastern Europeans are all recorded as part of the new migrants' experience (Spencer, Rhus, Anderson & Rogaly, 2007). The media, which on the one hand have played a very positive role in building social capital for the new Polish community, have, in mainstream publications, also fuelled alarmist and erroneous responses focussing on easy accessibility to employment, housing and benefits (Berkley, Khan & Ambikaipaker, 2006; Gaine, 2007; Spencer, et al., 2007).

It is useful at this point to explore some of the historical context which has led to the recent migration from Poland because this allows some insight in to the reasons for Polish families seeking work and life in England. Following the advent of democratisation in 1989 Poland was seen as something of a trendsetter in Eastern Europe and the model for a positive force

for change in aspiration to become more like Western Europe (Onis, 2004). The desire to become more European was supported both civilly and by government, creating a relatively homogeneous view of the advantages of EU membership. Conversely, Russia became part of a negative discourse following rejection of past soviet influence (Zarycki, 2004). The preference for a European over a Russian identity will have supported the development of some relative values around language and lifestyle: in brief, economic capital is associated with use of English which is in turn seen as a passport to better living standards. The wish to assimilate European norms will have facilitated Polish migrants' relationships with their new countries' communities as they aspired to become part of 'something better' (Onis, 2004). Their desire to integrate will have been a strong driver for the formation of bridging capital (Puttnam, 2007) which unites new with host communities where conditions are favourable.

Warren warns us that drawing distinctions between old and new migration is not only unhelpful, but has made the situation in schools worse: he considers that it encourages differential responses to different communities of minority ethnic pupils and discourse that defines good and bad types of migration (Warren, 2007). Conversely, there is a view that *not* acknowledging this difference is also obstructive because it encourages a minimisation of difference when a detailed understanding of the characters of different communities, their reasons for being here and their differing affiliations to host communities, would support a more tailored response to need (Vertovec, 2007). In Vertovec's view the super-diversity of Britain is something that surpasses older narrative around a 'multicultural society' and we risk failing to acknowledge that community differences go well beyond the historical discourse attached to ethnicity (Vertovec, 2010).

Following the population shift since, among other events, EU accession, teachers throughout England are increasingly likely to receive children of different nationalities in their classrooms; this presents challenges in particular for regions unaccustomed to managing a diverse pupil population and the attending need for language support and intercultural awareness in school staff. Furthermore, it bestows on schools a need to support children who are not necessarily ethnically different but who are nationally different. Following the experience of one English county where the number of Polish children rapidly increased after 2004, the following data tracks how one group of English primary school teachers responded to families from

the most recent wave of Polish migration to the UK. It compares the inter-
views with English teachers with those of two Polish teachers interviewed
during 2010 whose views were sought specifically to explore and unpick the
responses of the English teachers to Polish children.

Data collection

Interviews were conducted with eleven teachers in five primary schools (ages
5 – 11 years) in one county in the south of England during 2007–2009, and
with staff who worked for the local education authority as part of the ethnic
minority achievement service: it is worth noting that this county, although
considered very different and more affluent from those attached to major
conurbations in England, has a history of well-regarded support for pupils
whose home language of not English. However, this support is spread thin –
chiefly because the pupils are in schools in very small numbers – and consists
of 10 hours of help with language in the classroom when children first arrive;
this is followed up with additional support for teachers or children if schools
choose to buy in to the service.

Conversations with the teachers had intentionally focussed on their views
of how they adapted their pedagogy to accommodate the English language
learning needs of their Polish pupils, but the interview responses recorded
in this chapter relate to a set of wider attitudes that emerged to the children
and their parents. Quite often discourse would stray in to narrative around
the children's families because family support was perceived as integral to
children's academic success by teachers, and they found it difficult to focus
on how they taught their Polish children without also discussing how their
parents support them. Thus, the interviews in Poland in 2010, with two
teachers in an area of north-eastern Poland, were to enhance understanding
of the context from which these children and their families had moved, and
also to explore some of the findings from a different perspective. There was
an emerging sense from the data analysis of a difference between reality and
perception among the English teachers, in terms of their understanding of
the home lives of their Polish children, and this was usefully explored in con-
versation with the Polish teachers. The interview data from Polish teachers
were scrutinised to throw light on where perceptions might or might not
be realities for the Polish migrant families.

SAMPLE

The following presentation of data draws on interviews with four of the English teachers who taught in one school, in order that the match of data to the Polish teacher interviews is balanced in terms of comparing single school settings and their responses to Polish migration. Teachers in the English schools were selected using pupil admissions data from the county's database, and schools which had admitted Polish children during 2006–7 were invited to take part in interviews.

The English teachers worked in a primary school in a small town surrounded by rural areas, with a population of more than 90% white British. The school itself had always admitted very small numbers of children from a range of ethnic and national backgrounds, but had experienced a rise in ethnic minority and new migrant pupils between 2004 and 2008: from 2004 when under 10% of pupils were other than white British (one or two children in each class) to 2008 when 17% of pupils (28 in total in a school roll of 169) were from non-British families. Of this 17%, 6 of the children were Polish, had arrived in quick succession, and were in classes throughout the school. The apparent concentration of new arrivals from Poland was mirrored in the rest of the county where, by 2012, Polish had become the highest non-British nationality in the county's population. The four teachers ranged from relatively newly qualified to over 20 years' experience in the classroom, and they taught children in the age range from 4 to 11 years. Interviews took place between 2007 and 2008: each teacher was interviewed at the beginning and end of the school year. Schooling from 5 years old is compulsory in England, and most children start as 4 year olds in the school year in which they will become 5. Primary school teachers have their classes for one year and teach them every subject in the National Curriculum. For 4 – 5 year olds the curriculum is designed for early years and is focussed on integrated areas of learning, but from 5 – 11 years children are taught all curriculum subjects.

The Polish teachers were an opportunity sample provided through contacts at a university in Warsaw. They lived and worked in a town in North East Poland which had experienced substantial migration to England. The school was very large by English primary school standards; a roll of 850, and for children aged 7 – 13 years. The two teachers interviewed were each responsible for single subject areas: a recently qualified male teacher was the teacher of English to all ages and a more experienced female teacher taught

ICT to children aged 10 – 13. Interviews took place in 2010 and were conducted to provide some perspective for the emerging themes from analysis of the interviews with teachers in England.

Table 1. Sample teachers

	Name	Years in service	Age of children taught at point of interview	School setting
English teachers	Dee	20	6/7 year olds	160 pupil Primary school (4 – 11): small town in South of England
	Nicola	11	10/11 year olds	
	Alison	4	8/9 year olds	
	Claire	25	4/5 year olds	
Polish teachers	Piotr	2	Teaches English to 7 – 10 year olds	850 first and middle (7 – 13) school: large town in north east Poland
	Gracja	15	Teaches IT to 10 – 13 year olds	

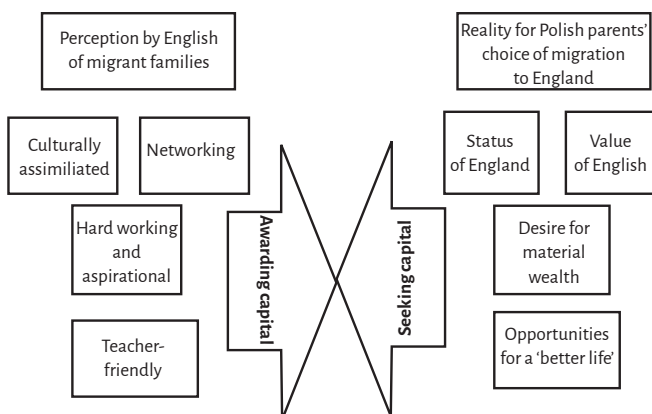## English Teachers' attitudes towards Polish families

Figure 1. Comparing English teachers' views of Polish families with Polish teachers' views of their reasons for migration

The various views and experiences of the Polish that emerged during interview were based on the teachers' interaction with their pupils in class and with their families as part of wider school life (Figure 1). Interestingly there was no measurable change in perceptions between the first and second interviews: rather the conversations at the end of the school year confirmed the opinions expressed the previous autumn. Key themes included that Polish families were hard-working and aspirational in their desire for 'a better life'; that they used social networks for support of their children's education; and that they generally behaved in a way that is teacher-friendly. There was also a sense that Polish parents actively sought integration and cultural assimilation, and that this was seen as praiseworthy; conversely there was also recognition that Polish families worked hard at retaining a sense of their Polish identity and this too was perceived positively. This relationship is in keeping with Vertovec's assertion that a transnational identity supports rather than inhibits the assimilation of new migrant families in some communities (2007). Three of the four English teachers referred repeatedly to Polish parents' hard-working characters; this meant hard-working as employees, often in several jobs, but also hard-working in their role as parents of school-aged children (Table 2).

Table 2. English teacher's view of Polish parents as hard-working and aspirational

Dee	*"… they want to get through to their children 'the reason you are here is to have a better life' and they say that to us too. Their attitude is brilliant it really is."* *"Right from the beginning of the year she said I want my child to do well. Constantly asking, … which is very encouraging. I wish all parents would do it!"*
Nicola	*"They're passing their aspirations on to their children, and that makes them different, because not all of the other children are aspirational. They are here because they want to get on, and want their children to get on."*

Comments such as those above were consistent with the other English teachers in the sample and in the wider sample of the project which gathered data from 11 teachers with varying levels of experience. Although there was some variation on this theme, in that occasionally families were not

seen as aspirational/ supportive, in the main the positive response to Polish families was very dominant in conversation. In fact where Polish parents were perceived as less supportive – usually coined in terms of their being less active in developing their children's learning of English – this was commented on negatively; it was almost as if English teachers expressed some disappointment when Polish parenting didn't conform to the norms that had been constructed by their more positive interactions with the majority. This is perhaps evidence of a developing 'model minority' view of Polish children among English teachers.

Overall, however, the Polish families appeared to have made very favourable impressions on their children's teachers, and this rested largely on their teacher-friendly behaviours of helping their children with their work, always appearing at parents' evening, working hard rather than living on benefits (ONS, 2011) and generally behaving in respectful and courteous ways to the practitioners involved in their children's education. By, consciously or unconsciously, reflecting the positive requirements in English teachers' habitus, the Polish families appeared to have quickly acquired social capital which allowed them access to opportunities for their children: in behaving in ways that teachers find pleasing, they were able to seek and gather help from schools to improve their children's educational chances. The English teachers were happy to provide this help because they saw Polish families' wish for a better life - that is, a life that living in England can offer them – as their wish for cultural assimilation, which of itself appeared to be something prized by the profession. That is not to say that the teachers did not value home culture, or wished to downplay the differences inherent in their Polish children's backgrounds, but Polish families' apparent hunger for their children's success supported the development of good home-school relationships.

A facet of the hard-working/aspirational characteristic, according to the English teachers, was the Polish families' capacity to network and seek support from, for example, the more fluent English speakers within their local community. All of the teachers in this school commented on how Polish parents always responded to letters home, even when they could not read them; it was known that they would get either another parent or an older sibling who had acquired more English to read them so that they could respond accordingly. Polish families' capacity to ensure that their children always had the right things at the right time was very highly regarded.

A specific example of Polish parental behaviour which demonstrates clearly one family's tenacity in securing social capital was reported by Claire. Claire taught a 4 year old boy, Albin, who, along with his mother, had been very distressed at starting school. Over the course of the academic year Claire commented on several actively constructive moves Albin's mother had made to secure her place in the school's parental community. Firstly, the mother had enrolled in English courses so that she could help her son and so that she could communicate with Claire at parents' evening. Secondly, the mother had also invited her son's friends to his 5th birthday party; the invitations extended to the whole class and included English, other European and British-Asian children. Claire was full of admiration for this young mother who had arrived with no English but who, within a year, was operating within cultural norms expected by both the teacher and parents' groups (Table 3).

Table 3. Specific examples of efforts towards social and cultural acceptance

Claire	*"So she is becoming much more fluent and at the last parent interview, I can't remember when that was, I mean she didn't have her little note-book this time, she actually did the speaking."*
	"The confidence to have a party ......and it was a mixture of children, it was a mixture of nationalities, it was a mixture of abilities. Especially the confidence of the parents who find English quite difficult, and I think they live in a flat too, so you know, there was this smiling group of children (in a photograph) with party hats on and so on, and I thought what a lovely thing to happen. When I think how that first day he was like a little scared rabbit and his mum was a little scared rabbit, you know, and now they're so different; fascinating."

It is obvious from this extract that Claire is as pleased for the family as she might be for a child in her class. For many in the profession, the wish to care, to make a difference, and to 'touch lives' will have been a motivating attraction to teaching (Moore, 2004). In working alongside socially-assimilating new migrant families, teachers are able to gain rapid positive results which support their view of themselves as successful practitioners: parents and children are happy and flourishing, and this feeds a virtuous circle

whereby teachers also feel productive, making good relationships clearly cemented in school.

To summarise at this point: in this small sample, English teachers' view of Polish parents is that they have to come England to make a better life for themselves, and their aspiration to do this leads them to work hard and to support their children's success in school. Something that was interesting in analysing interview transcripts was that the phrase 'to make a better life' was not defined by either interviewer or subject during the conversations; we sat in tacit agreement that this was something of a given and which needed no exploration. Deep in our English teacher habitus was inferred understanding of what this meant and an unacknowledged acceptance that it described an aspiration to something enriching. Reasons for migration as a choice in Polish parents were discussed with the two teachers in Poland, and Piotr's responses in particular throws an interesting light on how values are constructed in relation to different nations' perceptions of themselves and others.

Table 4. Polish teacher's views of Polish parents' choice to migrate to England

Piotr	*"After Communism we looked to the West as a developed model for Poland, and English is the language of the developed Europe and America."* *"Learning English, I think maybe fifty per cent, the decision to go to England… fifty per cent to earn money. Also, they want their children to learn English in a natural environment."*

Starting with the idea of the 'better life', Piotr described Polish parents' wish to better themselves and to have more opportunities as the driver behind their choice of migration, but his conversation revealed a complexity that challenges the somewhat bland assumptions about 'a better life' that any of us might label all migrant families with (Table 4). Aside from better chances for economic well-being, the parents were seen as having taken a long term view that moving to England would give their children opportunities that they had not had themselves. Hugely important to the Polish teachers was that their relatively recent break with Russian rule brought with it a desire to become more European (Onis, 2004). This manifested itself strongly as

a desire to come to England because England is seen as the model for a new Europe. Perhaps more important than England being a role model is that England has that most prized of possessions – English spoken by native English speakers. So Piotr was clear that the parents wanted a better life for their children because they thought that this was something they could gain if their children learned English in England. The English teachers knew that the Polish families wanted a better life, but they were not sensitive to this very precise driver for migration and therefore not aware of the amount of capital they themselves held effortlessly as English speakers.

A second response to Polish parents which I took to the Polish teachers for exploration was that of their being hard-working. In their view of Polish parents as being aspirational, the English teachers had quickly generalised the construct of all Poles as hard-working and aspirational despite there being some evidence of individual difference among families. For Piotr, it was clear that in the UK we see only one type of Polish family and that this colours any response to the country and its citizens. His view was that migrant workers are likely to be those who have high aspirations because they have the confidence to travel and to seek opportunity abroad. However, there are others who would not have this confidence and who would stay at home. Similarly, he was sceptical that Poles are necessarily harder working any other European nation, because, again, those who are not hard-working would be unlikely to migrate and are therefore not visible to foreigners in receiving countries. In other words, his view was that the generalised construction of Poles created by English teachers is somewhat rose-tinted and more a perception than a reality.

So, there is clearly some difference between what English teachers think of Polish parents, and Polish parents' reasons for being in England. Nevertheless, the way in which Polish parents are seeking a better life appears to manifest itself in a set of behaviours which are teacher-friendly and which attract teachers in to good relationships with them. Thus, the parents come seeking capital in many forms and are awarded it by the teachers chiefly in the form of social capital because they appear to know the rules of the field and can share in the group habitus of the school.

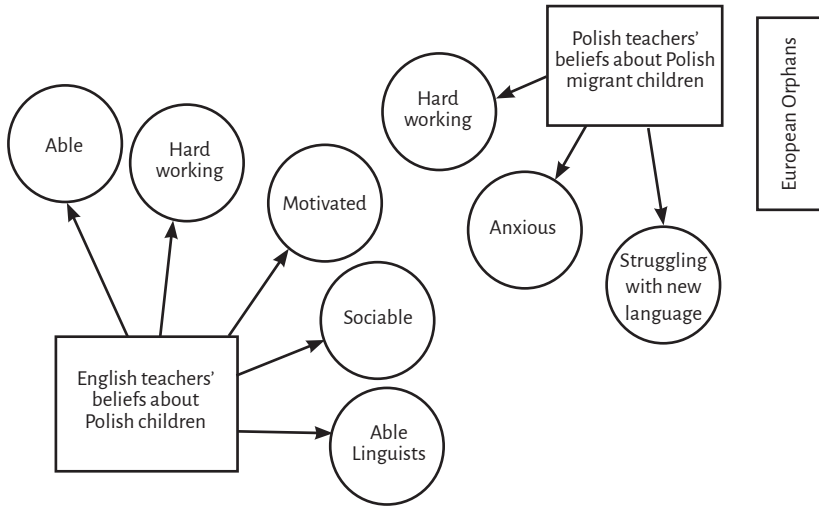## Teacher-friendly Polish children in English classrooms

Figure 2. Differing views of Polish children's classroom identity

The qualities celebrated in parents were also something noted in Polish children by their English teachers (Figure 2). They commonly described them with the same range of adjectives; hard-working, motivated and sociable. In addition the children were also frequently referred to as very able and as confident in the classroom. High attainment was evident in their apparently rapid development of spoken English and their capacity to perform well according to the age-related norms in the English curriculum. High attainment was noted not just for younger children, who might be expected to flourish given a more play and talk-based curriculum in the early years, but also for children arriving in Key Stage 2 (age 7 – 11) who ended school with scores comparable to their English peers in the national tests sat by 11 year olds in England . Thus teachers perceived Polish children as a whole as very able, and this became part of the same virtuous circle observed in teacher-parent relations

Table 5. Positive response to Polish pupils from English teachers

Nicola	"Everything you teach they want to devour and put in to practice." " I think the reason I don't see this (teaching Polish new arrivals) as a burden is because they want to learn and they have a positive attitude; and that's what teachers want, that's why teachers teach."
Alison	"They've integrated very well. They don't necessarily spend time together." "I'm surprised how quickly they pick up the language. Very, very quickly; he is a very bright child and before I knew it he didn't need any help."

Looking at Nicola's comments in particular (Table 5) it is apparent that teacher satisfaction is very closely bound up with both high attainment and an accompanying willingness to learn. Interestingly, Polish children were among a small mixed group of children from other countries which had arrived at intervals during 2004–2006. Thus, Nicola was comparing her Polish children with both indigenous children and those from other countries and they appeared to come out very favourably. One explanation could be that the school served a socially-mixed catchment where most families were on low incomes, and the indigenous population in particular were not perceived by the teachers to be particularly ambitious for their children. So it is perhaps the case that the levels of motivation, academic confidence and aspiration in the Polish children were something of a breath of fresh air for teachers more used to dealing with a need to promote aspiration in children and their families. The teachers in the English school were sensitive to this and took great pains to explain their efforts not to appear more positive towards their Polish children. In fact, an inspiring characteristic of all the teachers interviewed for this project was their unquestioning acceptance of their role to do their best for all of their children.

When asked if he thought that Polish children were actually more willing and able in the classroom than other nationalities, Piotr was sceptical. He commented instead that '*when someone is abroad, the environment is new, and so you must be aware, you must listen and be more careful*'. His view was that the behaviours of children in class are more likely related to their anxiety to make progress in a foreign country, than that they necessarily have more aspiration to learn. Gracja also referred to children's anxiety

rather than confidence in their learning abroad. She was aware that children worried a lot about learning English and had reported difficulties learning it when they came home to Poland for holidays. Thus, the children's classroom identity in England was one of application to study based on anxiety to do well, and this was read by English teachers as confidence and high ability that was a part of their Polish identity.

The positive reception of the Polish children by English teachers might have related to their feeling that they were giving them a better education – a more enjoyable education - than they had received at home. Their understanding that this was the case rested on what they were told by Polish families about education in Poland, and so they developed a set of beliefs based on the available information. Add to this the fact that English teachers mostly believed that children in Poland received little education prior to 6 or 7, and a sense of the importance of what they were providing would have grown further. It is interesting that Polish parents did not seem to have disabused their children's teachers of the idea that their children had not been to school. Perhaps differences in educational expectations between the two countries simply meant that the children's educational background was left unexplored. If we contrast this with the usual wealth of material about pre-school experience that comes as part of normal school induction for English children, it is obvious that migrant children come with information only from their families and this will be another factor contributing to the minimisation of difference and the maintenance of existing beliefs which may well be erroneous.

The community in the area where the Polish teachers taught had experienced less positive aspects of migration than English teachers were observing. This negative experience was summed up by the phrase 'European orphans' which had developed specifically to describe those children left behind when one parent, most commonly a father, migrates without the family. This phrase was used by Gracja, and was clearly a construction of childhood that had become a norm for this particular Polish primary school. She noted that there had been an increase in children with behavioural difficulties when they came from homes where one parent was abroad working and the other was also working while trying to raise the family alone. She spoke of a rising number of children who go home to an empty house and the impact of this on their emotional well-being and educational outcomes. Given that behaviour was something the school had worked hard at over time, and that

expectations of good behaviour were high, this new development was clearly a frustration for the staff and one somewhat beyond their control.

The impact of being European orphans was not necessarily one that manifested itself just in poor behaviour. Gracja recounted experiences of children in her classes who had developed a new status because of the wealth associated with having a parent working in Western Europe (Table 6).

Table 6. Impact of lone parent migration on children's relationships in class

Gracja	*The children that I have in my class don't have a problem with their learning (because of one parent's absence), but they do set great store by the fact that Dad is earning lots of money and he sends home lots of money. Those are the things that matter to them.*

Gracja's comments drew a picture of a new wealthy class emerging in both the school and the community it served, which changed the dynamic of children's relationships with each other. Although the school served some families which were already relatively wealthy, she had noted a difference in classes where there were children from families who were not prosperous. The social division growing between haves and have-nots was considered quite destructive for pupil relationships, and was a new issue for the Polish teachers to have to deal with. Thus, just as teachers in England had to respond to immigration in their schools, teachers in Poland had to respond to the impact of emigration from theirs.

Discussion

For English teachers, Polish children arrive in school supported by families who aspire to great things for them, and this supersedes other concerns such as why the family have migrated and the possible impact on the child of moving in to a very different school system. It is likely that teachers in English schools see only those Polish families who have managed to migrate as a unit, albeit over time; the evidence is that often fathers come first and mothers and children follow later (Ryan, et al., 2009). Thus, the perception of the English teacher might commonly be of a stable family unit for whom migration appears a positive choice and one founded on very high aspiration for something better. Moreover,

the experience of only the end of the migration process means that teachers are not engaged with the families when disruption to their lives through separation may have been traumatic for both parents and children. It may also mean that English teachers are unlikely to understand just how profound the shift in family life has had to be in order to accommodate a move to a foreign country and a foreign education system. The behaviour of Polish families was complicit in this to some extent, because it was only where children were very young – such as Albin arriving in Reception – that teachers reported anxiety and problems with settling. It is very likely that most children will have had to adapt to a very different school experience and that this of itself is likely to have caused anxieties of the type described by Piotr and Gracja, but this does not appear to have been where the focus of conversation was between parents and teachers in this one school. In this way, Polish parents unwittingly protected English teachers from needing to engage with details and thus unconsciously encouraged the minimisation of difference.

The ways in which the school provided a nurturing environment for several types of capital, were complicated by subtleties of expectation in both the teachers and the families. The 'right' classroom identity – sometimes explicit, sometimes buried – is something very clearly mapped out on the consciousness of teachers and something that Polish children appeared to tap in to very successfully . In this way Polish children have perhaps become a 'model minority' in the eyes of English teachers (Flynn, 2013). So successfully in fact that it seems that the English teachers thought that these children quickly moved on from needing much support; a phenomenon observed in Sales' report from London schools (Sales, et al., 2008). There are several potential dangers here: the perception that all Polish children are high attaining may set them up for failure as they grow older and the curriculum in secondary school becomes more demanding: moreover, the attribution of inflated levels of capital by teachers may increase pressure on children who are already anxious to perform and could ultimately lead to demotivation.

As children and families appeared to conform generally to a set of highly regarded attributes, so teachers constructed very favourable images of Poles that at times meant they risked prizing them over their English pupils. However, as this research had focussed deliberately on the arrival of Polish families, and on a set of teachers in only one region of England, the findings are not generalisable. For some teachers the Polish children represented their first experience of non-Brit-

ish children in the classroom, and I cannot assume that the same response might not be common to any non-British national: in fact this is just the danger that Warren (2007, p. 372) warns of in seeking to analyse one community's migration as better than another's . That said, within the case study presented by this English school, the reception of Polish children and their families does have a largely uniform quality to it that suggests teachers attribute certain characteristics to Polish families that they might not to other migrant families.

English teachers appear to find shared values with Polish families and therefore award them social capital: on the one hand this promotes growth in social capital for Polish and maybe other Eastern European families, but on the other hand it encourages teachers to minimise difference and not engage with realities for the struggle these families have had in building a new life in England. Polish families in this study had emerged, in the eyes of their children's teachers, as very successfully bi-cultural and this of itself may mean that children of other ethnicities whose families do not tradition-ally have this level of confidence and social capital, or English low-income families, may not compare well: more research in to teacher-response to other communities within the new super-diversity in English classrooms is much needed to test this hypothesis , and analysis of national data sets pertaining to the attainment of pupils who are 'white other' needs a much more finely tuned response to track the academic outcomes of pupils from nationalities associated with the new migration.

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CONCLUSION:

Teacher Educators and Teachers as Learners

To resist the dominant Neoliberal agenda, that is currently such a strong influence on the field of Teaching, the chapter authors in this book challenge us to consider our purpose and the moral basis for our work in education.

From a distance, for example from the perspective of a busy school teacher, those teacher educators who are based in higher education may appear to be living in the quiet and safe ivory towers of the university. In practice, as outlined in Chapters One and Two of this text, higher education as a workplace, in similar ways to schools, is subject to the relentless pressure of the Neoliberal agenda. Managerialist leadership and high levels of accountability mean that the pedagogy for teacher education is strongly shaped by this agenda. Chapter Three suggests that explicit modelling may provide coherence to the layered pedagogy of teacher education. However, this explicit modelling requires teacher educators to accept a measure of vulnerability and that is a big ask within a high accountability workplace context where student evaluative feedback may be highly valued and not subjected to sophisticated interpretation. This significance of the workplace context operates at different layers with teacher education. This is revealed in Chapter Four where teacher educators have developed a research-informed teacher education programme that respects the workplace context of their 'student' teachers. The complexity of the pedagogy of teacher education and the expectations placed on them means that formal professional development for teacher educators is increasingly being sought and provided and this is illustrated by Chapter Five.

From a distance, for example from the perspective of a professor in the university, school teachers appear to be understandably focused on pragmatic and short term solutions to the everyday challenges of their role. Chapters

Six, Seven and Eight show how the Neoliberal agenda has created a high pressured workplace but that professional learning for teachers is able to continue especially where school leadership has created a more democratic culture. Chapter Nine suggests that 'teachers as researchers' is one way for this professional learning to survive and maintain teachers' professional identity and contribution. Chapter Ten reminds us that the design and facilitation of such professional learning needs to acknowledge the significance of individual teacher biographies. Chapter Eleven and Twelve highlight the informal workplace learning that forms the core of effective teacher professional development and remind us that the most sophisticated teacher development programmes and projects will come to nothing if the teacher participants are then returning to restrictive workplace environments.

In the complex and layered pedagogy of teacher education, which involves boundary-crossing from the university into schools, we are asked to acknowledge the tension around the value placed on different kinds of knowledge. Within this context, the development of research-informed practice by teacher educators and teachers appears to be an ambitious project, not least because of the multiple paradigm nature of the field of Teaching. Grasping and applying the metaphor for teacher learning as 'interplay' between public knowledge and practical wisdom helps to signal the need for an enquiry-based approach to the professional development of teacher educators and teachers. Developing a shared language and practice of enquiry within the field of Teaching would be a useful next step for the teacher education community. Both teacher educators and teachers need to ask the question: what is my impact on learning and on learners?

BIOGRAPHIES

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Latest projects:

Campus Conexus: the purpose is to strengthen the cultural practices of the universities promoting learning and teaching. The central objective of the project is to produce practices which promote the engagement of the students to the expert community and support studying, learning and the process of development of expertise and thus prevent educational exclusion..

DIP (Disseminating Inclusive Practices) is based on two former projects (Special Know-how and counseling and Campus Conexus) and the aim is to disseminate and further develop the models and good practices developed in these projects. DIP also includes benchmarking workshops in international partner organizations (Prague, Budapest, Coventry).

Verme (peer-group mentoring PGM) a collaborative network between the Finnish teacher education institutions, including the vocational teacher education institutions and teacher education departments of universities. The main goal is to develop and disseminate the peer-group mentoring model (PGM) to support new teachers.

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