Europe is facing challenges to education springing from the impact of the information society, internationalisation and the scientific and technical world. The transformation of society calls for an inevitable change in the structures for, and approaches to, teaching and learning with the need to outline the new role of the teacher.

This publication is the second one in a trilogy on the new role of the teacher, a product of The Learning Teacher Network. In the first volume 'Towards the Teacher as a Learner' (2004) the network described and discussed basic approaches and contexts. This second publication surveys conditions, components and essential expressions of learning for the future, for the new role of the teacher and thereby for continuous professional development. Furthermore, it emphasises that the identification of the new role of the teacher requires awareness of contexts and learning strategies that characterise a future educational environment. By trying to illustrate such components and contexts, this volume seeks to encourage progressive debate and decision-making.

The idea of “the learning teacher” is to be regarded as a concept for acquiring new competences, developing professional learning strategies and an awareness of measures that need to be taken in order to turn ideas into action. Through this book, the network wishes to contribute to another move towards a European dimension in the answers to the present educational challenges.
LEARNING FOR THE FUTURE
- DIMENSIONS OF THE NEW ROLE OF THE TEACHER
LEARNING
FOR THE FUTURE

DIMENSIONS OF THE NEW ROLE OF THE TEACHER
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PREFACE

This publication is the sequel to the 2004 publication ‘Towards the Teacher as a Learner’. It is one of the outcomes of the second year of The Learning Teacher Network on the new role of the teacher. Working within the framework of the European Union SOCRATES Programme, The Learning Teacher Network comprises 26 partner institutions and is joined by 65 non-contractual member institutions, in total representing 21 European countries.

The publication is mainly a reflection of the issues raised during the second year of the network and presented at the second international conference in Prague, the Czech Republic from May 12 to 14, 2005. With more than 170 conference delegates from 19 European countries participating and actively discussing at sessions, workshops, round tables and during breaks, this second conference was another important event in promoting the thematic debate on a European level. As witnessed from both the participants' spontaneous feedback and from the formal conference evaluations, the two conferences arranged so far have been regarded as being very successful with regard to content, organisation and 'atmosphere'. In addition, they have been very valuable European learning and contact events.

Providing for venues of learning as well as for the exchange of knowledge and experience can be seen as a core philosophy of The Learning Teacher Network, and hopefully the reader of this publication will find also this book to be a valuable contribution to knowledge and learning.

As the coordinator of the network I would like to express my deep appreciation of the partners and contributors, who have shown strong commitment and devoted much time to develop the thematic issues, to share and to contribute generously not only to the content of the second conference and to this publication but to the thematic network discussions in general.

Special thanks go to our colleagues at the East Sussex County Council Language and Learning Support Service, UK, for the rigorous work of proof reading articles for this publication, thereby ensuring a good product in the sense of correct English language.

I would also like to thank the partners who organised the two network meetings held this academic year, which took place in Billund, Denmark in October 2004 and in Prague, the Czech Republic in May 2005. By these well prepared and successful meetings the network has had excellent venues for discussions, for progression and for developing the thematic area of the network.
Finally, a word of thanks to the European Commission, without whose financial and moral support *The Learning Teacher Network* would not be able to operate as a European platform for professional debate and thematic development.

Practitioners, schools and other educational institutions may find more information about the network on the website www.learningteacher.org or by contacting the network coordinator magnus.persson@karlstad.se.
INTRODUCTION

Background
This volume is the second of a trilogy on the new role of the teacher. It contains a series of papers that correspond to the thematic network discussions and to the issues raised at the second international conference (Prague, the Czech Republic on May 12-14, 2005) of The Learning Teacher Network, an educational Comenius 3 network on the new role of the teacher. The book is based on work carried out by network partners and members, to a large extent reflecting the content of the workshops, plenary presentations, round tables and lectures at the second annual conference.

If professionals are to prepare an even more diverse group of learners for much more challenging work they will need substantially more/new knowledge and radically different lifelong skills than most now have. The overall aim of the network is to conceptualise a European dimension framework and to pin down and extract key factors in professional teaching and learning that will meet the demands of the future, and define qualities and competences that will be needed by professional teachers in Europe in order to perform in a changing society. By doing so, the network aspires to make a significant contribution to professional understanding, to school and training practice, and to decision-making in this thematic field.

The network aims to empower and raise awareness amongst professionals in education by identifying sustainable strategies for gradual transformation from ‘teaching’ to ‘learning’ to ‘the learner’ to ‘the provider for learning’, thus describing and making visible the new role of the teacher. Thereby the network also intends to contribute to the deployment of schools as professional learning communities, thus revealing the required and desired environment for teaching and learning.

It would be presumptuous to assume that one single network would achieve a rapid transformation of teaching and learning patterns in the whole educational community. However, and as a network learning community in itself, by providing European venues for professional debate the network functions as a significant communication platform, enabling stakeholders to meet, share and reflect on colleagues’ expertise and findings, and to create new mind sets that transforms into action. By doing so, the network becomes a source for new knowledge, understanding, inspiration and dissemination.
Thereby the network powerfully promotes and embeds the European dimension in education and brings added value to the discussions and actions between a rapidly growing number of European professionals and educational communities. During two years of existence we have encountered a swiftly increasing interest from all over Europe in joining these negotiations, adding to the thematic debate amongst practitioners and policy-makers which in turn and over time will impact on the educational community agenda.

The focal points of the new role of the teacher are the nature and practice of learning, competence building, and the power of the professionals. Core issues related to teachers’ qualities and competences, as well as methods and strategies for consciousness and action, are identified step by step, examined and concluded. In this second volume, a range of these issues is illustrated and discussed. In addition to the international conference, this publication is to be seen as a contribution to the European dialogue on learning and teacher competence.

**How the book is structured**

The book is composed of a variety of contributions, from theory and academic papers to practice and accounts of practitioners’ experiences. The papers are written by authors from twelve European countries, thereby also reflecting the prosperity and qualities of education in Europe. By contributions from researchers, trainers and practitioners a wide range of perspectives is present, thereby forming a holistic view on the thematic issues. Seen as a whole, the papers are making apparent the unanimity in the thematic field addressed. Furthermore, it is noticeable how fundamental values are shared by the authors and to which extent the papers show agreement about what may be expressed as truly essential.

Regarding the structure of the book, the papers are deliberately mixed as to authors, content and countries, as the targeted issues are interlinked regardless of work perspective, theory or practice, or national origin. For the same reason, this publication has not been divided into sections given the fact that the highlighted issues of teacher competence, learning, professional development, school development projects, and support mechanisms are just different ways of looking at the same phenomena, and these coherent ingredients are interconnected.

In chapter 1 Magnus Persson portrays professional learning communities, emphasises their importance to education and calls for the creation of such communities. In chapter 2 Bill Goddard gives an overview of how can we define or identify what the future holds and the consequences of that for the professional development of teachers. This perspective is complemented by Ivan Lorenčič in chapter 3, reflecting on the teacher of the future.

Starting with chapter 4, a set of papers addresses skills connected to the new role of the teacher, by describing qualities and professional competences that are seen as crucial for the future. Chapter 4 gives a description of key competences as identified by one of the European Union working groups, in order to reach the Lisbon targets. Teachers’ skills and attributes of the teacher of the future are also the focus of chapter 5, where Bill Goddard and Francia Kinchington present the
bottom-up perspectives with outcomes from the European workshop discussions at the Prague conference. In chapter 6 Beata Dyrda and Irena Przybylska present the theoretical and practical outline of creative and emotional competencies of contemporary and future teachers.

In chapter 7 Helen Masani and Lesley Burnett stress the importance of listening to children’s views and involve them in decision-making, and they describe one method of how this can be done in a practical sense. Challenging the narrow view of curriculum and pedagogy, in chapter 8 Francia Kinchington and Cristovalina Afonso explore a different facet of the teacher’s role, namely the teacher as a social educator. In chapter 9 Keith Good argues that the exponential increase in the pace of change makes creative, innovative thinking ever more relevant to the needs of students, industry and society. Highlighting interpersonal skills, in chapter 10 Nevenka Lamut emphasizes communication as a key factor for learning and for personal and professional growth.

In chapter 11 Bernd Hainmüller describes the Comenius 2.1 APT project, which aims to support the training of student teachers by developing diagnostic tools for identification and exploration of students’ fundamental attitudes towards the teaching profession, thus providing the student teacher with the opportunity to increase self-awareness through reflection and critical questioning as a starting point for further professional development as a “change agent” in school. In chapter 12 Pavel Brebéra, Monika Černá, Michaela Pšová present the ELTE programme, a new model of teaching practice called “the Clinical Year”, which not only develops the students’ professional competence but also the co-operation between schools and the university. Chapter 13 gives a summary of four round table sessions at the Prague conference, and presents European discussions and conclusions around some of the challenging statements on teaching and on schools of the future.

The subsequent chapters of this publication take in hand various perspectives of learning and leadership. In chapter 14 Simon Walker and Malcolm Ryan discuss differences in ‘learning design’ concepts and identify key issues for practitioners who are moving towards a technology-enhanced practice informed by learning design. The publication returns to the issue of learning networks in chapter 15 where Linda and Tony Devlin outline a theoretical underpinning of what is really going on in such networks, thereby also illuminating the LEARN and PLN networks. In chapter 16 Olga Mrňová presents a case study on effective (self-) evaluating schools that aims to contribute to the debate on the best approach to the introduction of evaluation processes so that the schools themselves primarily would be the first ones to benefit. Examining the gap between what is said and what does happen, in chapter 17 Penny Kershaw elaborates on conditions that need to be fulfilled in order to evidence and guarantee the success of in-service training in the long term.

In chapter 18 Mária Dávid argues the importance of independent learning and reveals conditions and methods to reach understanding of teaching related to learning. Stressing the necessity to make students active, responsible and
reflective, in chapter 19 Simone Fehlmann describes a personal portfolio of competences that stimulate and accompany students’ awareness and learning: the European Language Portfolio. In chapter 20 Margriet Kat presents a working procedure in problem based learning, an approach that promotes the process of active thinking and group problem solving. In chapter 21 Sónia Henriques and José Ricardo Pisa explore information and technology resources that may support traditional methods of learning.

Two chapters focus specifically on values in school. In chapter 22 Marjeta Zabukovec, Damjana Potočnik and Vesna Žagar Gabrovšek report on a school development project that leads to better inclusion of pupils and offers new possibilities of social learning. Pupils can actively participate in discourse and in solving different dilemmas, which also improves self-esteem. In chapter 23 a group of teachers at Hultsbergsskolan and Hultsbergs förskola describe another school project that intends to identify and prevent abusive treatment in advance, and where all age groups of children are involved.

In chapter 24 a multinational constellation of professionals cover the issue of team teaching from a research aspect (András Tarnóc) in combination with solid examples from pre-school (Mateja Štih), primary (Nevenka Lamut) and secondary school (Polona Oblak). This chapter is followed by a paper by Lydeke Zandbergen-Beishuizen who describes the subdivision of a large school into six educational teams, their ample opportunity to develop their own educational visions within the larger framework, and the positive outcomes of this change (chapter 25).

The following three chapters view training for, preparation of and investment in school leaders. In chapter 26 Francia Kinchington discusses that head teachers need public acknowledgement for the job they do and the responsibility they have. Being a head teacher is complex and both physically and emotionally challenging, concluding that preparation and support is necessary as part of a continuum of professional development. In chapter 27 Tony Hayes adds to the picture by underlining the benefits of school-based preparations for headship and by presenting good examples and recommendations for success. Chapter 28 by Lisbet Korp states that the ability to lead learners and learning is connected with the need of knowledge about learning as a human activity; and thus also school leaders are required to learn together.

In chapter 29 Ann Englund, Ingolf Strand, Christina Edwinson and Anna Larsson depict a project for cooperation between secondary and upper secondary schools amongst neighbouring communities. The aim is to create an uninterrupted pedagogic line and create conditions for lifelong learning. In chapter 30 Teemu Valtonen, Olli Hatakka, Esko Kuittinen, Jari Kukkonen and Jorma Enkenberg present the idea of organising a pedagogical call centre as a support service for teachers working with ICT. In chapter 31 Tomaž Murn and Vladislav Rajkovič describe a computer based decision-making model for administration, recruitment and teaching purposes in school.
The final two chapters of the publication address the issue of rhetoric and reality – minding the gap – by two examples of curricular development. In chapter 32 Jaroslav Richter outlines the curriculum changes in the Czech Republic and the expected skills the changes are intending to support. In chapter 33 Pernilla Andersson Varga and Susanne Staf describe some of the changes that the Swedish educational system has gone through during the last fifteen years. By doing so, they reflect on outcomes and to what extent reality became as expected, and how this may concern the future role of the teacher.

Magnus Persson
*The Learning Teacher Network Coordinator*
The European setting
In March 2000, the Lisbon European Council set a new strategic goal for the European Union: to become ‘the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy in the world, capable of sustainable growth with more and better jobs and greater social cohesion’. To achieve this, Europe’s education and training systems need to adapt to the demands of the knowledge society. The Council wanted to establish a European framework defining ‘the new basic skills’ to be provided through lifelong learning. One year later three strategic objectives were identified - quality, access and openness of the education and training systems. These were broken down into 13 associated objectives.

In November 2000, based on the conclusions of the 1996 Year of Lifelong Learning and subsequent experience gained by European and national levels, the European Commission issued a Memorandum on Lifelong Learning. Followed by a European-wide consultation, consensus was reached around the following four broad and mutually supporting objectives: personal fulfilment, active citizenship, social inclusion and employability/adaptability. That lifelong learning promotes a wide range of objectives is reflected in the official definition below:
Whenever we discuss issues related to professional learning communities we need to keep the European dimension and the framework for lifelong learning in mind.

Proper teaching and learning can no longer be performances by solo artists or carried out in closed classrooms. Teachers’ and school leaders’ learning is more complex, deeper, and more prolific in a social setting, where participants can interact, test their ideas, challenge their inferences and interpretations, and process new information with each other. In order to execute the teaching and learning competences for the future there needs to be a setting, which encourages and ensures these to thrive. Therefore, the necessity of collaboration, sharing and collective inquiry as continuous learning by professional interaction in a true learning environment leads to the call for forming professional learning communities in schools and elsewhere.

**Professional learning communities**

In the field of organisation theory is often used the term *learning organisation*. In education however, more and more the term *learning community* is becoming commonplace. It is being used to mean any number of things, such as extending classroom practice into the community or engaging in networks; bringing people from the surrounding community into the school to enhance the curriculum and learning tasks for students; or engaging students, teachers, leaders, and trainers simultaneously in learning - to suggest just a few.

Rosenholtz (1989) brought teachers' workplace factors into the discussion of teaching quality, maintaining that teachers who felt supported in their own ongoing learning and classroom practice were more committed and effective than those who did not receive such confirmation. Support in the forms of teacher networks, cooperation among colleagues, and expanded professional roles increased teacher efficacy in meeting students' needs. Rosenholtz found that teachers with a high sense of their own efficacy were more likely to adopt new classroom behaviours and also more likely to stay in the profession.

McLaughlin and Talbert (1993) confirmed Rosenholtz's findings, suggesting that when teachers had opportunities for collaborative inquiry and the learning related to it, they were able to develop and share a body of wisdom gathered from their experience. Adding to the discussion, Darling-Hammond (1996) cited shared decision making as a factor in curriculum reform and the transformation of teaching roles in some schools. In such schools, structured time is provided for teachers to work together in planning instruction, observing each other's classrooms, and sharing feedback.
Astuto and colleagues (1993) labelled the professional community of learners, in which the teachers in a school and its school leaders continuously seek and share learning and then act on what they learn.

The term professional learning community describes a collegial group of school staff and leaders who are united in their commitment to student learning. According to Hord (1997) they share a vision, work and learn collaboratively, visit and review other classrooms, and participate in decision making.

“Rarely has research given school practitioners such a consistent message and clear sense of direction” (DuFour and Eaker, 1998).

As Morrissey (2000) phrases the condition, a school that operates as a professional learning community engages the entire group of professionals in coming together for learning within a supportive, self-created community. When new ideas are processed in interaction with others, multiple sources of knowledge and expertise expand and test the new concepts as part of the learning experience. The professional learning community provides a setting that is richer and more stimulating.

From factory model to knowledge society

DuFour and Eaker (1998) state that the assumptions that have guided the operation of schools since the late 19th century – and thus the school we have inherited - is largely a creature of the industrial revolution and was in many ways designed to socialise the young for life in a society, dominated by manufacturing industries and manual labour. These assumptions were based on the factory model and its reliance on centralization, standardization, hierarchical top-down management, a rigid sense of time, and accountability based on adherence to the system. That model is no longer valid. It is not well designed to socialise the young in the values and skills – and to assess and record such achievements – yet they will be of crucial importance to the success of knowledge economies.

David Hargreaves (2000) argues that much of the knowledge and skill that students have traditionally acquired during their years of schooling will continue to be required. “At the same time, it will become increasingly clear that the changing patterns of work, as well as domestic and social life, will demand new forms of knowledge and skill which the changing school will be expected to cultivate in students. Just as the industrial age schools mirrored life in factories, schools in knowledge economies will need to become more life emergent workplaces and teachers will need to model the knowledge and skills of effective citizens of such a society. This will be a change of formidable size and scope”.

Researchers both inside and outside of education have arrived at the same conclusions regarding a new model that offers the best hope for stimulating significant improvement in the ability of schools to achieve their objectives. This model requires schools to function as professional learning communities.
Why learning communities?

Hargreaves usually asks school principals this simple question: “How many years of professional experience are there among your teaching staff? Give your answer in centuries and decades.” The school leaders admit to having several centuries of professional experience at the potential disposal of the staff. But when asked the follow-up question “How much of this knowledge is shared by all the teachers?” estimates fall between five and fifteen per cent. Most of the professional knowledge of teachers is acquired through trial and error learning alone in the isolated classroom and so locked into their individual heads.

“In business, firms cannot afford to be so casual about their knowledge, and have created knowledge managers to help employees share and exploit their collective knowledge. School and colleges must learn to do so too. This means recognising knowledge gaps and learning how to reduce them – both then gap between what the staff of a school know and what their school needs to know, and also the gap between what they need to know and their awareness of how to gain access to that knowledge”. (Hargreaves, 2000)

At schools it is essential to manage and develop human resources and give the investment in people the priority it deserves. The complexity of teaching and learning today makes it impossible to remain as a single performing teacher, closed from the surrounding world and the colleagues. More and more important for success, for establishing a front-line learning environment and for reaching objectives are to work collaboratively in team learning, develop shared vision, and
engage in an honest exploration of issues - not only to gain professionally but also to empower and to distribute learning and experience.

Teachers’ and school leaders’ learning is more complex, deeper, and more prolific in a social setting, where participants can interact, test their ideas, challenge their inferences and interpretations, and process new information with each other. The necessity of collaboration and sharing, learning to learn and continuous learning by interaction, transferring new knowledge, and collective inquiry in a true learning environment create a common vision for learning and doing, and leads to the call for forming professional learning communities in schools.

By doing so, there is also a platform to combat alienation, which is a growing problem, and to provide to all professionals and learners a learning and social community that is inclusive and distributed. The essential issue of relationship includes how to be motivated and valued. Educational improvement requires the collective effort of teaching colleagues. Embarking on the journey towards professional ownership within this framework will also launch the process of transformation from normal schools to centres of pedagogy, centres of learning.

Thus, persons at all levels of the educational system concerned about school improvement – policy-makers, trainers and advisors, teacher and school leaders, key parents and local school community members - should find this matter of major importance. And financially, most of learning community activities cost nothing to implement.

**Qualities for building community**

As a bottom line a number of necessary qualities need to be highlighted to guide the design for and the process of building community:

- **Relation**, acknowledging that the key feature of learning is the mutual meeting, creating a relation, and sharing;
- **Safety and trust**, in order for participants to connect and without suspicion be willing to interact with each other;
- **Relaxed atmosphere**, as stress blocks the chemical processes in the brain, thus also blocking learning;
- **Openness**. In an atmosphere of openness, participants can feel free to share their thoughts and feelings without fear of retribution; this also corresponds to the significance of open-mindedness;
- **Respect**. In order to coalesce as a learning community, members need to feel that they are valued and respected as people and professionals;
- **Responsiveness**, where participants must respond respectfully to each other and the facilitator(s) must respond quickly to their participants. The facilitation should welcome concerns and preferences, and when appropriate, share these;
- **Mutuality and collaboration**. The importance of collaboration in consultation and group discussion on achieving learning outcomes hinges on the group’s interdependent ability to work with and respond to each other;
- **Relevance.** Learning outcomes are enhanced by relating the subject matter to the participants’ teaching, courses, scholarship, and life experiences. All participants should be encouraged to seek out and share teaching and other real-life examples to illustrate them;
- **Challenge,** as expectations for the quality of outcomes should be high, engendering a sense of progress and accomplishment;
- **Enjoyment,** as social opportunities must be included to lighten up and bond, and should take place in invigorating environments;
- **Encouragement,** as the growth of self confidence and receiving positive feedback are crucial elements of a high-quality learning environment;
- **Esprit de Corps,** as sharing individual and community outcomes with colleagues generates pride and commitment;
- **Empowerment,** where the participants gain a new view of themselves and a new sense of confidence in their abilities.

**Characteristics of professional learning communities**

The literature on professional learning communities repeatedly gives attention to a limited number of coherent attributes of successful professional learning communities. There are identifiable factors that describe the context of the learning organisations.

The core of a learning community is shared understandings and common values. A learning community exists when a group of people commit themselves to continual learning and to supporting others in continual learning (Collins, 2000): “A learning community stimulates ongoing, collective inquiry into teaching and learning. It involves everyone in highly visible learning experiences. You learn from each other, with each other, and for each other. You share the knowledge that is gained, the excitement and challenge that comes with learning difficult material, and the benefits your learning produces. A strong learning community provides you with the kinds of learning experiences you want to provide for your students. It models for students lifelong learning and the production of useful knowledge. It provides a sense of efficacy and self-confidence for you and your fellow teachers as you face increasing challenges. A learning community improves your professional life and that of your fellow teachers and produces higher student achievement. A learning community legitimizes change and makes it an accepted part of life at your school.”

A learning community is a scheme to develop a professional culture and knowledge base, by researching, sharing and creatively improving educational practice to improve learners’ learning. All learning as well as social and intellectual growth occurs in the meeting between people, where teacher leadership and mutual communication is crucial. The professionals truly believe in intrinsic motivation and do not coerce each other or students. This is a very active culture, a very active culture of learning. Everyone is willing to learn and willing to collaborate, which leads to deprivatised practice. It enhances teacher empowerment.
According to Hord (1997), the requirements necessary for such organisational arrangements include supportive and shared leadership, shared values and vision, collective learning and application of learning, and supportive conditions such as physical conditions and human capacities that support such an operation.

DuFour and Eaker (1998) rephrase the characteristics of professional learning communities as follows:

- What separates a learning community from an ordinary school is its collective and shared commitment to guiding principles that articulate what the people in the school believe and what they seek to create - embedded in the hearts and minds of people throughout the school.
- The engine of improvement, growth, and renewal in a professional learning community is collective inquiry. People in such a community are relentless in questioning the status quo, seeking new methods, testing those methods, and then reflecting on the results. The process of searching for answers is more important than having an answer.
- The basic structure of the professional learning community is a group of collaborative teams that share a common purpose. Building a school's capacity to learn is a collaborative rather than an individual task. People who engage in collaborative team learning are able to learn from one another, thus creating momentum to fuel continued improvement.
- Professional learning communities are action oriented. Members of such organisations turn aspirations into action and visions into reality. They recognize that learning always occurs in a context of taking action, and they believe engagement and experience are the most effective teachers.
- Continuous improvement requires that each member of the organisation is engaged in considering key questions. A commitment to continuous improvement is evident in an environment in which innovation and experimentation are viewed not as tasks to accomplish or projects to complete, but as ways of conducting day-to-day business.
- A professional learning community realises that its efforts must be assessed on the basis of results rather than intentions. The very reason for becoming a learning community is to become more effective in helping all students achieve higher levels of learning.

Fullan (2001) argues that “there is a recent remarkable convergence of theories, knowledge basis, ideas, and strategies that help us confront complex problems that do not have easy answers. There are strong reasons to believe that five components of leadership represent independent but mutual reinforcing forces for positive change.”

The five components referred to are moral purpose, which means acting with the intention of making a positive difference in the lives of employees, customers, and society as a whole; Understanding the change process; The improvement of relationships, which is the single factor common to every successful change initiative; Knowledge creation and sharing, where leaders commit themselves to constantly generating and increasing knowledge inside and outside the
organisation; and Coherence making, which extracts valuable patterns worth retaining.

From research, which to a great extent shows consistent views on the characteristics of professional learning communities, will be concluded four dimensions and vital features that are relevant from the perspective of The Learning Teacher Network.

**Dimension of vision and values**

- Moral purpose
- Shared mission with understanding
- Shared and articulated vision
- Shared and protected values
- Supportive, learning, communicative and challenging leadership
- Strategic awareness

Moral purpose, with Fullan’s definition, is the base of society, so also of communities.

Shared mission, vision and values are fundamental, developed from staff’s unswerving commitment to students’ learning with consistently articulated common values and shared learning. Shared understandings bind communities together and bind members to shared goals and shared work. “Sharing vision is not just agreeing with a good idea; it is a particular mental image of what is important to an individual and to an organisation” (Hord, 1997). Staff are encouraged not only to be involved in the process of developing a shared vision but to use that vision as a guidepost in making decisions about teaching and learning in the school, thus building strategic awareness.

The school change and educational leadership literatures clearly recognize the role and influence of the school leaders on whether change will occur in the school. There is a changing discourse from management to leadership and then on to leadership for learning. The sources of authority for leadership are embedded in shared ideas, not in the power of position. Louis and Kruse (1995) identify the supportive leadership of head teachers as one of the necessary human resources for restructuring staff into school-based professional communities. Morrissey (2000) states “The school change and educational leadership literatures clearly recognise the role and influence of the principals on whether change will occur in the school. It seems clear that transforming a school organisation into a learning community can be done only with the sanction of the leaders and the active nurturing of the entire staff's development as a community.”

A university study made in Karlstad (2003) sums up that the most important task for the teacher is to lead the students’ learning processes, and the hallmark of leadership is to support and challenge the teacher’s learning processes. By this it is understood that the headteacher needs to contribute to a deepened understanding
of the mission as well as create meetings where teachers’ notions of teaching in relation to pupils’ learning are challenged, also around the ideological context of the curriculum and how consequences are to be interpreted. Leadership has to be a sense of responsibility for development but also participation in a collective learning process. For head teachers, this means a change from planning and organising the content of teachers’ workload to leading their learning.

In this context leadership is an equal concern for both teachers and school leaders due to the fact that everyone in different but corresponding sense leads the learning of others. Such leadership has three expressions, described as being democratic and communicative, and itself in the process of continuous learning (the Swedish Ministry of Education, 2001). By the concept of learning leadership is understood the importance of his or her own learning and the full understanding of colleagues’ and the community learning, as an understanding and agreement of the mission. The notion of communicative leadership stands for the vital communication around its collective commitment to guiding principles that articulate what the professionals in the school believe and what they seek to create together, articulated in a common vision. This identifies and makes a learning community unique.

**Dimension of learning**

- Understanding of learning processes
  - Meta-cognitive abilities and skills
  - Integration of formal/informal learning and declarative/procedural knowledge
- Continuous learning within a professional culture and knowledge base
- Creation, transposing and transfer of knowledge
- Collective inquiry
- Reflective practice
- Action orientation

The second dimension focuses on knowledge and learning. The ability to access, select and evaluate knowledge in an information-soaked world is crucial. So is the ability to create, transpose and transfer knowledge. Who but professionals in education are to be guardians of accuracy, when for example CNN claims that the Czech Republic actually would be Switzerland?

In a professional learning community learners ask ‘Why?’ and ‘What practice makes a difference?’, maintaining the focus on the learners, and questions such as ‘What are schools for?’, ‘How do we know that this is true?’, ‘Why did this work out so well this time?’, and ‘What criteria will we use to assess our improvement efforts?’. Asking questions and reflecting on the answers is vital for learning, for continuous improvement and for the creation of new knowledge. Learning is not only about information; it is about problem solving, adapting, adjusting, transferring and transforming, thus creating continuous learning in the lifelong growth from a beginning to a master.
“A learning community exists when a group of people commit themselves to continual learning and to supporting others in this. A learning community stimulates ongoing, collective inquiry into teaching and learning. It involves everyone in highly visible learning experiences”. (Collins, 2000)

Collective inquiry enables team members to develop meta-cognitive abilities and skills, in other words thinking about how to think and learning how to learn. It develops the ability to integrate formal and informal learning, declarative knowledge (or knowing that) and procedural knowledge (know-how). This in turn leads to new experiences and awareness. Gradually, the heightened awareness is assimilated into fundamental shifts in attitudes and beliefs. Ultimately, it is this
ability to examine and modify beliefs that enables team members to view the world differently and make significant changes in the culture of the organisation.

Griffin (cited by Sergiovanni, 1994) refers to collective learning activities as inquiry, and “believes that as principals and teachers inquire together they create community. Inquiry helps them to overcome chasms caused by various specializations of grade level and subject matter. Inquiry forces debate among teachers about what is important. Inquiry promotes understanding and appreciation for the work of others. . . . And inquiry helps principals and teachers create the ties that bond them together as a special group and that bind them to a shared set of ideas. Inquiry, in other words, helps principals and teachers become a community of learners.”

A strong learning community provides you with the kinds of learning experiences you want to provide for your students. It models for students, lifelong learning and the production of useful knowledge.

Collective and continuous learning among staff and application of that learning to solutions that focus on students’ learning is fundamental, and move beyond procedure to strategies for improvement based on high standards, best practices, and that are shared, public and applied. This enhances the ability to cope with ambiguous situations, unpredictable problems and unforeseeable circumstances, and it develops the ability to cope with multiple careers – learning how to ‘re-design’ oneself, choose and fashion the relevant education and training (Hargreaves, 2000). “Participants in such conversations learn to apply new ideas and information to problem solving and therefore are able to create new conditions for students” (Hord, 1997).

One of the hallmarks of the modern science of learning is its emphasis on learning with understanding. Often learners have limited opportunities to understand or make sense of topics because many curricula have emphasised memory rather than understanding. The education of today needs to help learners to sort and handle all this information, to create a meaning and structure, and to be a venue for critical thinking and for face to face and group discussions on how to behave and exist in this new environment.

An emphasis on understanding leads to the focus on the processes of knowing. Human beings come to formal education with a range of prior knowledge, skills, beliefs, and concepts that influence what they notice about the environment and how they organise and interpret it. People construct new knowledge based on their current knowledge. Furthermore, research shows clearly that ‘useable knowledge’ is not the same as a mere list of disconnected facts. Instead, it needs to be connected to and organised around important concepts (Bransford et al, 2000).

Therefore, a learning community is a scheme to develop a professional culture and knowledge base, by researching, identifying, understanding, sharing and creatively improving educational practice and learning processes to improve
learners’ learning – but also one’s own. As a professional it is essential to keep learning at the centre of all activities, and to learn with the learners. ‘Learning is a doing word’ (Harris and Lambert): it only exists through its manifestations and it is profounding interpersonal. The professionals truly believe in intrinsic motivation and do not coerce each other or students.

The present transformation from teaching to learning brings extensive changes in learning processes such as the transition from reactive towards pro-active, from learning of facts towards learning thinking strategies, from regarding learning as a product towards viewing learning as a process, and from individual learning towards collaborative learning. This shift of paradigm can be met only by new and conscious perspectives on process and learning, articulated within professional learning communities. Needless to say, the new role of the teacher encompasses the exigency for collaborative training and continuous professional development.

A professional learning community provides for opportunities for professional and staff reflection, which has to be an integral part of education for today and tomorrow. Through reflective dialogue, which is a key leavening agent in this process, group members gain perspective on who and how they are to each other, and they develop shared understandings of the purposes of and processes for learning. Reflective dialogue is the catalyst for reflective practice - of major importance to self-awareness and collective awareness of personal and shared work. Reflectiveness is the ability to use meta-cognitive strategies.

Professional learning communities are action oriented. Members of professional learning communities are often asked to develop, test, and evaluate theories. They reflect on what happened and why, develop new theories, try new tests, evaluate the results, and so on. This willingness to experiment is accompanied by a tolerance for results that may be contrary to what was anticipated. While traditional organisations tend to brand such experiments as failures and then seek to assign blame, learning organisations consider failed experiments to be an integral part of the learning process--opportunities to learn and then begin again more intelligently (DuFour & Eaker, 1998).

**Dimension of learning relationship**

- Creating a collaborative learning environment
- Collaboration in teams – team learning
- Development of professional competence
- Effective, apt and transparent communication
- Peering and coaching (mentoring)
- Connectedness
- Building strategic capacity and ’learning power’ in order to reach and proclaim agency (ownership)
- Empowerment

Creating a collaborative environment has been called the single most important factor in sustaining the effort to create a learning community. The core element of
all learning activity and social and intellectual growth occurs in the mutual meeting between people, where new knowledge and experience germinate. Collaboration by invitation is ineffective: meaningful collaboration must be embedded into the daily life of the school. All development initiates from the individual’s response to the surrounding world, and the interpersonal communication is critical. “The relationships between individuals are described as caring. Such caring is supported by open communication, made possible by trust” (Fawcett, 1996). The improvement of relationships shows to be “the single factor common to every successful change initiative” (Fullan, 2001).

According to Bransford et al (2000), the quality of the learning environment can be determined by the degree that it is student-centred that pays attention to the students’ knowledge, skills, attitudes and beliefs that they bring to the educational setting; knowledge-centred, which helps students become knowledgeable; community-centred; and assessment-centred, which provides for regular feedback and revision throughout the learning process.

The core element of all learning activity and human growth is the mutual meeting between people, where new knowledge and experience germinate.

Professional learning communities form the ability to work and learn effectively and in teams. It is difficult to overstate the importance of collaborative teams in the improvement process. However, team learning is not the same as team building (DuFour and Eaker, 1998). The latter focuses on creating courteous protocols, improving communication, building stronger relationships, or enhancing the group's ability to perform routine tasks together. Collaborative team learning focuses on organisational renewal and a willingness to work together in continuous improvement processes in the same direction.

DuFour and Eaker (1998) emphasize the fact that it is difficult to overstate the importance of collaborative teams in the improvement process. Fullan (1993) stresses their importance in Change Forces: “The ability to collaborate--on both a large and small scale--is one of the core requisites of post modern society... (I)n short, without collaborative skills and relationships it is not possible to learn and to continue to learn as much as you need in order to be an agent for social improvement.” (pp. 17-18)

Interaction and interpersonal communication are keys to sustaining a major change such as a transformation of a school to a learning community. Practitioners and trainers must have the ability to share personal practice and communicate around aspects of learning. Effective communication helps to reduce uncertainty.

Further, professional skills for peering and coaching are indispensable, not only mentoring of students and learners but to the same extent also colleagues. Review of a teacher's behaviour by colleagues is the norm in the professional learning community (Louis & Kruse, 1995). This practice is not evaluative but is part of the peering or mentoring process, conducted by teachers who visit each other's
classrooms to observe, document, and discuss their observations with the visited peer.

Within a learning community professional key competences are identified, nurtured and developed as crucial ingredients for the collaborative process and the common objectives. The development of competence is interwoven with learning.

Ultimately, the objective is to build learning power: ownership and empowerment. In brief, ownership is the power to influence the own environment, together with the right and ability to define means and objectives for the process, the way ahead and to identify the shared vision. Or - differently expressed - to define the agenda and set the targets. “Adult learners involved in most learning situation will require … to take responsibility for setting objectives for themselves (‘ownership’)” (Rádai, 2003).

Professionals are to be the actual change agents, and ownership is closely related to the success and management of change. The process of learning is an empowerment process and one of gaining access to an orientation for meaningful action and positive change. Empowerment is both a crucial element and a desired outcome of participation in a learning community. In the construction of a transformative learning environment, the participants gain a new view of themselves and a new sense of confidence in their abilities.

**Dimension of sustainability**

- Sustaining a collaborative learning environment
- Transparent, strategic and conceptual framework
- Continuous improvement
- Coherence making
- Monitoring, assessing and making evident understanding, performance, processes and results
- Resilience
- Ensuring and maintaining focus on - and commitment to - the four dimensions

The final dimension of a professional learning community would be the issue of consolidated improvement and sustainability. Researchers both inside and outside of education offer remarkably similar conclusions, that this is the best path to sustained organisational improvement.

According to Fullan (1993), the challenge of sustaining the change effort to transform schools into professional learning communities is the challenge of developing a critical mass of teachers within the school. The keys to developing this "critical mass" of educators within a school are found in the three C’s - communication, collaboration, and culture.

Already in the process of establishing a learning community thoughts should be given about how to sustain it. “Sustainability does not simply mean whether
something can last. It addresses how particular initiatives can be developed without compromising the development of others in the surrounding environment, now and in the future” (Hargreaves and Fink, 2002).

A question that should be asked from the very beginning is: What elements must be firmly in place to motivate and encourage members to continually engage in learning activities and act on what they have learned for the benefit of students? Amongst key expressions that would be related to sustainability are

- sustaining the collaborative learning environment, e.g. by clear structures for teacher interaction and interdependence such as team learning, inquiring, peer coaching and mentoring, and feedback;
- sustaining a transparent, strategic and conceptual framework, based on the power and influence of the individuals to effect the objectives and activities of the learning community,
- sustaining continuous improvement, e.g. by continuous training in group process skills and change management,
- coherence making, e.g. by celebrating positive actions as well as success stories and progress made towards community goals,
- agreed procedures for monitoring, assessing and making evident understanding, performance, processes, and results.
- resilience, by collectively be persistent and keep going when questioned or criticised by others, and seeing failure as an opportunity to learn
- ensuring and maintaining commitment to the described four dimensions.

**Results of Professional Learning Communities in Action**

What difference does it make to education if staffs are communally organised? As reported by Hord (1997), some of the observed results are reduction of teacher isolation, increased commitment to the mission and goals of the school and increased vigour in working to strengthen the mission, shared responsibility for the total development of students and collective responsibility for students’ success, and creation of new knowledge and beliefs about teaching and learners. From the perspective of staff morale, teachers report feeling energized when they have increased opportunities for professional conversations with other teachers.

Furthermore, it has been observed a higher likelihood that teachers will be well informed, professionally renewed, and inspired to inspire students. More satisfaction, higher morale, and lower rates of absenteeism have been the result, as well as powerful learning that defines good teaching and classroom practice and that creates new knowledge and beliefs about teaching and learners. Finally has been noted a commitment to making significant and lasting changes and a higher likelihood of undertaking fundamental systemic change.

For students, observations reveal lower rates of absenteeism, decreased dropout rate, smaller achievement gaps between students from different backgrounds, and greater academic gains in math, science, history, and reading than in traditional schools (Hord, 1997).
Creating Learning Communities
One of the most formidable obstacles a school will face in attempting to function as a professional learning community is the tradition of teacher isolation that has represented the norm in most schools. Hence the very starting point of initiating a process would need to be to establish group ground rules, to identify criteria for success (and thereby also barriers), to ensure transparency and accountability, to schedule activities beginning with the learning, and to develop an action plan.

In the reflection of what has been described, some procedures for developing learning communities should be mentioned (partly quoted from Berlinger-Gustafson, 2004):

- Collaboration is to be embedded into daily work and characterised by being purposeful, structured, facilitated and with accountability.
- Analogous to the previous point: collaborative training embracing an environment conducive to change and rigorous competence building through staff development.
- In order to share responsibility, to relieve the pressure on individuals and to optimize the correct use of teacher competences, the conception of collective work—shared lessons and mentoring student work need to be realised in practice.
- Reflective dialogue is to be a regular and built-in approach and veracity.
- The learning community protects shared values.
- Do not forget to celebrate progress, both individual and collective.
- There needs to be a curricular focus as a collaborative adoption process with commitment to continuous improvement. Moreover, this focus will gain from being research-based and if possible by using data assessment models.
- The role of leadership is crucial, to be formed as shared decision making, focused on results and with an emphasis on learning rather than teaching.

To investigate how your school is like a learning community, Collins (2000) suggests a number of specific activities: using shared planning to develop units, sessions and activities; learning from one another by watching each other teach; collectively studying student work to identify weaknesses and plan new ways to teach to those weaknesses; sharing articles and other professional resources for ideas and insights, and conducting book studies of books on teaching and learning; talking with one another about what and how you teach and the results your teaching produces; providing moral support, comradeship, and encouragement; jointly exploring a problem, including data collection and analysis; conducting action research; attending training together and helping each other implement the content of the training; participating in continual quality improvement activities; using collective decision making to reach decisions that produce collective action; providing support for "help-seeking" as well as "help-giving"; and sharing the responsibility for making and/or collecting materials.

Some common mistakes that might arise at an early stage might be for example neglecting the school culture, failing to develop a powerful and passionate
leadership team, underestimate the power of the team, too much complacency, lack of transparent and apt communication systems, and failing to celebrate and create short term gains (Berlinger-Gustafson, 2004).

Conclusion
One major challenge to education in Europe is how the frequency of professional learning communities in schools might be increased. As Berlinger-Gustafson (2004) argues, “a paradigm shift is needed both by the public and by teachers themselves, about what the role of teacher entails”.

The best way to initiate consideration of these questions is to describe the characteristics of a professional learning community, the conduct and habits of mind of the people who work within it, and its day-to-day functioning. A clear vision of what a learning community looks like and how people operate within it will show steps that must be taken to transform a school into a learning community.

Positive results have been shown to be linked to teachers and head teachers working in active professional learning communities, providing a stimulating venue for professional development in a front-line learning environment. By defining and describing the essence of professional learning communities also a number of professional competences emerge, crucial for enabling a true learning environment and for responding to the challenges of education and training of tomorrow.
In order to narrow down qualities, competences, learning approaches and attached techniques that are essential cornerstones of a conceptual framework of the new role of the teacher, also the discussion about the milieu is central. Therefore, the professional learning community is to be regarded as the crucial surrounding environment that is the prerequisite for successful and sustained school improvement where the teacher of the future can prosper.

Morrissey (2000) concludes as follows:

- A professional learning community is not a thing; rather, it is a way of operating.
- Change requires learning, and learning motivates change.
- When staff work and learn within professional learning communities, continuous improvement becomes an embedded value.
- Professional learning communities exist when all of the strategies are in place and working interdependently.

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Reflections on the Future and the Professional Needs of Teachers

Bill Goddard

Introduction
This paper is intended for an audience of motivated participants clearly interested in the future of learning, the future of teaching, and the future of professional development for learning teachers. It is generally asking how can we define or identify what the future holds and the consequences of that for the professional development of teachers. In addressing this issue I am looking at a number of different but relevant contexts.

In March 2000 European Union leaders committed the EU to become by 2010 ‘the most dynamic and competitive knowledge-based economy in the world capable of sustainable economic growth with more and better jobs and greater social cohesion, and respect for the environment’. This is the foundation upon which my following reflections in this paper are based.

In the immediate future there are a number of challenges which Europe has to face. First it has to meet the combined challenges of low population growth and ageing. Second it has to raise awareness that up to 30% of the working population are estimated in future to be working directly in the production and diffusion of knowledge in the manufacturing, service, financial and creative industries alike. A top priority is to implement the eEurope action plan, which calls for measures to promote e-commerce, e-government, and e-learning. There is also a current
intention to boost by 2010 the accessibility to broadband to at least 50% across the continent. These challenges have implications for the education and training systems of Europe.

In the Kok Report, of November 2004, it is noted that “to equip Europe with the highly educated, creative, and mobile workforce it needs, education and training systems must be improved so that enough young people are graduating with the appropriate skills to obtain jobs in dynamic, high-value and niche sectors. Member states must devise ambitious policies to raise educational levels, notably by halving the number of early school leavers, and to make lifelong learning schemes available to all”.

Clearly teachers need to respond to the changing context in order to prepare young people for the new future and the new future world of work.

Provision for meeting professional learning needs of teachers varies across the world, from state intervention where a clear message is transmitted about what teachers will do – to a situation where teachers identify their needs and set about making provision to deal with them.

In this presentation I will mention a number of factors which are important for us to think about in relation to our future needs, such as the ideas about future schools, what they may look like and what they may be; learning about learning, so that teachers as professionals can actually know more about the business of learning in order to help their pupils; leading and managing learning, both in the classroom and the school.

Clearly there are a number of trends around at any one time nowadays which it is fair to say we should take account of whilst at the same time recognising that they may not be without their critics – such trends as accelerated learning, multiple intelligences, emotional intelligences, learning styles, and a number of others.

What I want to do is to explore some ideas of what the future may hold for our children, in terms of their potential future lives, and as a consequence to try to identify what those potential futures mean in terms of their education and the professional learning needs of the teachers who will help them to shape their personal futures. I want to give you some foundations for further reflection and discussion, within your own contexts. This is not a blueprint – you will all invent your own futures and identify your professional development needs.

What I hope to be able to do is to explore a range of possibilities which will give you plenty to think about within your own contexts. I am aware that throughout Europe we have schools and education systems which have many similarities and yet operate within different social and political contexts. Despite that I still believe that as we come closer together within the European Union, and through conferences and development projects like The Learning Teacher Network, we will have more interests that unite us than divide us.
Within this context I am asking questions about what the future may hold for all of us but particularly for professional educators. How will the world change in the near, medium and long term? What will an educated person need? Where will education take place for young people? How will it be done? Will there be a role for teachers in the future?

The current perception of the future is bound up with ideas about globalisation, the environment, global terrorism and global competitiveness. With oil prices having risen to $50 a barrel recently we are also on the verge of an energy revolution. The current energy economy is on the way out and a new order is about to emerge, a new order which will include developments such as hybrid power systems and hydrogen fuel cells. It is in this world that our pupils are likely to enter the world of work, a world which is rapidly changing in terms of opportunities and jobs. It is now commonplace to talk about lifelong learning, the portfolio society, and the fact that no-one any more will leave school and have one job for life. In this context we might reasonably consider what kind of education could be provided for the adults of tomorrow and in so doing think about the consequences of that for the professional development needs of teachers.

This is of course presupposing that we will continue to have teachers. It also presupposes that we will continue to have schools. Perhaps we should re-label what we do. Maybe we should start to think of teachers as coaches, mentors, or facilitators – perhaps as managers of learning opportunities. Schools, on the other hand, may be organisations offering learning opportunities, in a variety of forms, not wholly requiring attendance at a physical building.

The Future
The future and the professional learning needs of teachers is a recognition of the awareness we all have that as professional educators we need to be constantly vigilant in identifying the pedagogical needs of the business of learning and educating, and to do something about it in terms of our own ongoing development.

It is fairly clear that the future cannot be the same as the past. We already know that knowledge doubles every four years. What has learning been and what have been the needs of teachers? What is learning now understood to be about and what are the consequences for future training and development?

Learning traditionally has taken place in schools, with teams of teachers teaching classes and subjects. It has been an industrial model where timetables are set for groups, bells ring, examinations and tests are taken, but generally the unit of instruction has been the group, typically a year group. This activity has developed with blackboards, whiteboards, chalk and talk. All European countries have had different traditions and developments.

We now have the growing influence of national governments with their national curricula and national testing. Accountability has been a growing phenomenon particularly related to politicians statements about the spending of public money.
In Europe, governments are committed to the Lisbon agenda but there is a need to recognize the real professional development needs of teachers on the ground.

**Drivers of change**

We are living in an era which is complex and professionally demanding for teachers and our society is in the middle of a number of significant social, cultural and economic changes, influenced by the revolution in information and communication technologies. ‘That revolution is one of the central factors in producing the phenomenon of globalisation and the need for informed global perspectives’. (DEST, 2005)

In a global context a number of authors have identified that there is a growing economic importance of information, knowledge, relationships and experience. For most of us involved in The Learning Teacher Network our own upbringing was anchored in the industrial era and there is perhaps a tendency for us to use mechanistic frameworks when we try to understand new aspects of economic importance. We may see resources as finite instead of renewable, choices as either/or, rather than both, and management systems about counting rather than flow channelling, skills and knowledge about degrees and examinations and not adaptability and awareness. (International Futures Forum 1998)

Nowadays the global economy has resulted in a higher-paced business environment and higher expectations (Kjos, 2005). The educational approach during the middle of the 20th century was fine but times have now changed. We know that in the recent past school leavers would have looked forward to one or two jobs or careers in their lifetimes but nowadays we are looking at a school leaver looking forward to 9.6 jobs between the ages of 18 and 40, embracing the possibility of five or six careers.(Kay, 2005). Whereas it used to be fine to memorize and learn a core subject in the 1950’s and 1960’s we already know that the 21st century requires new skills. Karen Bruett, chairwoman of the Partnership for 21st Century Skills and director of Education and Community Initiatives for Dell Computers recently noted that

“successful businesses are looking for employees who can adapt to changing needs, juggle multiple responsibilities and routinely make decisions on their own”. (Bruett, 2005)

She went on to say that “we must infuse 21st-century skills ..... in order to better prepare students for the realities of work and life in the 21st century”.(Bruett, 2005).

In London the Business Futures Network noted that

“The world in 1980 was a very different place: we had no PCs, mobile phones, Sony Walkmans, CDs, satellite TV, or MTV not to mention the Internet as a consumer service and Virtual Reality. These and other technologies – such as pagers, answer-machines and video recorders - have become commonplace, bringing the world to us – a world where we can shift and re-arrange time, cross boundaries and experience other worlds, be more in touch and totally cut off, more interconnected but less private. For young
people, these are the norm: they are the computer generation at ease with the technology, its power and potential.”

(Business Futures Network London, 1997)

They went on to say that:

“We have moved from a world where the old certainties ruled to one where the unthinkable can happen; from static and clear cut boundaries – physical and mental – to fluid and flexible boundaries; a world where the pressures and tensions of change and destruction can be felt on a global, international, national and personal level; a time when achievement is more questioned because of environmental damage; a shift from the constraints of finite physical resources, to one of the infinite potential of renewable knowledge; a recognition of the inter-connectedness of everything on a personal and global level; a change in the mental models for thinking about that world from a mechanical model to an ecological one; a world in which individuals are set to take far more control over their own lives and we as a species have far more control and influence over the shape of the world than we ever had before. Set against these changes is perhaps the most fundamental of all, the shift in values which is what will define how we use our knowledge and influence.”

(Business Futures Network London, 1997)

They further noted that:

“Young people’s behaviour, attitudes and approach to life regularly receive a lot of criticism in the media. In many respects this is nothing new. What is new is that the criticisms are not just across the eternal generation gap which every generation has experienced, but across a divide that is growing and fundamentally challenging the status quo: the values gap. The values gap and the resulting criticism and misunderstandings are the result of the cumulative shift in values and priorities from generation to generation which has been occurring since the early 1950s, but most especially the changes in the latest generation. The older generations, the organisations they have developed and mental models they rely on are anchored in values which have been shaped by a very different world. The challenge of the values gap can be seen in three core areas: the diversity of the individual, the end of absolutes and valuing the intangible which are outlined very briefly below.”

(Business Futures Network London, 1997)

If we look at what has happened over the past 50 years we can see that a number of trends have emerged. Families have changed, both in their composition and their roles. There have been changing patterns of employment, from full-time to part-time work, to portfolio working and time-shifting. Leisure activity has changed in terms of location and activity with activity taking place at home or at a leisure centre and not in the street. We may not be as healthy as we should be since children are bombarded with messages about convenience foods. In the UK obesity is now a problem and we are already aware of research which shows a link between improved academic performance and regular exercise and proper diet.
Children can now be multi-tasking through the prevailing technology. But their parents may be time-shifters who work a whole range of what would previously have been called unsocial hours. Individuals in the home now operate in different time regimes but schools still shut their doors at the end of the school day.

There are fewer certainties in terms of leaving school and finding a job and increasingly in the UK children are driven to and from school, meaning that they do not move with a social group of peers, identifying role models from their friends.

As Smith (2003) points out in relation to the UK

“the spirit of the age differs from 30 and 40 years ago when one in six families owned a car, few owned their own houses, rationing was a near memory and mass production shaped employment. This generation of children experience more autonomy, more choice, more freedoms with fewer responsibilities and yet have more tests and examinations, more physical constraints and more anxiety in their lives.”

For leading future learning and teaching we need to embrace knowledge through whatever media or technology is possible. We also need to emphasise the need for teachers to know about professional qualities inherent in the process of learning – that teachers know about learning processes and about the actions they should take to enable effective learning to take place with all pupils. We also need to build capacity for sustained improvement and this may be helped towards achievement by the recognition of schools as lifelong learning organisations, fostering their teachers as reflective practitioners and researchers, and learners themselves.

Ken Kay, President of the Partnership for 21st Century Skills, says that “students should be taught skills and attributes that will still be useful in the next century”. He also advocates a higher focus on teaching and assessing the skills of critical thinking, on geographical awareness, finance, economic and business awareness and business literacy.

The baseline challenges for schools are characterised by the Australian government’s synopsis which lists:

- The provision of foundation skills to all students in literacy, numeracy and the use of information and communication technologies which are the basis for continued educational success
- To meet greater demands of parental choice and accountability
- To be responsive to changes in the employment market and to the way in which our community generates its wealth
- To develop skills of innovation, creativity and flexibility so students can contribute to Australia’s future entrepreneurial culture and progress
- To engage young people in science and mathematical issues and to recognise the growing importance of scientific issues in our daily lives
- To meet the academic and social needs of Indigenous and other students with markedly differing cultural, social and economic backgrounds.

(DEST, 2005)
**Trends**

The International Futures Forum notes that pressures of instability are evident globally, nationally, regionally, at local community level, and with individuals. At a regional level the intense competition to survive is likely to lead to increasing specialisation, protectionism and the development of niche economies, the rules of which may be developed to suit the local community or region. (International Futures Forum 1998) The high levels of system integration mean that the global economy and the systems within it, financial, communication, health, social security, etc. are increasingly exposed and vulnerable to abuse and misuse at every level. The impacts of actions and threats to systems, whether real or virtual, reach far beyond the immediate location of the event or attack. Individuals, small groups or significant subsets of societies can impose their views and needs with enormous effect, for good or ill. (International Futures Forum 1998)

In learning there seem to be trends away from didactic teaching and towards personalised learning. There are moves towards inclusion and towards education-business partnerships. There is an increasing focus on process learning and towards coaching, mentoring and facilitating.

There is a trend towards transforming teaching and learning through embracing ICT in schools. The trend is towards ICT making a significant contribution to teaching and learning across all subjects and ages, inside and outside of the curriculum, to improve access to learning for pupils with a diverse range of individual needs, including those with SEN and disabilities, as a tool for whole-school improvement, as a means of enabling learning to take place more easily beyond the bounds of the formal school organisation and outside the school day, and to develop ICT capabilities as key skills essential for participation in today’s society and economy. (Pearlman, Ashford, 2004)

Predicting the future is a hazardous business but we can be reasonably confident that a number of present trends will continue and that they should guide our plans for the future. In a business context trends that are particularly important are the increasing rate of technological change, the growing international competition, and the need for new trade relationships.

Douglas Myers (1993) envisaged a school system in which innovation and diversity were seen as important potentially constructive elements. We can all recognise that children have different educational needs, aptitudes and attitudes, and that the world beyond school has different requirements and so we might reasonably expect that different types of school might be developed to take account of this. It is reasonable for us to say that schools are most likely to be effective in promoting learning where strong educational leadership is provided, where teachers are involved in decision making, and where schools set their own high standards and monitor their own performance. With the addition of parental choice schools need to be responsive to parents with the consequence that the monitoring of quality could reasonably be left to the judgement of parents.
A heavily centralised system is always going to be slow to respond to new challenges and will restrict the energy and innovation that is needed. A more open system allows for the testing of different types of schooling and those who believe that they have the best system have the opportunity of proving this through the outcome of parent and student choice.

What we might consider to be important in terms of the curriculum is that it should prepare pupils/students for the world beyond school and that schools should be allowed the freedom to develop their own ways of delivering the curriculum and to develop their own programmes.

Dryden and Vos (1999) in their book ‘The Learning Revolution’ identify a number of major trends that will shape tomorrow’s world. It is useful to list them:

1. the age of instant communication
2. a world without economic borders
3. internet commerce and learning
4. the new service society
5. the new age of leisure
6. the changing shape of work
7. women in leadership
8. your amazing brain rediscovered
9. cultural nationalism
10. the active aging of the population

(Dryden, G., & Vos, J.,1999)

Clearly there are other authors with other lists but Dryden and Vos have been particularly active in the investigation of learning, what it means and how we can interpret this meaning for the future.

In discussing schooling in the future Dryden and Vos say that:

1. schools will be lifelong, year-round community resource centres
2. schools will ask their customers
3. schools will need to guarantee customer satisfaction
4. schools will need to cater to all intelligence traits and learning styles
5. schools will need to use the world’s best teaching techniques
6. schools will invest in their key resource: teachers
7. schools will make everyone a teacher as well as a student
8. schools will change the assessment system
9. schools will need to use tomorrow’s technology, and
10. schools will use the entire community as a resource

(Dryden, G., & Vos, J.,1999)

So we can see that there are already a number of formed and published views about what the future of schools may constitute and some if not all of the factors mentioned above will cause teachers to reflect on their role and practice.
Futures thinking
Over the past 150 years we have organised individuals within an industrial economy. Prosperity meant that that organised people into factories where their broadly based skills were not needed and schools emphasised functional transactional skills that only used a small proportion of an individual’s brain. The present crisis in schools partly relates to the collapse of the old factory system and the recognition that successful workers now have to have more than just basic skills and an amenable attitude, which was largely what was required of their parents and grandparents. (Abbott and Ryan, 1999)

Nowadays, as the Pulitzer Prize Winning author Daniel Yergin observed, ‘companies are being forced to think differently….That means fostering a culture that encourages alertness, responsiveness, and flexibility, and the speeding up of the cycle time of processes and decisions.’ (Yergin, 1999) We now need people who are competent problem-solvers, creative, flexible and personally responsible for their welfare and the welfare of those in their family and neighbourhood.

Our ability to manage systems at a ‘molecular level’ will place greater emphasis on individual choice and responsibility. (International Futures Forum 1998)

So what knowledge and skills do students need for the 21st Century? Foundation competencies require basic skills of reading, writing, speaking, listening, and knowing arithmetic and mathematical concepts. They also require thinking skills of reasoning, making decisions, thinking creatively, solving problems, and knowing how to learn. Finally they require the personal qualities of responsibility, self-esteem, sociability, self-management, integrity, and honesty. (Pearlman, New Orleans, 2004)

In the workplace effective workers are going to need and productively use the following five competencies:
- **Resources** such as identifying, organising, planning, and allocating time, money, materials, and workers;
- **Interpersonal skills** such as negotiating, exercising leadership, working with diversity, teaching others new skills, serving clients and customers, and participating as a team member;
- **Information skills** such as using computers to process information and acquiring and evaluating, organising and maintaining, and interpreting and communicating information;
- **Systems skills** such as understanding systems, monitoring and correcting system performance, and improving and designing systems; and
- **Technology utilisation skills** such as selecting technology, applying technology to a task, and maintaining and troubleshooting technology.

(Pearlman, New Orleans, 2004)

In the UK the new Secretary of State for Education, Ruth Kelly, opening the British Education and Training Technology (BETT) show on the 12th January 2005, said that “computers could ‘open up’ the education system to parents.” She
added that the use of online materials was “crucial to our drive to raise standards”. In addition she said that “technology was now “part of the furniture.”

Dryden and Vos have identified a number of steps needed for a 21st century learning society. They are:

1. the new role of electronic communications
2. learn computers and the internet
3. dramatic improvement needed in parent-education
4. early childhood health-service priorities
5. early childhood development programmes
6. (the realisation that) you can catch up at any stage
7. catering to every individual learning style
8. learning how to learn and learning how to think
9. (thinking about) just what should be taught at school?
10. Just where should we teach?

(Dryden, G., & Vos, J., 1999)

So once again we can see that there are a range of views being expressed about what the future holds for us as educators.

Headteachers influence on learning
One of the key understandings which has come out of research into School Effectiveness and Improvement over recent years has been the importance of good school leadership. Effectively school leaders do not only manage their schools but also have a great responsibility to lead the process of learning. The business of schools is about learning. Consequently headteachers or school leaders bear a heavy responsibility for shaping the future through their leadership of their schools. Headteachers have a responsibility for their own development as leaders of learning as well as fostering and encouraging a climate of learning with their colleagues in the schools. Clearly they have to manage the organisation but should remember that they are managing a learning organisation, one which should enable learning for all within its structure. Part of the headteacher’s role, and an important role, is in securing accountability – of staff in providing appropriate learning opportunities, and for students, in providing them with the best current opportunities. In the UK we believe that strengthening the community of learners, through the leadership of effective headteachers, is an important catalyst in developing a learning ethos which will promote effective learning and the raising of standards and achievement. The community, naturally, involves all those involved in the schools, from pupils or students, teachers, parents, and governors.

Future scenarios
What of future scenarios? We already know that our young people use a variety of media for communication purposes. Texting via mobile phones has taken off among the young and seems to be an increasingly normal choice as a mode of communication with their peers.
We already know that the technology exists for the production of electronic newspapers, which in the relatively short term will provide us with the opportunity to download our newspapers from appropriately situated terminals.

As I noted earlier we are also aware that there is a great speed of change in the multiplication of knowledge. And we are aware of an increasing move towards personalised learning across the continent.

As I have indicated earlier there are a number of trends currently being looked at in the schools and classrooms in order to find improving ways of enabling learning.

One of them is about Learning styles – a recognition that the brain processes information in three ways – visual, learning better through seeing pictures diagrams, moving images and colour auditory, learning through hearing sounds and voices and kinaesthetic, learning through doing, moving and touching

We all use these three learning styles, some of us preferring to learn in one or two of these ways. We already know that our learning preferences or preferred learning styles indicate that:

- 29% prefer to learn by storing images in our brains
- 34% prefer to learn by storing sounds in our brains
- 37% prefer to learn by movement or touch

Multiple Intelligences has also been around now for many years:

According to Howard Gardner we have eight different intelligences – interpersonal, intrapersonal, naturalist, verbal/linguistic, musical/rhythmic, visual/spacial, bodily/kinaesthetic, logical/mathematical and a recognition of these different intelligences has been embraced by many teachers in their classrooms across the world.

Emotional Intelligence is a more recent awareness. It is suggested that emotionally intelligent people have well developed interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences. There is increasing evidence to suggest that emotional intelligence is a much better indicator of success in life and in work than academic intelligence. It is suggested that young people who learn to handle their emotions will do better in school and do better in life after school.

The Accelerated Learning Cycle also has its advocates worldwide. The provision of study support, the developments towards personalised learning, and increased coaching and mentoring activities offer challenges for teachers to develop their professional skills.

The advances neuro-scientists have made in increasing understanding of the human brain hold many important messages for teachers. This information is of enormous practical use in the classroom but it also re-invigorates teachers, renewing enthusiasm and high levels of motivation. (Shaw, S. & Hawes, T.,
Over 80% of what we understand about how the human brain functions has been learnt in the last 20 years. Neuro-scientists are now able to use PET and MRI scanners to watch the biological organ we call the brain at work and to identify how it learns and remembers.

Teachers need to learn more about the human brain and how it functions. This will lead them to learn more about how connections are made within the brain, the potential of the brain, the structure of the brain and its implications for learning. This will lead to further knowledge about how the brain operates and consequently the implications for classroom practice.

Daniel Pink, an American writer, suggests that we are moving on from the Information Age to the Conceptual Age, from the logic and precision of left-brain thinking to the artistry, empathy, and emotion of right-brain thinking. He suggests that we have progressed from a society of farmers, to a society of factory workers, to a society of knowledge workers. Now we are progressing again to a society of creators and empathizers, pattern recognisers, and meaning makers. In the last century machines proved that they could replace human muscle. This century, technologies are already proving that they can outperform human left brains. That leaves opportunities for people doing less routine and more creative work to flourish.

The idea of learning-centred classrooms means shifting some of the focus from teaching to learning, with a focus on learning and learners, giving attention to how the pupils are covering the content rather than the teacher. It also means helping pupils learn about their learning and thus be better prepared for the future.

As Watkins (2003) noted:

“Teachers who run learning-enriched classrooms have made a shift from the dominant model – instruction. They have resolved the tensions of the classroom in a new way, and have often made changes in the:

- balance of power – it has become more shared
- function of content – there is more focus on understanding
- role of the teacher – is more of an orchestrator
- responsibility for learning – is more with the pupils
- purpose and process of evaluation – is more to improve the classroom”


In 1996, amazingly nine years ago, The Futurist, a publication of the World Future Society, published a list of their findings from an enquiry of 55 distinguished experts across a whole range of disciplines into what students of the future will need to know in order to succeed in the 21st century. The results were divided into three sections covering academic skills and abilities, personal and interpersonal skills, and civil skills and abilities. They also looked at what schools and parents could do to help prepare students for the 21st century.
The academic skills and abilities included:
- Writing skills to enable students to communicate effectively
- Comprehensive reading and understanding skills
- Use of math, logic, and reasoning skills; functional and operational literacy; and an understanding of statistics
- Scientific knowledge base, including applied science
- Skill in the use of computer and other technologies
- Effective information accessing and processing skills using technology
- Ability to conduct research and interpret and apply data
- Knowledge of American history and government to function in a democratic society
- An understanding of the history of the world and world affairs
- Knowledge of world geography
- Knowledge of foreign languages

The personal and interpersonal skills included:
- Oral and written communication skills
- Critical thinking, reasoning, and problem-solving skills
- Self-discipline; the ability to act responsibly, apply ethical principles, and set and assess goals
- Adaptability and flexibility
- Critical interpersonal skills, including speaking, listening, and the ability to be part of a team
- Respect for the value of effort, understanding the work ethic and need for individual contributions, and self-discipline
- Being excited about life and setting goals for lifelong learning

The civil skills and abilities included:
- Multicultural understanding, including insights into diversity and the need for an international perspective
- Conflict resolution and negotiation skills
- Understanding and practicing honesty, integrity, and the “golden rule”
- Understanding and respect for those not like oneself – an appreciation of diversity
- Ability to take increased responsibility for one’s own actions
(http://www.spyc.sanpedro.com/yc996.htm)

Fulton (2003) said that
“to help each child prepare for successful employment and productive citizenship in the 21st century, all teachers must deeply know their subject areas, understand how children learn, use modern learning technologies effectively, and work closely with their colleagues to create rich learning environments that produce high-quality learning experiences for every child.”

This embraces learner-centred learning environments, assessment-centred learning environments, knowledge-centred learning environments, and community-centred
learning environments. For teachers they need to create professional learning communities, adopt learning technologies, present content in powerful ways, support just-in-time assessment, as well as personalized spaces and tools, build a community among teachers, as well as opportunities for their growth and continual learning, and provide opportunities for broader replication of successful practices.

**Professional development**

Historically professional development for teachers has been provided through various agencies. Universities and colleges have provided professional development as an addition to their initial teacher training activities and have been typically in the position of providing programmes either decided on by themselves or decided through processes which are heavily dependent on state support. This inevitably compromises what institutions think they ought to be doing as against what their paymasters think that they should be doing. Similarly local education authorities also have provided professional development programmes, typically driven by the funding provided centrally, along with the centrally driven agendas. Professional associations, such as those representing academic subject teachers, also have provided training programmes although typically have been in response to their members expressed needs and in connection with current curriculum or pedagogical developments.

Private consultants are now also much more part of the professional development scene and although they are able to provide enlightenment they are also typically quite expensive in what they charge for their programmes.

*What form could professional development take in the future?*

With increasing emphases on schools as learning organisations, and a recognition that schools already contain a vast range of knowledge and skills about the business of learning and teaching we are already seeing research teams being formed within schools by staff who have particular pedagogical challenges to solve. Typically such research teams are supported by a professional researcher from a University who provides facilitation and guidance on processes. Issues in schools are increasingly addressed by in-school projects. Increasingly schools are providing their own in-house professional development programmes, using their own highly skilled staff. This typically involves colleagues in working and developing as teams of staff who are able to support each other in their own learning and development, not only in terms of subject knowledge and skills but also in terms of the new pedagogy. As indicated earlier the new pedagogy may involve such aspects as the building of student confidence or self-esteem, of learning how to learn, of being aware of the learning technologies which may be used. And of course in the UK we now embrace teachers in the schools as teacher trainers.

*Future schools*

If we continue to have physical structures which we currently recognise as schools it is likely that their design will change to embrace new pedagogies and new technologies, and new ways of working overall. In the UK we have increasing
numbers of para-professionals working in the schools and we have a current thrust on developing cross-service support teams, all interconnected in various ways with ideas of inclusion. We also will need to embrace ever-developing technology in our schools.

The work of experts such as Pearlman, mentioned previously, is focused on precisely what future schools may be and many of the ideas mentioned in this paper are a part of his debates. The outcomes of those debates are particularly concerned with the physical environments within which learning will take place and how the physical act of learning will occur.

At this point I also come back to the importance of leadership of learning. In order to develop the learning process I believe that it is imperative that headteachers lead it. I believe that it is important for teachers to work together in teams and to develop collaborative approaches to learning. This may embrace the management and leadership of para-professionals but it may also offer teachers an opportunity for a renaissance of the teaching role. I believe that the sustaining of effective learning can be done through effective leadership.

**Conclusion**

In a recent European report (euroactive.com) an analysis was provided of what is needed to keep teaching attractive for the 21st Century. The data was collected from teachers and society through opinion polls and proposed five ways to strengthen the attractiveness of the profession. They suggested a diversification of training, improvement of coherence between the initial and in-service training, financial incentives in wages, promotion of mobility and incentives to motivate teachers at the end of their careers to stay in the profession. (Euractive.com)

So what are we looking at in the future? Perhaps schools as we know them will change into 24 hour learning centres, embracing the ideas of lifelong learning in such a way that a learning centre is not just for children.

Teachers will inevitably change their roles. They may still remain teachers but will also develop as facilitators and managers of learning, as mentors and as coaches.

Teachers should also model learning practice by themselves being lifelong learners.

Quality teachers are themselves learners. (DEST, 2005) Hill (1997) noted that ‘one of the eight key factors that explains differences in comparable rates of student achievement was “the extent to which teachers have participated in recent, intensive professional development programmes”. “Other research confirms the value of professional development, where it is identified and implemented within the school context to meet the needs of their teachers and students, and the continuous improvement of professional practice.” (DEST 2005) Central to its effectiveness is:
• The support provided from education systems and schools to embed professional development effectively in conventional work practices
• The extent to which professional development is centred on the curriculum and agreed student learning outcomes, and
• The willingness of teachers to take responsibility for their own professional growth, to reflect upon their practices, trial new approaches and make collaborative decisions about future strategies and priorities. (DEST 2005)

In general, research evidence shows that ongoing investment in teacher professional development is valuable, particularly where teachers are able to work together within their schools to identify goals, define standards and expectations, review and refine teaching practices and prioritise areas for action and improvement.

Teacher education programmes are most effective when they have:
- a common and clear vision of good teaching
- well defined standards of practice and performance
- a rigorous core curriculum which emphasises learning, development, literacy, content pedagogy and assessment
- problem-based training methods
- well supported and extended clinical experience under the close guidance of expert veterans (considered to be 30 or more days)
- strong relationships with good schools
  (Linda Darling-Hammond, ACER Conference 2003)

The challenge for teachers is always how to do even more and even better. In schools this is an important challenge because of the vital economic and social role that schools play.

One aspect which should be considered is about making more of the professional learning needs of teachers. We ought to raise our expectations about every member of staff being engaged in continuous professional development, within the fabric of every school day. We also need to develop our thinking about making much more of all the other adults in schools and in this regard we may consider that teachers professional development needs to progress in the direction of managers of learning. This inevitably will include the management of other adults in the learning situation. Teachers also need to come to terms with the responsibility of strengthening children and family services for the future.

In the UK the teaching workforce runs at about 430,000 people and the support workforce, from school caretakers, midday supervisors, classroom assistants and the learning mentor now runs somewhere around 400,000. (Tabberer, 2005)

In the UK it is now conventional for primary head teachers to invest in classroom support for all of their classroom teachers and we are, surely, fast approaching a time when being a primary teacher will mean having your own Personal Assistant.
In secondary schools, in the UK, the time is quickly coming when every teaching team could have at least one full time, dedicated and skilled support assistant. (Tabberer, 2005) (from What work requires of school, 1991, Secretary’s Commission on Achieving Necessary Skills, US Department of Labor)

Project-based learning is now also becoming increasingly prominent as an approach to learning where the project is the curriculum and the teacher acts as a coach. Consequently future teachers need to develop skills as coaches, as well as mentors, networkers, leaders and managers. Their role is likely to be about managing and leading learning, working with para-professionals who provide learning opportunities under guidance. They will need to develop teamwork skills as well as becoming increasingly skilled in oral communication and presentation. They will need to become increasingly skilled in providing computerised tutorials, providing an on-line curriculum, using e-libraries and digital textbooks. The development and use of learning logs will become increasingly common as will the provision of an on-line curriculum, support databases, and student e-mail. Skills in problem-based learning will be needed.

I began by indicating that I wanted to give various inputs to generate reflection and thought about the future both in terms of the future society, future of education, and the future in terms of the professional development needs of teachers. Our network project is all about the learning needs of the future teacher. Clearly what counts as learning, and what is valued in future, together with what a future teacher may be, will develop along with all the other changes in society. In Europe we are in a developmental phase of our own as an expanding European Union. The opportunities are there for us to work towards and extend the Lisbon expectation which I mentioned at the beginning, of our continent being world leading.

I hope that in this paper I have offered some avenues to pursue in deliberations about the future of education and in particular the future needs of teachers in terms of their professional development.

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Chapter 3: The Teacher of the Future

Ivan Lorenčić

Introduction
We are witnesses of the constant changing of the world and social roles, as the saying goes: Pantha Rei. Yet it is the changes that are (paradoxically) most constant. The dimension and the nature of changes have taken different forms in different historical periods, with technological advances always playing a major role. The changes in the field of education have not been an exception. However, these changes have always occurred at a slower pace due to its conservative and inert nature. In case there are striking discrepancies between the changes in the broader social environment and the one in education, a serious crisis in the latter sphere may take place. Owing to the fact that it is the young who are involved in the process of education, such a critical situation is likely to lead to a serious conflict, which may result in entirely new, in certain cases even parallel systems of education.

Globalisation and information technologies
Both occurrences are interrelated, for it is the emerging of modern information technologies that have paved the way to accessing a myriad of resources available nowadays, thus enabling intercultural relations, vast economic cooperation and raising the awareness of diversities – some say the world has become a global village. Such changes bring about brand new social relations, the emergence of new values and a different mental frame of the young population, whom the older generations can hardly follow at certain moments. The emergence of the internet and along with it the ease to access information introduces a new dimension into the school environment. The experience of obtaining information through the internet and the like media builds a gap between the old way of attaining
knowledge, which is being offered by traditional school systems. With this feeling of accessibility and deceptive easiness of gaining knowledge young people often feel that schools and teachers are no longer needed. The emergence of still new technologies in the future we are not even capable of imagining yet, will further widen this gap. Great challenges and changes await the traditional teacher and the traditional school system. Such new future changes are expected to emerge much faster than they used to in the past. We will need to renounce the old school reforms, which have many times been unsuccessful and too costly. What will have to be incorporated into the school system is constant modification as a part of rapid global changes. This will introduce a new role of the teacher, who will need to, much more than at present, provide for his own professional development in a similar way experts and specialists attend to in their areas of work. The role of the teacher and his professional expertise will become much more significant than it used to be in the past (more on this later on).

**Traditionalism of school systems and the changing world**

Despite the fact that a lot has been done in the areas of introducing new technologies and different methods, school in its essence remains such as it was in the past. What identifies it is the more or less defined curriculum and a conspicuous hierarchical structure and, above all, an all too sluggish adjustment to the changes occurring outside the school environment. Whereas students self-evidently acquire new technologies, many of teachers do not even master the basic informational tools. What is worrying is not the fact that they are not knowledgeable but the fact that they show insufficient interest in acquiring this new knowledge. Of course, one should not think that the use of new technologies is the only thing that matters. Not at all! What matters much more than the acquisition of this know-how is the teacher's wish to acquire it. This is the best way to impart the philosophy of incessant acquiring of knowledge and skills to school children and students: the teacher cannot demand of them to acquire new skills and knowledge if he himself simply does not follow the new forms of skill and knowledge acquisition. This role of the teacher of the future will be presented in detail later on.

It is of the utmost importance for school systems to be susceptible to modifications or else parallel systems will be introduced (especially in the area of non-compulsory education), which will enable a more rapid acquisition of new knowledge and skills. Businesses will simply be compelled to seek such solutions otherwise they will be doomed to regress if not go bankrupt at its final stage. Just to illustrate, it is not a coincidence that secondary-school systems in highly developed Scandinavian countries tend to be extremely flexible and are based on a high level of autonomy, be it the school or the student, and are firmly connected with businesses.

Such school autonomy requires good school management, highly skilled teaching staff, adequate financial means and, above all, high consensus of society about the role of education and training as the key element for the prosperity of a country. Such consensus puts the school and the teacher into a different position, thus increasing their responsibility for their own actions, work and effect. The failure to
do so is likely to lead to completely new solutions in the area of education, where the traditional school systems may give way to new forms of education still not known to us.

**The teacher of the present**
The aforementioned changes strongly affect the position of the teacher of today. Most of the teaching staff seem to be at odds what to undertake. If the student is brought up in the traditional way of acquiring knowledge by the teacher holding on to his traditional role of teaching, the student might not manage well in the world where information is accessible to everyone. The teacher is often not aware of his privilege that is his professional expertise, which enables transparency in his area of work, interdisciplinary thinking and streaming of knowledge. Instead of making the student familiar with the different ways of knowledge acquisition, the nature of his teaching techniques remains stiff and dull. In other words, the student could easily acquire knowledge or get the particular piece of information in a much more absorbing way. This, however, does not mean that the school should become one happy playground! On the contrary, the classic way of knowledge acquisition may become much more sensible and understandable in this more flexible educational environment. It will only be used when absolutely necessary and effective.

Such discrepancies often lead to another extreme: for the sake of being popular, the teacher introduces modern technologies and methods at any cost, thus diminishing the standards of knowledge. A good way to discontinue such practice is permanent education of the teacher: graduate and postgraduate studies, which have become common practice in Finland. A good example is the Finnish school system, where students score top results in reading literacy, which is conclusive evidence that modern technologies and methods and the traditional skills and knowledge can go hand in hand.

The next problem the teacher confronts himself with is violence, deviant behaviour and drug issue. It is frequent practice that too much is expected of the school and the teacher. They alone cannot simply solve the problem, which usually arises from global problems of society. It is evident, however, that many schools and teachers fail to take over the role and the actions they could, which may result in restoring the authoritative way of teaching and the declaratory authority of the teacher.

This will become one of the key issues the future school and the teacher will have to deal with.

**The teacher of the future**
The aforementioned changes and issues present the basic pattern of the teacher's role in the future. One significant factor is undoubtedly the increasing role of the teacher as a **professional**. What is meant by this? Let us take a look at some features:

- a highly professional way of teaching, by which we mean the teacher's excellent skills and knowledge of his subject and the method of teaching. The teacher should never be ignorant of the modern teaching
technologies, which he should incorporate in his teaching. The use of new technologies and methods is a characteristic feature of a professional.

- Autonomous decision making in his area of work: the teacher should make decisions regarding the ways of knowledge acquisition within the set framework of standards. In the interest of the teacher is a curriculum that gives him the opportunity to find his own way to reach these standards.

- The ability to impart social skills and knowledge to the student. This represents one of the priorities of the future teacher. However, the use of new technologies and methods alone is insufficient if we do not take into account some other important factors such as: team work, mutual communication and empathy, all too important for the work of an individual. Because teachers work with students, who are in the fastest growing-up period, they have a great opportunity to acquire the social skills and knowledge mentioned above.

- The increasing role of the teacher in society: the ever rapidly changing world brings about new relations amongst individual social profiles. Efficiency in work depends to a large extent on the pecking order of a single profession. Being at the bottom of it (which is not necessarily connected with low wages) hinders efficient work. The teacher's increasing reputation is important the more so because he is responsible to the student and his parents,

- The increasing role of the teacher-counsellor: the teacher has to direct students to attaining skills and knowledge, encourage them on their way and impart interdisciplinary studying.

The second important aspect of the future teacher is the necessary awareness of constant changes in terms of teaching techniques and methods. By this we don't mean school reforms, but up-dated presentations of new advances and modern technologies. This applies to all spheres of work and the teacher is not exempt from it. Moreover, the teacher's reputation depends on it.

**Conclusion**

In the future a brand new world awaits the teacher. Work will become more dynamic, constant changes will define the methods of his work. The ability to conform to such changes will have a great impact on the teaching profession. Professionalism will be of the utmost importance and the most efficient response and defence against the increasing pressure from the side of parents and students. In this way schools and teachers will clearly define their responsibility, thus avoiding any problems they would not be able or obliged to tackle. The way to encourage students to take an active role in the world by imparting social skills and knowledge will definitely become a characteristic part of the teaching profession in the future, which will require the topmost efficiency and constant training on the part of the teacher.

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A European Reference Framework
As was mentioned already in the first chapter of this book, in March 2000 the Lisbon European Council set a new strategic goal for the European Union to become ‘the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy in the world, capable of sustainable growth with more and better jobs and greater social cohesion’. To achieve this, Europe’s education and training systems need to adapt to the demands of the knowledge society and to the need for an improved level and quality of employment. The Lisbon European Council called upon the Member States, the Council and the Commission to establish a European framework defining ‘the new basic skills’ to be provided through lifelong learning. This framework should cover ICT, technological culture, foreign languages, entrepreneurship and social skills¹.

Parallel to the Council initiative, other international fora were in the process of paying much attention to the issue of basic skills and generic competences, thereby also including substantial work. Some of the initiatives launched by other influential players which deserve special mention are the OECD project ‘Definition and Selection of Competences (DeSeCo)’, the Eurydice survey, and the PISA 2000 international survey.

In 2001, the Stockholm European Council adopted the report ‘The concrete future objectives of education and training systems’ which identified three strategic objectives and thirteen associated objectives. The Barcelona European Council (February 2002) then adopted a detailed work programme for achieving these common goals and objectives by 2010. The detailed work programme extended the list of basic skills as follows: literacy and numeracy (foundation skills), basic competences in mathematics, science and technology, ICT and use of technology, learning to learn, social skills, entrepreneurship and general culture.

The Barcelona Council conclusions also stressed the need for action to improve the mastery of basic skills. In particular, it called for attention to digital literacy and foreign languages. Moreover, it was considered essential to promote the European dimension in education and to integrate it into pupils’ basic skills by 2004.

Following the adoption of the detailed work programme, the Commission has established expert groups to work on one or more of the thirteen objective areas. These groups consist of experts from Member States, EFTA/EEA countries, associated countries and European-level associations. The working group on key competences started its work in 2001. The main objectives of the working group are to identify and define what these new skills are and how these skills could be better integrated into curricula, maintained and learned through life. There is a particular focus on less advantaged groups, those with special needs, school drop-outs and adult learners. (Working group for key competences, 2004)

It was regarded necessary to not only address the question of what the necessary competences for all in the knowledge society would be but also what they would consist of, and the framework should be seen from the perspective of lifelong learning. And, would it be possible to determine a certain level of mastery of a competence as ‘basic’?

Step by step, the European Commission’s working group for key competences has developed a framework of competences to embrace pupils/students/learners in education as a foundation for lifelong learning. Initially (2002) the working group introduced a framework for eight key competences with the corresponding knowledge, skills and attitudes that relate to these domains.

Responding to the Barcelona European Council call for the European dimension in education in 2004, the working group revised the framework to add such elements into appropriate domains of key competences. Additionally, the 2004 Joint Interim Report of the Council and the Commission on the progress of the ‘Education and Training 2010’ work programme called for “applying common European references and principles” that can usefully support national policies. One such reference is suggested for key competences that everyone should be able to acquire and on which any successful outcome of any further learning depends.
**Underlying principles**

According the European Commission’s working group for key competences (2004), the framework is the first European-level attempt to provide a comprehensive and well-balanced list of the key competences that are needed for personal fulfilment, social inclusion and employment in a knowledge society.

The terms ‘competence’ and ‘key competence’ are preferred to ‘basic skills’, which has been considered to be too restrictive as it was generally taken to refer to basic literacy and numeracy and to what is known as ‘survival’ or ‘life’ skills. Instead, ‘competence’ is considered to refer to a combination of skills, knowledge, aptitudes and attitudes, and to include the disposition to learn in addition to know-how. A ‘key competence’ is one crucial for three aspects of life:

- **cultural capital**: key competences must enable people to pursue individual objectives in life, driven by personal interests, aspirations and the desire to continue learning throughout life;

- **social capital**: key competences should allow everybody to participate as an active citizen in society;

- **human capital**: the capacity of each and every person to obtain a decent job in the labour market.

Defining the key competences in broader terms, it has been regarded neither possible nor relevant, in most of the competence domains, to distinguish between the very basic levels of mastery of a competence from more advanced levels of mastery. Therefore, many of the definitions first describe “the essential elements that comprise the competence and that are crucial as the competence develops from a basic level of mastery to a more advanced mastery of the competence.” The definitions thus leave room for judging the appropriate level of mastery of a competence with regard to the contextual factors involved.

**Definition of key competences**

In accordance with the broader approach adopted, the overall definition of ‘key competences’ is

“Key competences represent a transferable, multifunctional package of knowledge, skills and attitudes that all individuals need for personal fulfilment and development, inclusion and employment. These should have been developed by the end of compulsory schooling or training, and should act as a foundation for further learning as part of lifelong learning.”

The definition stresses that key competences should be transferable, and therefore applicable in many situations and contexts, and multifunctional, in that they can be used to achieve several objectives. “Key competences are a prerequisite for adequate personal performance in life, work and subsequent learning”.

It is proposed to apply the framework for key competences across the full range of education and training contexts throughout lifelong learning, as appropriate to national education and training frameworks: general compulsory education, adult
education and training, specific educational provisions for groups at risk of social exclusion, and educational provision for pupils with special educational needs.

**Overview of key competences**
From this overall view and broader approach adopted, eight domains of key competences have been considered necessary for all in the knowledge-based society. Each competence is followed by a definition and the corresponding knowledge, skills and attitudes\(^2\) in each of the eight domains\(^3\):

- **Communication in the mother tongue**
  Communication is the ability to express and interpret thoughts, feelings and facts in both oral and written form (listening, speaking, reading and writing), and to interact linguistically in an appropriate way in the full range of societal and cultural contexts – education and training, work, home and leisure.

- **Communication in a foreign language**
  Communication in foreign languages broadly shares the main skill dimensions of communication in the mother tongue: it is based on the ability to understand, express and interpret thoughts, feelings and facts in both oral and written form (listening, speaking, reading and writing) in an appropriate range of societal contexts – work, home, leisure, education and training – according to one’s wants or needs. Communication in foreign languages also calls for skills such as mediation and intercultural understanding. The degree of proficiency will vary between the four dimensions, between the different languages and according to the individual’s linguistic environment and heritage\(^4\).

- **Mathematical literacy and basic competences in science and technology**
  Mathematical literacy is the ability to use addition, subtraction, multiplication, division and ratios in mental and written computation to solve a range of problems in everyday situations. The emphasis is on process rather than output, on activity rather than knowledge. Scientific literacy refers to the ability and willingness to use the body of knowledge and methodology employed to explain the natural world. Competence in technology is viewed as the understanding and application of that knowledge and methodology in order to modify the natural environment in response to perceived human wants or needs.

- **Digital competence**
  Digital competence involves the confident and critical use of electronic media for work, leisure and communication. These

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\(^2\) Each competence is to be seen as a combination of these three elements.

\(^3\) The descriptions of the corresponding knowledge, skills and attitudes are not published in this article.

\(^4\) This broadly corresponds to the Common European Framework of References for Languages (CEF) developed by the Council of Europe.
competences are related to logical and critical thinking, to high-level information management skills, and to well-developed communication skills. At the most basic level, ICT skills comprise the use of multi-media technology to retrieve, assess, store, produce, present and exchange information, and to communicate and participate in networks via the Internet.

- **Learning-to-learn**
  - ‘Learning-to-learn’ comprises the disposition and ability to organise and regulate one’s own learning, both individually and in groups. It includes the ability to manage one’s time effectively, to solve problems, to acquire, process, evaluate and assimilate new knowledge, and to apply new knowledge and skills in a variety of contexts – at home, at work, in education and in training. In more general terms, learning-to-learn contributes strongly to managing one’s own career path.

- **Interpersonal and civic competences**
  - Interpersonal competences comprise all forms of behaviour that must be mastered in order for an individual to be able to participate in an efficient and constructive way in social life, and to resolve conflict where necessary. Interpersonal skills are necessary for effective interaction on a one-to-one basis or in groups, and are employed in both the public and private domains.

- **Entrepreneurship**
  - Entrepreneurship has an active and a passive component: it comprises both the propensity to induce changes oneself and the ability to welcome, support and adapt to innovation brought by external factors. Entrepreneurship involves taking responsibility for one’s actions, positive or negative, developing a strategic vision, setting objectives and meeting them, and being motivated to succeed.

- **Cultural expression**
  - ‘Cultural expression’ comprises an appreciation of the importance of the creative expression of ideas, experiences and emotions in a range of media, including music, corporal expression, literature and plastic arts.

**Reference**


*A major part of the text in this article is quoted in full from the Progress Report, Annex 2.*
Chapter 5: European reflections

5

The Leadership and Management of Future Teachers: European Reflections

Bill Goddard and Francia Kinchington

Description of the context
At the Learning Teacher Network conference in Prague (May 2005) we held a workshop on the topic of the leadership and management of future teachers. Fifty delegates, from fifteen European countries, attended the workshop and after an introduction to the topic they self-selected themselves into eight groups.

The groups were asked to address the gap between the present and the future in terms of how we as educators saw the learning needs of the future teacher. In order to inform their reflections and discussion, groups were asked to think about:

- The characteristics of a ‘good’ or ‘effective’ teacher and to reflect on whether these characteristics were still the same for the teacher of the future;
- The current ‘drivers’ of education and training of teachers and how these affect the type of teacher that is created. For example whether a transparent ‘Standards for Competency’ exists, as in QTS (Qualified Teacher Status) in England, or national standards (non transparent) as in
Italy, Portugal, the Czech Republic, or Slovenia; or whether, for example, this was about meeting government targets;
• The School’s Vision, and how schools saw their role in educating children;
• The impact of society in the classroom.

The groups reported that the discussions were wide-ranging and that they took place in Spanish and English. They explored political and social environments, poverty, school buildings and pedagogy. Some reported that there was a huge variation in the pathways followed in order to achieve consensus on standards, about what was acceptable, appropriate, essential, or desirable, in the skills and capabilities of a future teacher. Fundamental issues were discussed. These included:
• Can anyone teach?
• Does having transparent standards support the teacher and their role?

The debate that took place was lively and well informed.

**Essential skills and attributes of the teacher of the future – key outcomes**
The discussion generated a rich and varied source of feedback which we have been able to categorize in terms of headings which follow.

*Learning*
The first area for consideration drew responses from the groups which highlighted the following essential aspects which they felt were important in terms of learning:
1. That teachers had to be passionate about learning.
2. That teachers had to engage with current metacognitive skills in terms of being more aware of learning how to learn so that they are able to more fully realise the effective outcomes of learning within themselves and also with their pupils or students.
3. That teachers need to be become more comfortable with taking intellectual and physical risks in their professional activities.
4. That teachers need a high level of cognitive skills as well as a capacity for creativity in their pedagogical activities.
5. That teachers need a good subject knowledge, although this may be more important for secondary phase teachers whereas primary phase teachers need a good subject knowledge across a range of subjects, and perhaps not is as much depth.
6. That teachers need a strong theoretical background in learning and that it is imperative that they keep up-to-date with educational theories and trends. This is not to say that theories and trends have to be automatically embraced and adopted simply because they are contemporary but that teachers should be able to critically analyse current ideas.
7. That teachers of necessity need to self-reflective both in relation to their own personal development and as a classroom practitioner.
Partnerships
Delegates also had some comments to make about partnerships. Principally these related to the need and necessity of teachers engaging with parents in order to foster good learning relationships for their children. It was also seen as important for teachers to have strong networking skills and to be able to work in a range of partnerships in order to foster learning. An example of the kind of partnerships which may be engaged with are in terms of schools psychological services, counselling services, language services, special needs services, social services, and health services. In addition to these it was thought that teachers need to be effective team players, working not only with the kinds of agencies noted above but also within their own schools and classrooms, with teacher colleagues and other para-professionals such as teaching assistants.

Communication and Interpersonal Skills
This was an important area of reflection for the delegates, perhaps realising that schools and teachers are in the business of communication and interpersonal skills. Delegates felt that there was a need for teachers to recognize the importance of public communication in discussing matters associated with the business of teaching and learning. Communication skills were seen as an important skill for a teacher since they were the essential tools in the teacher’s armory for motivating pupils and students in their learning. It was also thought important that teachers should have well developed emotional skills, empathy with learners, and social skills. It was thought that they needed to like people and to be able to communicate with them. Good interpersonal skills were seen as important, particularly in terms of the ability to de-stress situations. This relates somewhat to other comments made which emphasise the need for teachers to be skilled in the management of difficult pupils.

Wellbeing of children
There was some consideration and reflection on the importance of the wellbeing of children. It was thought that there was a need to ensure that children are ‘happy’ in their schooling and that teachers should take care of their wellbeing. Caring for and being able to communicate with children, being aware of their needs (learning and otherwise) and being able to fight against school failure were also thought to be important attributes.

Ability to motivate
Motivation and commitment were felt to be essential characteristics of an effective teacher.

Pedagogy
This was one of two areas which received a lot of attention from delegates. They noted that teachers needed to have many ideas, be able to use a variety of different approaches, have a good understanding of pedagogical methods and of what works in different contexts. There was also an identification of flexibility being important in the sense that it was seen as important that teachers should be able to adapt pedagogy to particular learning situations in order to maximise learning. One of the important aspects of this that should be taken account of, according to
our delegates, is an appreciation of learning styles. There was also a recognition of the increasing need across Europe for teachers to work with children in order to make them responsible for their own learning. An increased awareness of personalised learning is needed by teachers. There needs to be a ‘structured freedom’. It was also thought that teachers needed to have well developed skills in differentiation and planning in order to effectively provide a meaningful learning experience for all pupils. Additionally teachers were thought to need to be able to act as a critical friend to their pupils or students in the teaching and learning process, utilising increasingly the skills of mentorship and coaching. Finally delegates noted that teachers need to make effective use of Information and Communication Technologies.

**Professional Development**

Reflections on the needs of professional development identified a range of issues which ought to be part of a current teachers activity and also should form an agenda for future teachers and their development.

It was felt that it was important that teachers recognize a changing perception of their role. No longer was it apposite that teachers perceived themselves and their role as one in which they are the sole repository and transmitters of knowledge. Changes in society and technology have changed the historical perception and practice. It was felt that teachers should share good practice with other teachers at different levels although it was unclear how that might be effectively carried out. Also, in this context, it was unclear how that might be carried out across the continent of Europe. Delegates also thought that professional development needed structure and support in order for it to be effective and this reflected a view of some that their professional development was neither structured nor supported. Nevertheless there was a call to encourage and develop global collaboration so that teachers, students, and communities learn from each other. As part of the story in making this possible there was a recognition that it is important that teachers become more technologically competent in order to embrace massive change in pedagogical IT capability. Views were also expressed in relation to the need for teachers’ skills in working with students/pupils to be developed in order to enable students and pupils to feel responsible for their own learning. Professional development was also identified in the area of personalised learning in order to make the process less stressful.

**Implications for the future**

The implications for the future are wide ranging. They range from the necessity of initial training of teachers to recognise the kinds of issues raised here within the training process but also for these issues to be addressed in professional development programmes for existing teachers. There is also a need for those colleagues who manage within the teaching profession to themselves be professionally developed to the extent that they know about the issues themselves, are skilled enough in those areas to carry creditability with teachers, and also carry the capability to effectively lead and manage the development and continuance of future teachers. Leadership and management skills were not extensively discussed in this workshop but there was a recognition that they are of crucial importance to
the process of learning and in the process of managing teachers through change within their roles. The leaders and managers themselves also need to recognise the change within their own roles as part of this process.

**Conclusion**

The views expressed in the conference workshop came from the delegates whom themselves not only came from a wide range of countries but also from different cultural and historical traditions within their education systems. The delegates included headteachers, classroom teachers, specialist teachers (in areas such as Special Educational Needs, for example), education advisers of various kinds from local government, teacher trainers, and a representative from the European Commission. The discussions were vigorous and largely consensual across the groups. Each of the groups had a rapporteur who made the concluding presentation of key points. There was a clear and tight focus on the issue of learning and the recognition of the issues which were raised indicated those areas which need both professional development, the raising of professional awareness, and also the management of future teachers in their initial preparation and development.

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Chapter 6: The creative and emotionally intelligent teacher

The Creative and Emotionally Intelligent Teacher – the teacher of the future

Beata Dyrda and Irena Przybylska

Abstract
In the article the authors challenge to present the theoretical and practical outline of creative and emotional competencies of contemporary and future teachers.

The theoretical part of the article considers the latest research studies about creativity and emotional intelligence. The authors pay special attention to show how important these abilities are in the contemporary school. The diagnostic part concentrates on the results of the questionnaire study, based on the sample of 140 teachers of primary and secondary schools, considering the way teachers perceive their competences and gifted pupils.

Key words
Professional competencies, creativity, emotional intelligence, open-minded teachers.
Introduction

“The driving force behind progress in the 21st century will be emotional intelligence and practical and creative intelligence connected with it” (com. Cooper, Sawaf, 2000, p.27).

Various, often staggering changes defy teachers with new and advanced tasks. Cultural and social transformations trigger educational changes as well. Teachers are faced with abundance of problems, which in brief can be divided into two sets:

1. macro problems – quick and sometimes unpredictable changes in educational law, risk of losing a job, low salaries and social status, isolation and lack of social support,
2. micro problems - being burdened with lots of duties, disturbed relation between teachers and pupils, misbehaving pupils, increasing aggression at school.

It seems that the main endeavour of today professionals is to change the perception on these problems in order to treat them not as obstacles but challenges. A lot of teachers in situation of changes and problems feel helpless, alienated and lost. We claim that professional competences, which we will elaborate in the text, could be the way out.

A lot of concepts and visions of being a contemporary teacher appear. But the main focus is that creativity, open-mindedness, communication are indispensable to face social expectations and challenges of the post-industrial world. It seems that never before have teachers had to face so many different duties. The exponential increase in the pace of change makes creative, innovative thinking ever more relevant to the needs of students, teachers, industry and society. Creativity is arguably central to design and technology but unfortunately this is not always apparent in teachers’ attitude or practice.

The wealth of pedeutological theories emphasise the crucial role of creativity, communication and wise stress management. Hence, the above mentioned factors must be treated not only as desirable but also as a necessity and priority in teachers’ education. They imply a modification in the curriculum of teachers’ training.

What do we know about competencies?
Professional degrees are only the starting point on the way towards professional competence.

Teacher and pupil interaction releases “energy”, both positive and negative. Thus teaching implies not only intellectual but mainly emotional work. Our assertion is that in teaching emotions, thoughts and actions must be engaged and bounded. Below we present the diagram which reflects this presumption. We are not alone in our approach as many research and theoretical concepts indicate the necessity to integrate thinking, feeling and doing to enhance achievement and personal...
development. We can mention the latest multiple intelligence concepts which are inclined to percept human abilities and actions as a whole (Gardner, 2002; Sternberg, 1998). Research data show that in professions, based on social interactions and communication, creativity, emotional and interpersonal skills play a special role (Goleman, 1999).

Diagram 1. Areas increasing efficacy in teaching.

According to Day (2004) there is no teaching without passion. He points out that passion; teaching and effects of students learning are connected. Passionate teachers enhance enthusiasm, commitment, hope, understanding, achievements and empathy. Being an enthusiastic teacher is not easy, however in our judgement it might have to do with teachers’ emotional intelligence and creativity.

Teachers should be in a process of continuous professional development in order to provide a quality education for students. Creativity and emotional intelligence are important as teaching is considered to be a highly complex activity, which in addition takes place in ever-changing circumstances. Teachers should be aware that “changes are constant” and therefore should improve their practice.

The term ‘competencies’ is differently defined in literature of the subject. In our article we assume competencies consist of knowledge, abilities, skills and professional experience (Koć-Seniuch, 2000). Competences determine professional activity of teachers and have influence on their practice. Reflection, creativity and cooperation comprise the competent behaviour (Koć-Seniuch, 2000). In many concepts special attention is paid to two cores of competencies:
1. superior - connected with personality, for example interpretation, communication, creativity, emotions, morale and interpersonal skills,

More than ever before researchers draw attention to creativity and emotional intelligence, meant as emotional maturity in relationships between teachers and pupils. Research supports that creative, emotional and intellectual engagement improves pedagogical situations, helping to prepare for evaluating, decision making and responsibility (Kwiatkowska, 2003).

According to Goleman (1997) there are two levels of professional competencies: **threshold competencies** such as knowledge with special skills and **distinctive ones**: motivation, engagement, social and emotional abilities. Respectively the first is basic to find a job, the other helps to maintain it and achieve success. Owing to creative, communicative and emotional skills we work better and feel better. Research data (Goleman, 1997) signify that the way we deal with our and other emotions differentiates the accomplishments. Very good workers recruit among these with high emotional intelligence. **We make an assumption that both creativity and emotional competences significantly influence teachers’ success.**

It can be acknowledged that classroom environment that supports unusual ideas, provides freedom of thought, emotions and actions is conducive to personal achievement. Competent teachers incorporate into classroom not only academic learning but also social-emotional learning. Thus, the teacher contributes to students’ fullest potential and it leads to capturing the balance children needs and abilities. Emotionally intelligent and open-minded teachers are most likely to reach all children and allow them to build their skills and feel the classroom is suited to their needs.

**Why is it worth to be a creative teacher?**
Because of many changes, prescriptive schemes and methods are doomed to failure in modern schools. As they are worthless and unreliable, teachers are obliged to look for new ways of delivering the curriculum. “…The contemporary teachers more often appear to be not only the participants but mainly the creators of cultural and educational environment” (Koć-Seniuch, 2003, p. 95).

Despite extensive research about creativity, there is little agreement on what creativity means, how it is manifested, and how it is developed. On the one hand, this is because of the divergence in people's understanding of creativity. On the other hand, it is because of the way creative behaviours are valued differently in different contexts (Nęcka, 2001). In the theory of creativity two approaches appear: elitist and egalitarian. According to the first, bring creative might only be for the chosen ones, with the highest potential and special achievements. This kind of creativity can be attributed only to tiny group of people (geniuses, prodigy children etc.). The second preference assumes that everyone can be creative. In
addition creative thinking and actions might take place in every area of our life (Popek, 2001).

The point of the text is not to describe the concepts of creativity, but it is useful to define the four aspects of creativity (model of 4 P): process, product, person, press (Nęcka, 2003). The label “creative” is usually reserved for activity or work which satisfies some criteria: perceived “newness”, originality and effectiveness - it must “work”. Quite often creativity is recognized as a divergent thinking. In the text we accept the creativity in its broadest meaning as a creative attitude which encompasses intellectual, social, emotional features and motivation (Popek, 2001).

Creativity becomes an indispensable need and permanent constituent of being a teacher. Thanks to it teachers are able to overcome mental and organizational obstacles, enrich their personalities and relationships. Moreover, the creative teachers fight against routine, deal with problems and are more flexible. Scientific results show that creative person has the ability to accept conflicts, problems and tension which are very common in schools today. Not to mention the capacity to be puzzled (Rhodes, 1987). The teachers’ obligation is to help the children to perform the best of their abilities. Only the creative teacher can achieve it.

Creativity is important for teachers and for their interactions with pupils. At the individual level, creativity is relevant to solving real life problems. In addition the creative teacher helps to build more interactive educational situations along with strengthening creative thinking. With reference to Cropley’s research (1994) we can indicate three aspects of teachers’ behaviours that can influence creativity in the classroom. The first aspect is connected with teacher as a role model - the behaviours can shape the pupils’ behaviours. The next is the classroom atmosphere which is determined by the teacher. A pro-creative atmosphere means no critics, no stiff rules, and no hurry. The creativity flourishes in the atmosphere of acceptance, security, setting up problems and challenges. It necessitates a teacher who is an open-minded, active listener and ready to help. It is connected with the third aspect which refers to the teachers’ efforts that reward and foster pupils' creativity through instructional activities. These three aspects reflect personality, intellect, creativity and working methods.

Unfortunately, educators sometimes teach pupils about creative and eminent people, but ignore teaching that promotes creative thinking in their classrooms (Cropley, 1994; Sternberg, 1999). Teachers’ attitudes, beliefs, and classroom practices are deemed to be of crucial influence in the development of pupils’ creativity (Nęcka, 2001). Hence, only creative teachers add to creativity: precisely diagnose abilities, appreciate creative behaviour and stimulate it. Several researchers in the field of creativity (Gardner, 2002; Sternberg, 1998) discuss how important are behaviours associated with it. Research shows that children growth can be enhanced by thoughtful, sustained and systematic attention to their skills. Nevertheless, school practice proves that teachers don’t always identify creativity properly and as a result they do not provide opportunities to stimulate divergent thinking and behaviour of the pupils. In many Polish, and probably not only, schools traditional methods of teaching prevail (Dyrda, 2000). Teachers tend to
pass knowledge not to create the atmosphere for constructing it. Such methods as “learning by doing”, experiments, problem based learning, brainstorming, drama etc. allow pupils participation in the learning process. Consequently, instead of being taught, students actively take part in a process of achieving knowledge and skills.

What is emotional intelligence?
“Emotional intelligence is a master aptitude, a capacity that profoundly affects all other abilities, either facilitating or interfering with them” (Goleman, 1997, p. 80).

We have been brought up to believe that IQ is the best measure of human potential. In the past 15 years, however, researchers have found that this is not necessarily. Actually emotional intelligence might be more important predictor of success (Goleman, 1997; Salovey, Sluyter, 1999).

In order for human beings to grow, evolve and face the challenges new forms of literacy are required, to deal with different problems and situation. Today the need for “emotional literacy” is ever increasing, and is one of the best investments that we can make for our children and ourselves.

Emotions are an integral part of human nature. Through them we respond to life in many different ways, such as with anger, happiness, fear, love and loneliness. Emotions influence our thoughts and actions, they inspire our needs, they affect our bodies and impact on our relationships (Ekman, Davidson, 1999; Obuchowski, 2004). That is the main reason why taking advantage of and managing them is crucial.

In the early 1990s, Mayer and Salovey introduced the term "emotional intelligence" in the Journal of Personality Assessment (1990). Then in 1995 psychologist Goleman started to popularize this term in his books.

Even though the term has been misused and abused by many authors, Salovey and cooperators attempt to prove it rests on a firm scientific foundation (Salovey, Mayer, 1990; Salovey, Sluyter. 1999).

The term encompasses the following five characteristics and abilities:

1. self-awareness (emotional literacy)- it is the ability to recognize, understand, appropriately express emotions and distinguish between them;
2. managing emotions- handling feelings so they're relevant to the current situation and you react appropriately;
3. self-motivation- "gathering up" your feelings and directing yourself towards a goal, despite self-doubt and impulsiveness ;
4. empathy- recognizing feelings in others and tuning into their verbal and nonverbal cues;
5. handling relationships – managing interpersonal interaction, conflict resolution, and negotiations (Salovey, Mayer, 1990).
Many authors (Constantine, 2001; Bar-On, 1980; Goleman, 1997, Simmons, Simmons, 2001) presume that emotional intelligence is an array of noncognitive abilities and competencies (personal and social components), such as interpersonal skills, stress-tolerance, optimism, assertivity, general mood (happiness) etc. In this context we can compare (Nęcka, 2003; Sternberg, 1998) emotional intelligence with multiple intelligence by Gardner (2002), character or personality (Simmons, Simmons, 2001), even emotional maturity (Ekman, Davidson, 1999). But Salovey and others try to demonstrate that the construct is not personality but a set cognitive abilities (Nęcka, 2003; Salovey, Sluyter, 1999; Sternberg, 1998) hence it deserves to be named intelligence.

Salovey, Sluyter and Mayer intention was to bond feelings, thoughts and action-intellect with emotions and motivation. David Caruso writes, “It is very important to understand that emotional intelligence is not the opposite of intelligence, it is not the triumph of heart over head - it is the unique intersection of both” (Mayer; Salovey; Caruso, 1998).

Emerging researches (Goleman, 1997; Cooper, Sawaf, 2000) suggest that person with high EQ is someone who finds more quickly than others the resolution of problems and social conflicts. Managing emotions enables direction towards goals, especially those involving creativity (Isen, Daubman, Nowicki, 1987; Obuchowski, 2004). Emotional intelligence motivates us to pursue our potential and purposes; it activates our innermost values and aspirations (Salovey, Sluyter, 1999). Therefore over the past several years, EQ has become widely accepted as a symbol of success and fulfilment. However, this notion actually might be one-dimensional and deceptive. Goleman (1997) and Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso (1998) have stated that emotional intelligence probably is not a strong predictor of real-life success. Rather, it provides the basis for competencies. The distinction between emotional intelligence and emotional competences must be made (Goleman, 1997). Having a capacity or skill is not enough to be effective in actions. Emotional competences refer to the personal and social skills that lead to performance in the real world. The emotional competencies are linked to and based on emotional intelligence. A certain level of emotional intelligence is necessary to learn the emotional competencies (Goleman, 1997). For instance, people who are better able to regulate their emotions will find it easier to expand a competency such as initiative or achievement drives. Eventually to predict performance, social and emotional competencies should be measured. No doubt the concept of emotional intelligence must develop to give us more accurate and empirical view of what this construct is.

The researchers offer a conclusion that the coming decade will reveal more research indicating that emotional skills and competencies predict positive performance in every day life: in school, at work and last but not least at home. According to Salovey the real challenge is to show that emotional intelligence matters over-and-above psychological constructs that have been measured for decades like personality and IQ (Salovey, Sluyter, 1999).
Why emotional competences are important for a teacher

As the pace of change increases and the world of work makes ever greater demands on a person’s cognitive, emotional, and physical resources, this particular set of abilities will become increasingly important. It seems that emotional intelligence is a master competence for educators. To face the contemporary world they need to place as much importance on teaching the essential skills following from emotional intelligence as the schools do on more traditional abilities (for example IQ). We claim it becomes possible due to competencies connected with EQ.

Emotional intelligence is the core of valuable professional practice. It is important because the emotions themselves are important. Wherever and whatever you teach you must establish a relationship to get along with pupils and to help pupils get along with you. Emotions can play the role of “fuse” which helps to create positive emotions for example thanks to humor. Emotions sustain self-awareness, self-esteem, you can feel appreciated. Summing up intelligent emotions helps to build satisfying relationships with others.

It must be recognized that an emotionally intelligent teacher is the first step to an emotionally intelligent classroom. Teachers, wisely taking advantage of their emotions, create “emotionally safe” classrooms where more learning can take place. In other words, an EQ environment can be built: to be an emotionally engaging and give opportunities to practice co-operation. Thus it permits pupils to grow as individuals while sustaining a close bonded relationship with one another. An emotionally intelligent teacher enables social-emotional learning, which is by some researchers called “the missing piece” in education (Goleman, 1997). Also such teachers help to evolve “intellectual fluency”. These skills allow students to work with others, learn effectively, and serve essential roles in their families, communities and place of work. They also incorporate into their education a sense of responsibility, caring and concern for the well being of others, as well as themselves (Elias, 2003).

Emotional literacy can support personal growth of the teacher and the pupils. It can prevent burn-out. A teacher who understands the importance of emotions can put a better foundation for happy and integrated lives of the children. We must not forget that parents play the most important role in developing emotional intelligence; none the less the teacher has a capacity to stimulate it in the classroom.

It appears that emotionally intelligent teachers can be more aware of themselves, especially their competences and the interpersonal situation they work in. They can more easily identify emotions hence needs, problems and pupils’ expectations. School success is founded on friendly and challenging atmosphere which can be built upon emotional competences of the teacher. The emotionally intelligent teacher can be recognized as more friendly and sincere.
We assume that emotional intelligence “boosts” teachers’ abilities, skills and effectiveness. To summarise, emotional intelligence:

1. increases effectiveness and teacher’s professional self-esteem,
2. facilitates communication and cooperation,
3. stimulates students’ emotional intelligence,
4. enriches reflection,
5. enhances creativity,
6. stimulates personal and professional growth,
7. increases “immunity” to stress and burn out.

Research design

What teachers know about the characteristics of creative students and what they do to foster students' creativity has been controversial (Bieluga, 2003). Current research shows that teachers have insufficient knowledge about gifted pupils. Given that a competent teacher must develop creativity and emotional intelligence in themselves and their pupils we decided to lead a survey which would enable us to find out how teachers tend to define gifted pupils. Further, our interest was to check what teachers’ competences they consider to be crucial.

The following research questions guided the study:
1) What is the teachers’ perception of gifted pupils?
2) What competences should teachers acquire?
3) Are the teachers aware of the latest intelligencies concepts?

Referring to other research (Bieluga, 2003) and practice observation we assume that unfortunately teachers are not acquainted with psychological knowledge about giftedness and human abilities. Therefore they do not perceive properly children abilities and indispensable teachers’ competences, though we would like to claim otherwise.

We chose a group of 140 working teachers of primary and secondary schools to be our research sample. The teachers were questioned about their perception of gifted pupils and competent teachers. In the survey, the test of unfinished sentences was used. Respondents were to answer the questions:
1). Who is, for you, the gifted pupil? Describe the features in short.
2). Who is for you, the competent teacher?
3). What abilities concepts can you point out?

Having analysed the gathered data, we present the most interesting results considering question 1 below on the scheme.
It seems that although the knowledge about abilities is in progress, the teachers still pay more attention to conventional notions of intelligence: mainly IQ and they consider it to be the main factor of achievements. We found teachers are prone to focus chiefly on students’ academic characteristics as indicators of abilities. In reported results teachers have been found to undervalue creativity and abilities connected with emotional intelligence. Significant is that the majority of responses displayed that creative and emotionally intelligent behaviours tend to be unappealing to teachers thus they presume a gifted child to be mainly intelligent in traditional way. The image of gifted pupil is dominated by such features as: good memory, extensive but theoretical knowledge, hard-working, logical thinking and reasoning. Yet, rarely in the characteristics respondents asserted traits of creativity and emotional wisdom for example imagination, original solutions, invention, wide interests, open-mindedness, empathy, communicative skills, emotional regulation, motivation. These results support our opinion that the views on gifted pupils must if not changed, surely be expanded by creative and emotional aspects.

**Scheme 2.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>A- quick learner</th>
<th>B- have extensive knowledge</th>
<th>C- not troublesome</th>
<th>D- intelligent &amp; logical thinker</th>
<th>E- communicative</th>
<th>F- friendly, cooperative</th>
<th>G- creative, ingenious</th>
<th>H- &quot;rich in words&quot;</th>
<th>I- well-read</th>
<th>J- self-reliant</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>100,0%</td>
<td>100,0%</td>
<td>88,3%</td>
<td>92,0%</td>
<td>52,0%</td>
<td>41,7%</td>
<td>15,6%</td>
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Gathered answers to question 2, shown on scheme 2, reveal that teachers regard the traditionally understood intelligence as the core of teachers’ competences. In this category they mentioned analytical and logical thinking, reasoning, broad knowledge, sensibility. As frequently as intelligence they indicated communicative skills. Such features as ability to easily get in touch, to pass information clearly, to have a large vocabulary, ability to explain and show the problems appeared most often. Further, among special abilities they pointed out musical and artistic aptitude. Less frequently they cited creativity as useful competence. More than a half of questioned teachers (52%) noticed the importance of creativity in being a teacher. The number seems satisfying although, when compared to attention paid to intelligence, it can be noticed that teachers appreciate more logical reasoning than creative thinking. Teachers asserted that being a creative teacher helps them to adapt to changing law and administration conditions. Moreover they paid attention to the abilities to “create” a pro-learning climate, thinking out and incorporating new methods and forms of teaching. The creativity, according to surveyed teachers, helps them in their professional development.

The survey supports the thesis that interpersonal and emotional skills are underestimated. Thinking, reasoning seems to prevail to being fluent in relationships and managing emotions. We can assert that competent teachers, in the opinion of surveyed teachers, is associated more with mental than emotional and social abilities.

Scheme 3.

Similarly, teachers’ knowledge and awareness of contemporary intelligencies concepts is partial and dominated by traditional notions of abilities, what reveals scheme above. Almost all respondents have knowledge about general intelligence theory and special aptitudes. Though, the most contemporary concepts are less identified. The significant result is that although emotional intelligence is very popular nowadays, it was pointed out by less than 10% of working and at the same time learning teachers The question must be raised why they do not know them:
whether they did not have an opportunity to accustom with them or they simply don’t consider them to be important?

It can be asserted that teachers lack understanding of the nature of giftedness. We found teachers tend to focus on students' academic characteristics as indices of giftedness. If we consider giftedness to be multifaceted and be fostered through supportive teachers’ behaviours and teaching practices, surveyed teachers probably support mainly intellectual “side” of their students minds.

**What are our suggestions for teachers’ education?**

Gaining competences is not easy; it demands time, initiative and self-motivation. Professional growth consists of variety of activities in which teachers are engaged for achieving professional competences. Competences seem to depend on individual work experiences, abilities, skills and knowledge. Both professional training and practice contribute to professional development. Only through reflection, real growth and excellence are possible.

In theoretical studies an essential impact is put on training and stimulating different kinds of competencies indispensable for good teachers. It seems that these foundations are only in theory. Fixed criteria display that teachers’ competencies are limited. On one hand surveyed teachers omitted important pupils’ abilities, on the other they didn’t point them out as crucial for being a teacher either. If they do not indicate creativity and emotional abilities what about stimulating it? Competent teachers implement creative, social and emotional learning. Due to it students gain more, and effects are more enduring and pervasive.

Further, competences increase effectiveness and professional self–approval. Lack of them causes that we act less reflectively and flexible. Therefore in teachers’ education we should attach special importance to personality and competences such as creativity and emotional understanding in order to train wise, sensitive, innovative and capable teachers.

Referring to other research teachers in general appear to lack two types of knowledge about creative or wider gifted children (Bieluga, 2003). One is the nature of giftedness, in other words, the features and behaviors a child can display. The other one is about teaching and stimulating gifts. Teachers lack knowledge how children’s abilities can be fostered at school. Our assumption based on research findings is that probably teachers do not enhance all aspects of abilities because most do not understand the nature of giftedness. Therefore, it is not enough to accustom teachers-to-be with knowledge about creativity and emotional intelligence. Our assertion is that training of creative problem solving and nurturing emotional wisdom should be the core curriculum in teachers’ education. Moreover, universities should investigate the area of giftedness to help the development of new teaching and learning strategies useful for challenging and fostering creative, emotionally intelligent and communicative students.
Summary
Granted that life skills must be taught explicitly in every year group the teachers must seize a set of distinctive competences. Certainly a consistent, supportive, creative and communicative teacher greatly aids the social-emotional and academic skills of the students.

Theory has already combined human abilities; it’s high time to put the theory in to practice. It is plausible only thanks to open-minded teachers. **Open-minded in the widest sense: intellect, emotions and motivation must be engaged in the educational process.** These capacities underlie effective educational performance.

To summarise emotional intelligence and creative skills can be the response to complex and different society’s expectations of the teacher of the future. The authors suggest it is necessary to pay special attention to the personality of teaching candidates and develop it, mainly by training (for example stress reduction, emotional, interpersonal competencies, and positive thinking).

It seems that developing creative and emotional competences becomes the major task and challenge in teachers’ education. If the 21\textsuperscript{st} century is the century of competent people, the teachers must be primarily competent, reflective professionals

Diagram 2 reflects the authors’ assumptions presented in the article. In the scheme we tried to present the possible application of the theory about teachers’ competences to educational practice. Moreover we attempted to highlight the link between abilities, competencies and growth.

*Diagram 2. Teachers’ competences and students’ growth.*
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‘Listen to me’, but............. then what? : The challenges of listening and responding to the learner.

The background
There has been much recent research that stresses the importance of listening to children’s views. This research has led to government publications, which promote and give guidance as to how these views should be sought. The recently published Primary Strategy (DfES 2005), The Green Paper: Every Child Matters (DfES 2003) and the United Nations Convention for the Rights of the Child (1989) all stress the need to consult with children when decisions are made about their learning. It is now widely agreed that listening and taking into account children’s views affects not only self-esteem and general well-being but also learning potential and academic success (eg: Jelly, Fuller and Byers (2000), The NASEN (2004) Policy on Pupil Participation). The new Primary Strategy and has put listening to children firmly on the agenda for changes in educational practice in that it recommends listening and responding to pupils, thereby developing pupil participation and making them active participants in their own learning.

Having ascertained that it is beneficial to listen to the views of pupils and involve them in decision making, the question remains as to how this can be done in a practical sense. One method of doing this is to use a ‘Pupil Voice’ questionnaire.

This paper will describe some of the ongoing action research being carried out in schools by the East Sussex Language and Learning Support Service, using a Pupil
Voice questionnaire to facilitate greater participation of pupils in the learning process.

**A brief overview of the development of the questionnaire and initial research**
The questionnaire is called ‘Listen to me’. The development of this questionnaire and its initial trial through individual case studies was described in an article in ‘Towards the Teacher as a Learner’ (2004), the Learning Teacher Network’s first publication. The guiding aim in developing the questionnaire was to find an effective means of eliciting pupils’ perspectives on their attitude to school, their strengths, difficulties and needs and through doing so involve them in the learning process, particularly in the areas of assessment, review and target setting.

The questionnaire is designed to enable quality discussion with a child through open-ended questions linked to a rating scale and is delivered one to one, in a session lasting for 20 to 30 minutes.

For the pupils in the case studies, the questionnaire seemed to be effective in eliciting their attitudes to school and their learning. Use of the questionnaire seemed to have the potential to empower pupils through giving them opportunities to influence both the detailed content of their support and the way that it is delivered. Teachers involved in the initial trialling of the questionnaire found it a useful tool, for example commenting that it ‘helped them to understand how children learn’. The questionnaire enables teachers to reflect on learning and teaching strategies, which can then be developed to meet individual needs. It encourages and teaches children how to be reflective and enables adults to build on the child’s strengths.

**Current research**
A number of schools have been involved in the next phase of the research, which has involved exploring the wider use of the questionnaire and the issues that arise. This research has highlighted the importance of developing skills in administering the questionnaire and of paying attention to the systems and processes within the school, including a consideration of how these inhibit or foster pupil participation. Schools have used ‘Listen to Me’ in a variety of ways, ranging from developing targets for children who have Special Educational Needs, to informing whole school teaching and learning. Detailed below are some of the developments in practice and the issues that have arisen in relation to listening and responding to children.

**The challenges and benefits of encouraging children to talk and of listening to them**
We can easily assume that listening to children is a simple process and yet listening to a child is a challenging and skilled task. Teachers listen to children all the time through their everyday interaction in the classroom, but the use of a structured questionnaire enables the teacher to focus on the child’s personal
experience of his/her learning situation and to offer the child a thoughtful and reflective listening time.

Comments by teachers such as: ‘She said more in that 30 minutes than she had all term’, ‘I felt I understood how he saw his difficulties’, and ‘It gives an insight into how children tick’, show what a useful tool the questionnaire can be in facilitating pupil voice.

Training of adults
Our experience in schools has highlighted the need for training in both listening skills and in how to administer the questionnaire. Training in the use of the questionnaire is essential, as it involves different skills from those normally associated with teaching. It has been important for schools to acknowledge the skills involved and to allow time for adults to develop these skills, rather than assuming that ‘listening’ by adults is something that happens automatically without training.

Training sessions for teachers and teaching assistants have included aspects such as: how to set up the interview with the child, asking open-ended questions, accepting a child’s perspective without judgements and the use of non-directive questioning. We have found that these skills have taken time to develop. One teaching assistant summed up her feelings by saying: ‘It’s more about creating the right listening environment and not saying too much yourself………it takes you a while to get used to….I have to stop myself suggesting the answers for them’

We have found that during the training, adults have often voiced anxieties and concerns about what children might say and whether they will be able to respond appropriately. Sharing these anxieties, talking them through and working out solutions has been important in developing the adults’ skills in listening and being able to respond appropriately. Examples of concerns were: ‘What if a child disclosed?’ ‘Could you make things worse?’ ‘What do you do with all the information they tell you?’ ‘What if they say they hate their teacher?’

It was important to build in time for teaching assistants or teachers to talk over their interviews and any issues that arose with the trainer. Such on-going training was found to be more effective than one-off sessions. We have also found that modelling the use of the questionnaire for the teacher or teaching assistant to a good way of demonstrating and teaching the skills involved.

Who to listen to?
Schools have started to use the questionnaire in several different ways.

Some have used it in working with children who have Special Educational Needs, as part of assessment and planning. ‘Listen to me’ has often helped define a child’s difficulties more clearly. A striking example was in a school where using the questionnaire highlighted a receptive language and processing difficulty for a child whose difficulties had been seen as poor self-esteem and emotional and
social difficulties. In many schools, the questionnaire is used to gain information for Individual Education Plans to inform target setting and support strategies.

Others have found the questionnaire helpful in working with children throughout the school. For example, in one school, the views of children in a whole class were sought with regard to a particular curriculum area that the staff planned to develop. The format of the questionnaire (including the prompts and the rating scale) was used, together with the school’s own questions about the subject area. The questionnaire can also be used in a whole school context to inform teaching and learning policy. In one school, groups of mixed ability children from each class were interviewed by the Head Teacher as a means of informing the teaching and learning (assessment for learning) policy within the school. The questionnaire can also help in the understanding of particular difficulties. For example, in one school, the use of the questionnaire helped clarify that a child who was refusing to work did not have a learning problem but was experiencing social difficulties about football that were affecting his behaviour in class.

**Is there time for listening?**

The time involved in administering the questionnaire often emerged as an issue. Discussions around this were interesting, as they challenged adults to think about whether the time was well spent in terms of facilitating learning. A tension sometimes became clear between the feeling of a need to ‘do work’ and the benefits of children being given opportunities to reflect on their learning and voice their attitudes to school and the curriculum areas. These discussions were important, as they often helped clarify the teachers’ and teaching assistants’ views and beliefs about the processes involved in developing learning capacity. One school had a staff meeting to discuss whether teaching assistants could be released from duties to administer the questionnaire and in doing so, discussed these issues. In another school, the Head Teacher felt that although administering the questionnaire took time, it was invaluable and a good use of time. Subsequently, it was placed as a high priority in the school’s development plan.

The new education policies, thankfully, will make it easier to spend time engaging in these processes, as:

‘…the National Curriculum, OFSTED, league tables have often acted as barriers to the kind of teaching and learning approaches that would have fostered pupil involvement.’ Quicke (2003), P.51

**Empowering children to communicate**

Work in schools has shown the importance of giving all children accessible questions with flexibility, so that individual differences in comprehension and the ability for self-expression can be supported. We have developed the idea of a key focus question with prompts, so that the questioning can be adapted for the individual needs of the child. It is important to be aware of the suitability of questions for different ages and stages of development.

Recognition that some children need picture symbols has been addressed through the development of picture cards for use with the questionnaire, which are used to
facilitate communication. One teacher commented that this worked very effectively for a child with speech, language and communication difficulties: ‘I was amazed at how much more she could communicate when using the picture cards.’ These cards are also appropriate for use with young children, who will need the questionnaire to be greatly simplified and made accessible.

One of the benefits highlighted by schools is how using the questionnaire in itself promotes communication skills and particularly the capacity for reflective thinking.

However, children will only be empowered and given a real ‘voice’ if adult listening is closely tied to responding. How and when to respond highlights still more challenges.

**The challenges and the benefits of responding**

**Respecting the child’s point of view and following it up**

‘I’ve done lots of things like this before and nothing ever happens afterwards.’

This comment, made by a boy after doing the questionnaire, highlights several issues. The listening adults have a responsibility to respond when a child makes an assessment of their own needs. There is also the need to make the child aware of the response – often adults act on what the child says, but he/she is unaware of this. There is also the hugely negative effect of not responding at all which just reinforces a negative view of the child’s difficulties, both for himself and those who work with him.

Quicke (2003) stresses that the aim of participation is for the child to be fully included. He also points out the negative effects of a non-inclusive environment:

“in encouraging pupils to assess their own needs and difficulties we need to be mindful of inclusionary values. Understanding their own needs could only be inclusive if it helped them to recognise the nature of the learning process and the barriers to their learning in the school environment, and this led to changes which broke down those barriers and facilitated their learning.” (P. 51)

He goes on to point out that just focussing on what the child has found difficult, without responding by changing processes and teaching strategies, can foster a deficit view of the child. He argues that learning needs to be interactive. One of the features of this is that learning successes and failures are shared and therefore both the child and teacher are required to be active and interactive and to try to adapt to the child’s learning needs.
Those administering the questionnaire have a responsibility to the child to explain and discuss what future action will be taken and to ensure that this is carried out as agreed. This highlights the need for systems to be in place, so an appropriate response can be made and the process demonstrated concretely to the child. The teacher or teaching assistant must also feel that there will be concrete outcome. Procedures must allow them to share and respond to the information they have gained.

So what might a suitable response be? It may include discussing what the child has said, collaboratively developing actions or strategies and letting the child know that they are being implemented. It is important to help the child to keep an awareness of actions or targets by making them comprehensible, concrete and accessible. If the questionnaire is being used as part of another process, such as the review of individual targets, then the response can be built into future planning.

In our work in schools, we have found that the best model for using the questionnaire is to begin with just a small number of pupils. The issues that arise can then be examined in relation to the systems that are already in place and the processes reviewed before developing the more extensive use of the questionnaire. Case studies have shown that change and development is a feature of the successful listening process within the school.

In one school, where the Head administered the questionnaire, the procedure developed where she and the child would meet with the Class Teacher to discuss what the child had said, set any targets or put in place any strategies for the pupil or teacher to use.

Another school decided to alter the sequence of review meetings of Individual Education Plans and to add a meeting for the child to give his view. Another meeting was then held specifically for the child to receive feedback and put decisions into pupil-friendly targets. A further development of this was a project with another school on developing a pupil-friendly IEP format.

One secondary school felt that the follow-up from what the child said was so important that they decided to allocate a teaching assistant specifically to monitor the development of the agreed targets.

The importance of whole school ethos
It is important to remember that everything the child tells you is information – this is useful not just for understanding how the child feels, but also for informing how things can be changed to move learning forward within the school:

‘Everything the child says is positive...what they are giving is information that can help learning.’ (Primary School Head Teacher)

For the use of the questionnaire to be effective, everyone in the school needs to feel secure about sharing information in order to facilitate teaching and learning. This includes both pupils and teachers. Many schools have found that using the
The questionnaire has helped to develop a positive ethos when the sharing of information is seen as non-threatening. Use of the questionnaire throughout the school in different contexts (for example, with the School Council) also helps to develop a positive ethos, where every pupil knows that their contribution is valued.

There may be effects on the ethos of the school that may not have been anticipated before carrying out the questionnaire. Children may highlight issues that teachers had been unaware of previously and often these issues can be easily addressed.

**The effect on teaching and learning**

We have already explained that listening and responding to children enhances teaching and learning. How does this happen?

When children are involved in the target setting process, they begin to develop reflective thinking and an understanding in how they learn. Skilled use of open questions can help children to identify which teaching and learning methods work best for them. This promotes self-determination and independence. It is also very motivating, because knowing what their targets are and ‘owning’ them promotes confidence when they are achieved. For example, in one school a child had identified that she found writing difficult. Further exploration of this resulted in the child identifying for herself that she needed to use visual support materials when writing.

Listening to children can also provide the school with information about curriculum areas that may need development. One school that used the questionnaire with several cohorts of children found that, in general, they lacked confidence in Numeracy. This was further explored and Numeracy placed as a focus on the School Development Plan. Equally, children’s views can also reveal what a school is doing well, both educationally and pastorally. Hence, the placing of Pupil Voice at the centre of the school agenda can move teaching and learning forward.

**Conclusion and the way forward**

A number of factors were highlighted as significant in enabling participation. These include planning, training of staff and the setting up of systems that enable a response to be made. Children need to be included in any decisions that are made following their participation in the questionnaire.

The piloting of the questionnaire in schools demonstrated that listening and responding to children requires flexibility and commitment. Considerable time is required for listening and responding to be effective and meaningful. The pressures of the curriculum mean that it can be difficult to find the time and the personnel to listen to children, but the benefits of doing so are great. These benefits have now been recognised, nationally, through the Primary Strategy, and locally through the response of the schools that have used the questionnaire. It seems to us that listening to children is an integral part of the teaching and learning process. To ensure that children receive the best possible education,
schools must address the issue of whether they really are ‘listening and responding to the learner.’

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The Teacher as a Social Educator

Identifying the Continuing Professional Development (CPD) needs of the teacher of the future

Francia Kinchington and Cristovalina Afonso

It is acknowledged that the future teacher will need to respond to technological developments, legislative changes and developments in the curriculum and pedagogy, and that these skills knowledge and will be acquired through initial training and postgraduate professional development. This chapter, however, will explore a different facet of the teacher’s role, namely the teacher as a social educator. It will explore current trends and developments in society that impact on the classroom and students’ learning and achievement and use these to reflect on the future Continuing Professional Development (CPD) needs of teachers.

Central to our discussions has been the need to create an inclusive school. Though this is commended as good practice, it is much more difficult to achieve in reality. The will and enthusiasm are present, but for many teachers the specific skills and knowledge to bring this school about are missing. Teachers acknowledge that it is impossible to keep society and the outside world away from what happens in the classroom. They acknowledge that some children are alienated from society, and are locked into traps of deprivation and poverty. School is a microcosm of society and children’s experiences of life outside school, within the family, their community and in society at large impact directly on their achievement, identity and self esteem in the classroom.
Many teachers will view themselves as curriculum leaders, teachers of mathematics, language or science, they prefer not to see themselves as ‘social workers’, recognising they do not have the specialist training, time or interest to engage with the complexity of children’s needs and lives. However, there is a cost. Where these problems and needs are not addressed by the school, they serve to act as barriers to children’s learning and achievement and impact directly on their future aspirations and opportunities and the cost is met by society. The aim is to create effective and improved schools in which all children achieve their potential. An inclusive school is one which works for all.

As educators, do we sit back and claim that we can do nothing about what is currently happening in society, or do we work in a proactive way with the children within our schools to begin to shape the next generation and stop the waste of human potential? If this scenario is one which looks like a long term trend, then what should we be doing to educate the future teacher to give them the skills and confidence to work effectively with tomorrow’s children? What are the CPD needs of the future teacher? Do teachers need specialist training in educational psychology and sociology or does there need to be a radical paradigm shift which re-examines the purpose and nature of school?

The following sections explore the roots of underachievement and highlight key issues in relation to the UK (England) and more widely in Europe. Although the UK forms the basis of this paper, it is clear from discussions with European colleagues that the issues and themes that are presented here have resonance with other countries. These extracts only begin to give an indication of the situation that teachers in many urban and rural schools deal with on a day to day basis.

**Exploring the Context: The Roots of Underachievement**

The roots of underachievement are presented in four sections, indicating how key issues and experience are mirrored across society, the family, the child and in school. Who is ultimately responsible for the child’s underachievement, is it any one sector’s, or do we have shared responsibility? Arising from this, is it important for the educator to have knowledge and training in these social and psychological issues? As an extension of this is, are there specific communication skills, interpersonal skills and reflective skills that would be an advantage to the educator when interacting with these children and their families?

**Roots of Underachievement: Society**

- Disaffection of some groups and individuals
- Low expectations of some ethnic and class groups
- High levels of inner city deprivation
- Unemployment
- Disability
- Special Educational Need
- Mental illness
- Racism
- Sexism
• Class differences
• Negative educational experience of some groups
• Disadvantaged start to life
• Crime culture

Roots of Underachievement: Home

• Parental socio-economic status
• Parental attitude to education / Parental level of education
• Class
• Poor housing
• Family in bed and breakfast or temporary accommodation
• Refugee status
• Dysfunctional family
• Family separation
• Parental mental illness
• Parental long term illness, or illness of siblings
• Parental involvement in crime, alcohol or drugs
• Parental care for child - physical and emotional

Roots of Underachievement: Child or young person

• Child's ability and achievement
• Whether they are motivated to learn and feel part of the school community
• Whether they feel alienated, disaffected and feel discriminated against, because of race, sex or ability
• Having English/Portuguese/Dutch/Swedish as a second language
• Having special educational needs
• Undiagnosed hearing or sight problems
• Poor health
• Low self esteem, stress, anxiety or depression
• Parental pressure
• Truancy or poor school attendance
• Member of a delinquent peer group
• Involvement in drugs, theft
• Child in care

Roots of Underachievement: School

• Ethos
• Quality and resourcing of teaching and learning
• The appropriateness and relevance of the curriculum
• Personal, social health education and quality of student support
• Exclusion from school of some groups
• Relationship between staff and students, and between students
• Role models
• High expectations of all pupils
• Profile of the school intake – ability, language proficiency, SEN
• Level of poverty and unemployment in the school’s locality
• Equality of opportunity reflected in policy and practice
• Bullying
• Staff stability, turnover and staff stress
• The quality of leadership by the Headteacher

The experience of adolescents in the UK
Today's teenagers live in a demanding, fast changing world, bombarded by media images that raise expectations of wealth, body shape, relationships and the future. High speed global communication underpins television, the Internet and music, serving to bring individuals into groups which are mutually exclusive and offer no access to adults. Some young people find that they live parallel lives; one that connects them to other young people of their own age and which reflects the wider culture within which they live, and another that connects them to their parents and families, reflecting the culture and ethnicity to which they belong. Some families feel they are losing their children to the prevailing culture and in so doing losing their essential national or class identity. The 2001 Census has shown that nearly one in eight pupils comes from a minority ethnic background, and that by 2010, the proportion is expected to be one in five (DfES 2003).
However, even within a collective whether tightly formed or amorphous, individual children live lives defined by their home circumstance, their relationships, their school experience, their health and their access to economic wealth and employment prospects. This group of approximately 7.2 million 10 to 19 year olds reflect the society in which they live and many would claim that whilst they themselves and their identities are not defined by money, their present and future lives and aspirations are inevitably determined by it.
Deprivation and poverty whether emotional, physical or economic serve to shape the adult they will become. A poor educational experience resulting in poor literacy and numeracy skills, low self esteem and which results in disaffection, disenfranchises the adolescents from mainstream society. This forces them into alternative economies which may involve crime or places them at personal physical or emotional risk.
This chapter will examine the aspects which help define adolescents’ lives and explore urban issues such as health, education and social exclusion.

Family Life
Family life in 1990s Britain has been characterised by change, diversity and uncertainty. Trends over the past 30 years show a decrease in the stability of marriage, and an increase in partnerships and parenthood outside marriage. The number of couple families with dependent children under the age of 16 has decreased from 92% to 79% during the period 1971 to 1996, with a rise of families being headed by a lone parent from 8% to 21%. National statistics (1999) show ethnic variation in the proportions of households headed by couple families.
compared with those headed by a lone parent. Amongst families of Black origin there is a higher than average number of households headed by a lone parent, whilst among families of Indian, Pakistani or Bangladeshi origin there is a higher than average proportion of couple families. (Coleman, 1999).

Changes are due in part to increasing divorce rates and the tendency for children to be born outside of marriage, representing major social change. The most pronounced changes have taken place in the under 20s. In 1961, 20% of the births to the under 20s were outside of marriage, contrasting sharply with 88% in 1996.

Another aspect of family diversity is the increase in the number of children and young people growing up in stepfamilies. (Coleman, 1999).

Ferri and Smith (1996) in their study ‘Parenting in the 1990s’, show that only one household in four represents the ‘traditional’ nuclear family comprising a married couple and their dependent children. The dual earner household has become the norm for British families, with families where the mother worked part time being twice as common as where both parents worked full time. These tended to be characterised by relatively high qualifications, high status occupations and smaller families. At the other end of the spectrum were parents in families with no earner, characterised by a lack of educational qualifications, previous employment in low status occupations, relatively early parenthood, and economic disadvantage. It was from this low income group that the mother as the sole earner was also to be found. (Ferri and Smith 1996). Paxson and Waldfogel (2002) report that there is an increase in the numbers of families with absent fathers and working mothers, an increase in the numbers of two non working parents, and an increase in the numbers of families with incomes less than 75% of the national poverty line.

The experience of adolescents ‘In Care’

The population of children and young people in care in England has dropped from 89,000 in 1982, to 51,000 in 1997. They form a significant minority because of their vulnerability. By far the largest number (42%), are in the 10-15 age group with 16-17 forming 17% of the population. Younger children are more likely to be placed in foster care compared to older teenagers. Over two thirds of 10-15 year olds (65%) are placed in foster care compared to 52% of 16-17 year olds.

The 1996 report published by the Department of Health, ‘Focus on Teenagers’, observed that for the majority of teenagers 'looked after', change was endemic in their lives either because their behaviour led to families giving up on them or alternative placements breaking down. When faced with moves in accommodation many young people felt helpless and powerless. They believed few social workers took account of their wishes when deciding where they should live and likened the experience to being a parcel passed from one hand to another. For those wishing to take control of their lives the only apparent option was to adopt extreme measures, such as running away, attempting suicide or giving vent to anti-social outbursts’.

In relation to health, the report went on to say that, ‘In addition to injuries and illnesses, 71% of adolescents receiving social work services admitted to smoking, 65% to drinking, over a third to taking illicit drugs and 13% to abusing solvents, occasionally or frequently.’ (1996:6), and reported
that this was seen to reflect twice the numbers for young people of a similar age in the general population.

Sex and sex education were also identified as areas of concern. The report noted that, 'One in four teenagers, in the teenage services research, claimed not to have been informed about the risks of unsafe sex and social workers felt that most young people needed help to prepare for close personal relationships' (1996:7).

Success appeared to be dependent on the quality of relationship between the young person and the care worker. The report concluded that within 18-24 months of leaving care a third of young people had become parents and that over half of pregnancies were unplanned. To practice safe sex, required not only practical information, but that psychological factors such as a positive self identity, assertiveness skills and communication between partners need to be in place.

Health

The physical health of adolescents is affected by the degree of risk taking behaviours engaged in, with smoking, drinking and use of illegal drugs being major areas of concern. Smoking statistics (1996) show that girls are more likely to be regular smokers than boys (15% compared to 11%), and that this is part of a rising trend over the past ten years.

The gender difference for drinking is the opposite to that for smoking, with more boys than girls in the 16-19 age group drinking alcohol at least once a week, but again a rising trend is shown in the number of units consumed.

There is general agreement that by the age of 14 or 15 approximately a third of young people will have tried cannabis and that by the age of 18 or 19, over half will have used cannabis and at least one in four will have taken ecstasy (Parker et al., 1998 cited in Coleman (1999). Even where individuals have not taken drugs, the drugs culture still has an impact, with on average 70% of 14-15 year old boys and girls knowing someone who is using drugs (Balding 1998), cited in Coleman (1999).

Hope (2004) at the European Alcohol Policy conference in Warsaw reported that ‘the critical age for accelerated alcohol use and abuse is between 13 and 15 years of age in many countries. At 16 years, about one in four boys in 9 EU countries are regular binge drinkers. For girls, one in five are regular binge drinkers in 6 EU Member States at the age of 16. She added, ‘The consequence of alcohol use by teenagers, included a range of problems affecting their performance in school, being in accidents, difficulties in relationships with others, unwanted sexual experiences, fights and trouble with the police’.

The numbers of 16-19 year olds reporting having had intercourse before the age of 16 has risen steadily over the past thirty years to 28% of boys and 19% of girls in 1991. In terms of the incidents of pregnancy rates of 13-15 age group, 8,800 conceptions, took place in 1996 in England and Wales, and 8,400 in 1997. Health Service data shows that whilst there are fluctuations, the pattern and trends for England, Scotland and Wales have not deviated form a narrow range over the past 30 years. The data does show regional trends between areas of greater deprivation and those that are more affluent. 1996 data for 15-19 year olds, reported by the Brook Advisory Centre (1999), showed that the Lambeth, Southwark and Lewisham Health Authority, an urban inner London area in south-east London,
had a conception rate of 104 per thousand, compared to that of an outer London area (Kingston and Richmond), where the rate was 34 per thousand.

The number of conceptions leading to pregnancy among 13-15 year olds has decreased over the past thirty years, following the introduction of the 1969 Abortion Act. In the age group of 15-19 year olds, maternities have fallen in England and Wales, whilst abortions have increased. Within the age group of 13-15, over half of the conceptions are likely to be terminated, whereas in the 15-19 age group, only one third are likely to be terminated, with 63% preferring to carry to maternity. 1996 data shows a marked difference in the numbers of births per thousand for young women aged 15-19 across a range of European countries: The Netherlands, France, Italy, Denmark, Sweden and Spain all have approximately 10 births per thousand of this age group, compared to the UK which has over 30 births per thousand.

Although the majority of young people have received some information on sex education, it forming a key element of the Personal Social Health Curriculum, only half have had any information or engaged in discussions about relationships or on sexually transmitted diseases. This is of particular concern since records show a dramatic increase in the incidence of chlamydial infections among 16-19 year old females in England, from just over 4,000 in 1992 to well over 7,000 in 1997.

HIV continues to rise in Europe, making young people engaging in combinations of risk type behaviours, particularly vulnerable. AVERT reported that in 2003, of the 18,000 newly diagnosed, 29% of those infected were under the age of 30. Heterosexual contact has been the most frequent mode of transmission in West Europe since 1999, responsible for the largest proportion of diagnosed HIV infections in every country with the exception of Germany and The Netherlands, where male homosexuals form the largest transmission group, and Portugal which has a severe epidemic among injecting drug users.

**Education**

A key change over the last 20 years has been the increased numbers staying on in education or training post-16, with substantial shifts taking place over the past 10 years for 17 and 18 year old young men and women. This has been a consequence of government policy and targets aimed at raising the numbers of young people staying on and taking part in post-16 education. The percentage of 17 year old males has risen from 58% to 78%, the percentage of 17 year old females has risen from 54% to 79%, with the percentages of 18 year old males: rising from 40% to 60% and 18 year old females rising from 34% to 59%.

Since 1991, girls have shown better performance at both GCSE and at Advanced level examinations, than boys. In addition to this gender difference, there is disparity between pupils and students of different ethnic groups, (HMI and EOC 1996).

According to the DfES (2003) consultation document ‘Raising the Achievement of Minority Ethnic Pupils’, Afro Caribbean boys were amongst the most vulnerable to low academic attainment.

They added that,
“The lower achievement rates of the African Caribbean pupils and particularly those of Caribbean heritage have been well documented over the years. The evidence from the LEAs and from the Ofsted review of research (Gillborn and Gipps, 1996 and Gillborn and Mirza, 2000) shows that the academic achievement of African Caribbean pupils is often higher at Key Stage 1 (age 7) than other groups and then attainment gradually declines relative to other groups and is amongst the lowest at Key Stage 4 (age 16). Other minority ethnic groups, such as Bangladeshi and Pakistani heritage pupils are still below the national average by the time they reach Key Stage 4” (2003:8). The Report also quoted the findings of an earlier 1999 Ofsted report highlighting the case of children from Traveller communities, observing that, “Gypsy/Traveller children, mostly either Gypsy/Roma or Travellers of Irish Heritage, have the lowest achievement of any minority ethnic group and are the group most at risk in the education system. They are also likely to be excluded from school than other pupils” (DfES 2003:9).

Of major concern are number of pupils permanently excluded from school in England. In the period of 1996/1997, there were 12,700 permanent exclusions. Of these, 83% are from within secondary education, whilst 12% are from primary education. Of all the pupils excluded, 83% are male indicating involvement in anti-social and challenging behaviour. One additional aspect of great concern is the disproportionate numbers of Afro Caribbean boys that are excluded given their population, so that boys in this category are four times at risk of exclusion than their white counterparts Coleman, 1999). A recently published study on discipline and behaviour in schools (OFSTED, 2000) reported that black pupils were six times more likely to be excluded than white pupils. OFSTED inspectors who based their findings on ten schools across the country reported that the length of fixed term exclusions varied considerably in some schools between black and white pupils for what were described as the same or similar incidents.

All schools are required by law to have behaviour and discipline policies in place and from September 2000, they will need to include policies and guidance to combat all forms of bullying. Bosman and Parmar (2000), in their guidance to schools, recommend that schools must aim to promote good relations and mutual respect and tolerance between different racial groups. They emphasises the importance of schools having policies and strategies in place to deal with racist incidents, including bullying and examines a range of concrete and effective strategies for improving the quality of the educational experience of minority ethnic pupils.

Drop out rates in the EU, according to the European Report on Quality of School Education (2000) remain relatively high, with Portugal 40.7%, UK 31.4%, Italy 30.2%, Spain 30% in contrast to Germany 13.2%, Sweden 9.6% and the Czech Republic 6.8%. Sebastião et al (2001) report the rising incidence of violence in Portuguese schools and specific intervention programmes at primary and secondary school. This rising incidence of violence and bullying is set in the context of demographic changes that have taken place the 1990s, with some parts of Portugal for example in the north, subject to rapid socio-economic development and expansion, resulting in the highest number of young people under 18 in the EU, which has, as a direct consequence, impacted on the quality of schooling with,
overcrowding being a major concern. The report examines the relationship between the school ethos and the way schools concern themselves with the social and personal development of pupils. They make the point that, ‘the social function of school assumes prominence due to the wide variety of problematic behaviours and dysfunctional disorders, which has its early manifestations in the school years... Problems like aggressiveness and anti-social conduct, poor school performance, truancy and early school drop out are significantly correlated to youth delinquency, juvenile violence and social non-adjustment’. The researchers conclude, ‘School based interventions and programmes to prevent bullying should no longer be considered a luxury but a necessity to limit the serious effects of deviant socialisation patterns among children and adolescents’.

In light of the issues raised in this paper, what is the role of the school? Does the school have a community role to play, acting as a resource to the community providing education, health and skills training to children and their families, and if this is the case, will the future teacher need to be both a social educator as well as an academic educator? What are the implications for pedagogy, the curriculum and school organisation? What will be the cost to society if schools fail to engage with these issues?

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The Importance of Teaching for Creativity in Education
with particular reference to Technology Education.
Does a creative approach have wider Currency?

Keith Good

Abstract
Creativity is exciting, useful and important. The exponential increase in the pace of change makes creative, innovative thinking ever more relevant to the needs of students, industry and society. The over-arching theme of this paper is creativity in technology education. It will be argued that technology education which stresses creativity, will seem more relevant to students than one that does not. It will also be more relevant to the needs of industry and society in general. The paper then considers some obstacles to creativity and one approach that may help.

The concepts of creativity in technology education will be examined while accepting that the term may mean different things in other contexts. Creativity should arguably be central to design and technology, as technology education is known in the UK. Unfortunately this is not always apparent in teachers’ attitudes or practice. Even when a curriculum gives considerable emphasis to children’s own ideas, other factors and pressures often militate against creative thinking. The paper considers what might be done to overcome the obstacles and actively stimulate creative thinking in technology education.

The latter part of the paper includes an explanation of the starting point approach to technology education. This encourages the student’s perception of relevance by

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giving each the opportunity to develop their own, individual projects from common starting points. The approach was piloted with student teachers and then further trialled with primary school children. Students are introduced to an aspect of technology, and explore its relevance to their everyday life. They then follow a ‘recipe’ to make their own working example of the technology. This the starting point for their designing. Crucially each member of the class then develops their own individual product. This is made manageable for the teacher by the common start. Students can develop the starting point to fit in with their own experience and interests. This encourages them to perceive technology education as relevant as they can work on a project of their choice. The more usual approach in UK schools requires all children in a class to make projects with the same purpose e.g. slippers, whether they want to or not. In this paper, a pressure pad switch starting point is used to illustrate the approach. Work for children based on this approach is to be found in the author’s Design Challenge series (pub. Evans 1999 and 2000). Exemplar pages will be shown during the presentation. Benefits of this approach seem to include increased motivation and scope for innovation and differentiation.

Introduction

The exponential increase in the pace of change makes creative thinking ever more important to education, individuals and society. The over-arching theme of this paper is creativity in education. The importance of creativity has been highlighted in the UK by the National Advisory Committee on Creative and Cultural Education (NACCCE) report (1999). The concept creativity in education will be examined while accepting that it may mean different things in other contexts. This will provide the background for an examination of creativity in the context of design and technology education.

This paper argues that maximising opportunities for students to be creative encourages them to perceive design and technology as relevant. Creativity is arguably central to design and technology but this is not always apparent in teachers’ attitude or practice. Although the English National Curriculum for design and technology gives considerable emphasis to children’s own ideas, other government initiatives work against this. This paper considers what might be done to overcome the obstacles and one approach to stimulating creative thinking. The starting point (spa) approach may increase students’ motivation, scope for creativity and their perception of the subject as relevant. This is described in the second part of the paper. First let us consider what it means to be creative.

The concepts of creativity and creativity in technology education

Most writers on creativity begin by acknowledging that it is a particularly elusive term that is used in different ways in different fields. Torrance (1965 p.2) says that creativity may ‘quite justifiably’ be defined in many ways. The NACCCE report (1999 p.6) illustrates the problem further: ‘creativity is possible in all areas of human activity’. Duffy (1998) points to the importance of avoiding definitions that are restrictive, such as limiting creativity to the arts or to the production of an artefact. The NACCCE report (1999 p.6) also acknowledges this difficulty and suggests some reasons for it.
The problems of definition lie in its particular associations with the arts, in the complex nature of creative activity itself and in the variety of theories that have been developed to explain it.

There is neither the space nor the need in this paper to explore creativity in every field, doing this in any one could be a major study. Much of the elusiveness and difficulty in defining creativity seems to stem from the differences between the fields. Since this paper is concerned with the field of education and particularly design and technology education, creativity in this field will be emphasised. In this paper creativity will be understood to involve deliberate acts that result in various outputs of originality and value. A bird dropping may be original in the sense of being different from all others but it has not been produced by a deliberate act i.e. designed. Nor do the dropping’s differences make it valuable. The originality requirement begs the question: how original? Here it seems sensible to accept degrees of originality in the context of education.

The NACCCE report (1999, p.30) distinguishes between three different ‘categories’, one might say degrees of originality. These are individual, relative and historic. The first category describes work that is original in relation to the child’s other work. In the second category the work is original relative to that of the child’s peers. The final category comprises work that is original in terms of all known output in a given field. Children may only rarely if ever achieve ‘historic originality’, though some might go on to do so. This does not mean the first two categories are not worth pursuing. We do not give up teaching young students creative writing because they may never be capable of winning the Penguin Prize for Children’s Fiction! With creativity as with other aspects of education, the teacher’s duty is to help the child to perform to the best of their ability. Value is however an essential requirement if being different from the rest is to be elevated to creativity. The NACCCE report (1999, p.30) mentions the requirement of value. Original ideas are not all truly creative, they may be irrelevant to the intended purpose, bizarre or faulty. ‘The outcome of imaginative activity can only be called creative if it is of value in relation to the task at hand.’ We do however need to be extremely careful about dismissing an idea too readily. Is the child’s idea irrelevant or have we failed to see the relevance? Most fields have their experts or ‘gatekeepers’ that pronounce on which original ideas are valuable. Experts of course often disagree and the value of each idea or product to a given field must be debated on its merits. In the field of education the teacher is usually the most immediate gatekeeper. There are of course other gatekeepers, such as examination boards and the inspectors. If they are too restrictive about what ‘counts’, creativity in education suffers. However, an important duty of the teacher is to help children evaluate their own ideas. This is an integral part of design and technology. The English National Curriculum appears in places to require creativity. The Department for Education and Employment and Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (DfEE/QCA) Handbook (1999, p.22) features ‘creative thinking skills’ as a requirement across all compulsory subjects, describing them as follows:
These enable pupils to generate and extend ideas, to suggest hypotheses, to apply imagination and to look for alternative innovative outcomes.

The current UK Prime Minister’s statement will serve as one example of many political endorsements of creativity (Blair 1987). ‘It is through creativity and imagination that Britain will succeed in the 21st century’. Japanese society, which is sometimes associated with conformity, also seems to encourage a degree of creativity. Their National Curriculum Council talks of ‘allowing schools to show ingenuity in developing unique educational activities’ (Itoh and Yamazaki, 2001). This does not of course necessarily require that pupils show ingenuity.

**Obstacles to creativity**

One might think from all this that creativity in education is always seen as such a good thing that it is widely applauded and promoted. This is by no means the case. Some time ago de Bono (1972 p.9) pointed out that ‘transfer of knowledge’ has always been seen as the main function of education and that examinations soon bring dissenters to their senses. For some creativity has connotations of non-conformity, even eccentricity. This may explain why Torrance (1965 p.10) says that some educators see creative thinking in school as ‘threatening and dangerous’. It would be nice to think that such views are outmoded but even after the very positive NACCCE report, plenty of contemporary writers in the UK are discussing the barriers to creativity in education. Joubert, (2001) and Kimbell (2000) are examples.

Some innovative ideas will not work out but allowance for this is not always forthcoming. Kimbell, Stables and Sprake point out (2002 p.105) that by the time the government’s Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted) and examination boards have exerted a malign influence, ‘the resulting ethos is not supportive of creative risk taking in the classroom. Indeed the prevailing ethos might be described as coercive and authoritarian’. Davies (1999 p.101) supports this view. ‘In the current political climate, there is caution about how much freedom should be given to schools, teachers and learners to be creative’. Paradoxically, the relaxation of National Curriculum requirements for primary education in England in 1998 resulted in less time being given to creative subjects. Primary teachers were actually required to do less design and technology for example.

A further paradox is that this ‘relaxation’ was only done to allow concentration on the government’s targets for literacy and numeracy (Breckon, 1999). Ministers and Prime Ministers it seems are all in favour of creativity, not least one suspects for its economic spin-offs. However they are perhaps only in favour when the creative process produces a ‘winner every time’. The ‘league tables’ where an English school’s examination success or failure are publicised, encourage teachers to play safe. The pressure to produce maximum results all the time is perhaps one of the main inhibitors of risk taking creativity in all subjects. Kimbell (2000) stresses the importance of creativity to design and technology but argues that the UK’s DfEE/QCA give mixed messages about this. The discouragement of risk
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taking by punitive Ofsted inspections is just one of the factors Kimbell mentions. He also argues that government’s action in support of creativity does not match its rhetoric. He believes that the NACCCCE report (1999) has already disappeared in to a DfEE void. If this is the case, it is very unfortunate. Like Kimbell, the report says that it is important to eliminate the factors which will inhibit the creative activity of teachers. The high levels of prescription in relation to content and teaching methods are also criticised. If real support for creativity is not forthcoming from government, there is a need for a creative ‘resistance movement’ in design and technology and perhaps in education in general. Because creativity is so central to design and technology and its relevance to students, the effects of repression or neglect are especially dire. No subject has more potential than design and technology for developing innovative thinking in children. Unfortunately the subject also has its own additional internal barriers to creativity. Designing, making and testing ideas against tangible problems allows children to judge their ideas against external reality. Baynes (1992 p.19) says ‘without an imaginative spark Design and Technology is reduced to copying what has been made already’. In fact Baynes understates the case, because copying what has been made already is not design and technology at all, it is merely making things. The English design and technology National Curriculum ‘level descriptions’ (against which children are assessed) describe children generating ideas, clarifying their ideas and using appropriate strategies to develop appropriate ideas (DfEE/QCA 1999). Implicit in this is the view that all children can have their own ideas. The National Curriculum level descriptions recognise that this will happen on various levels. The foreword to the programmes of study says that part of ‘the importance of design and technology’ is that children think and intervene creatively’ and that the subject calls for pupils to become ‘autonomous and creative problem solvers’. Unfortunately what goes on in the subject does not always justify the rhetoric. Interestingly, the terms originality, innovative or creative are not actually used in the level descriptions to which teachers turn when assessing their pupils. If the level descriptions are taken literally ‘their ideas’ are graded in terms of things like recognising that designs have to meet a range of different needs (level 3), taking user’s views into account (level 4). Even the ‘exceptional performance’ category concentrates on pupils who show discrimination in their use of information and are working from formal plans. There are other criteria but none mention creativity or innovation as such.

Those who have brilliantly innovative ideas are still waiting for a level description to be written for them! Other countries have looked to the UK for inspiration in design and technology but perhaps we should now emulate the zeal of one of them. The South Australian Curriculum Standards & Accountability framework lists developing a sense of the power of creativity among its ‘key foci’ (Keirl, 2001a). There is however scope for the English design and technology teacher to reward innovation. The problem is that those with other priorities may be able to marginalize it. Nevertheless, all level descriptions do require pupils’ ideas to be assessed. It would however be good to see degrees of creativity explicitly mentioned and rewarded. Teachers assess what they value, or increasingly what they are told to value. The explicit rewarding of creativity in design and technology is important. Teachers must value creativity in design and technology.
if the subject is to deliver its promise in this important respect. Davies and Ritchie (2001 p.13) in their primary technology book, agree with the NACCCE view mentioned earlier that not only the highest order of creative achievements are of value. They ‘refute the idea that the majority of people cannot be creative’.

The design and technology teacher’s role is to create a climate and provide the stimulus that will encourage ‘their ideas’ to be creative ones.

Despite the tremendous potential for creativity in design and technology, there is evidence that this is not being fully exploited. The major growth area in design and technology in recent years has been in the use of information and communication technology (ICT). Many secondary school design and technology departments in the UK now own or hire computer controlled laser cutters and other high tech equipment. Primary schools use computer control packages. The ease with which ideas can be explored and improved on a computer screen means that ICT has real potential to support creativity. The danger in this is that creativity will be overlooked or taken for granted if we are dazzled by the technology. There is a risk that simply using ICT will be enough. When using plastics and electronics in design and technology was new, pupils often used them to make virtually identical projects. Using new technology does not guarantee that it will be used to create new and better things. Use of latest software may blind teachers to when work is no more creative than the traditional pipe rack exercise from the past. Kimbell, Lawler, Stables and Balchin (2002) also point out that there are many different styles of designing and there is danger in the implicit assumption that there is a standard way of designing and presenting ideas. They quite rightly, point out that Pro/DESKTOP (drawing software used in the UK) lends itself to working in a particular way and if this is allowed to become the way, then many pupils will be disadvantaged. (Kimbell et al, p29).

There are many pathways to salvation in design. As well as projects which are relevant, students need room to try out and selectively adopt methods that are relevant to them. Some students are better at working with drawings, some with words and some prefer to make models and mock-ups.

Design and technology practitioners (including examiners) can be seduced by slick computer-generated presentation and reward only that approach. We must not value presentation over quality of ideas if creativity is to flourish.

Students’ experience of design and technology is largely through the projects they do. Can we increase their relevance?

First a brief and perhaps slightly simplistic look at the status quo. Projects with a given purpose ordained by the teacher or the scheme they are following are the norm in England, and often elsewhere. Typical of the less exciting lower secondary school tasks might be: ‘design a desk tidy that will hold six pencils and a ruler using the material provided.’ The student looking for relevance might ask why six pencils, why any pencils and even why a desk tidy at all? How well would the teacher’s answer satisfy the student? The real explanation for desk tidy
and other projects with a given outcome is at least partly ease of management. There is also a concern to ensure that a certain process or part of the syllabus is covered. The general pressure to ‘play safe’ and for students to have something nice to take home are also factors. Most English primary schools are choosing projects provided by the government’s QCA/DfEE. Like the desk tidy, specific outcomes are required e.g. a pair of slippers, a photo frame or more interestingly, a controllable vehicle. All the projects in a class have to have one specific purpose although variations within are admittedly possible. The teacher has to ‘sell’ the given product to the students and convince them of its relevance. This would be much easier if students could choose their own design and technology projects as they would naturally choose those relevant to them. A completely free choice (especially for young children) would pose too many practical and pedagogical problems including students’ lacking necessary knowledge and management difficulties. The teacher might be faced with the need to teach many different things at once to cater for the needs of the different projects. Despite all this, an we then go further towards student choice of projects?

The starting point approach to design and technology education. Can it help?
The spa seems to offer a compromise between what the teacher and student can manage, what needs to be covered and what the student would choose to do. The approach was trialled with student primary teachers and subsequently with children in primary schools. By maximising opportunities for children to create their own ideas, the spa seems likely to increase their perception of design and technology as relevant. Working from the teacher’s starting point, students can nonetheless end up with a project that has a different purpose from those of their classmates. A project of which they have ownership because they decided on it.

A pressure pad switch is used here as an example. The switch was made from three post-card sized pieces of thin card and some kitchen foil to make the electrical contacts. It goes on when the top layer is pressed. For more details see Good (1999a, p.14-20).

The first stage in the spa was to introduce piece of technology to the students and work with them to establish its importance.

Establishing the importance of the technology at the outset seemed likely to help motivation and perceptions of relevance. The process included finding out about the everyday uses of the technology e.g. the switch is used on microwave ovens and many other appliances. Another way of highlighting the importance of a piece of technology was to imagine what would happen if all examples of it were to suddenly vanish. This required students to establish where the technology was used before they could comment.

Interviews with students supported the view that establishing a context and real uses for the technology was motivating. What we were doing was meant to be seen as part of the ‘real world’ outside the classroom. Students were shown how the pressure pad worked and told that later they would be able to design their own use for it.
The second stage involved students following instructions to make their own working example of the technology i.e. the starting point.

Questionnaire responses showed that many of our new trainee primary teachers at the University of Greenwich lacked confidence as they approached design and technology. From student interviews, it was clear that demonstrating the ‘starting points’ helped to reassure them that they would be able to cope. Students were shown how to make their own working example of the starting point by following a clear recipe. At this point the emphasis was on following instructions, building confidence and gaining knowledge, skills and understanding in the process. The NACCCE report (1999 p.7) supports the need for teaching specifics to support creativity and reinforces what many teachers design and technology have discovered.

Creativity is not simply a matter of letting go. Serious creative achievement relies on knowledge, control of materials and command of ideas. Creative education involves a balance between teaching knowledge and skills, and encouraging innovation.

Teaching the starting point provided knowledge and skills also stimulated design ideas. Benson (2004 p.143) emphasises that ‘knowledge and understanding are important for the development of creativity.’ One advantage of this approach is that the necessary skills and knowledge are built in, so inexperienced students are prevented from embarking on designs that might not work at all. This approach allowed practical work to start promptly and with a very good chance of success.

The crucial third stage involved encouraging students to design products of their choice.

Going on to develop a wide variety of outcomes is crucial to this approach. This was helped by encouraging students to think of many different ways to make the pressure pad on. These included riding a bicycle over it throwing things at it and many other ways, all with the potential to give ideas for products. Rather than confining students to variations on a theme e.g. similar desk tidies, this approach allowed products with different purposes in one class. The variety was made feasible with whole groups by the common teacher input to all and the same practical starting point. By observing and listening to students it was clear that design ideas often began to develop while the starting point was being explained and that having this literally in their hands was a considerable help in stimulating ideas. The starting point also gave early success that helped confidence. Because students could design and make ‘whatever they wanted’, they could make the project relevant to themselves. Designs could be linked to a perceived need, existing interest or a problem that they had experienced. Those who were really stuck for ideas could be guided towards a narrower brief e.g. some kind of board game with a pressure sensitive area. Some students were able to negotiate
modifications to the basic starting point, either at the outset or more commonly to suit their designs as these developed.

**Conclusion**
The *spa* was trialled with student primary teachers who were interviewed and observed. Small scale field trials were conducted later with children. Starting with part of a solution and then identifying a need that it could meet, is not such a strange way of working. A new process, material or piece of technology developed to meet one need, is often used for others subsequently. With this approach students never need to be shown a finished project that the teacher ‘made earlier’ and which they might simply copy. Rather they can be shown the starting point for many possible projects. In many subjects, the teacher *does* of course have the one right answer which the student has to work out. We need to establish the designing is different and that students’ ideas will be considered on their merits against the design problem. Designing is a play-like activity where ideas and materials are manipulated to explore what could and should be. The *spa* allows plenty of scope for this.

One of the strengths of design and technology at its best, is that participants examine and judge their solutions against a task for themselves. In the case of the starting points the basic question was ‘What can *I* do with this?’ In this trial students were shown part of a solution but to a problem which they had to identify for themselves. No single problem or ‘right answer’ was offered. Students also needed to establish their own criteria for a successful project as each was designed to meet different needs.

Giving students opportunity to use their creativity in designing relevant projects is important to industry and society at large. This has been highlighted by the UK’s National Advisory Committee on Creative and Cultural Education. (NACCCE 1999 p.19) report which stresses that due to a rapidly changing world there is:

> there is a growing demand in business world-wide is for forms of education and training that develop ‘human resources’ and in particular the powers of communication, innovation and creativity.

The approach is intended to allow maximum creativity while ensuring coverage of programmes of study and manageability for the teacher. Creativity is arguably at the heart of design and technology so it is important to develop ways to promote it. The approach set out in this paper is not offered as the only one that should be adopted but if it promotes creativity it should perhaps be included alongside others.

It seems likely that the *spa* encourages motivation. Ownership encourages a perception of relevance in students of all ages (Keirl, 2004b p186): ‘We know that students express satisfaction at the ownership of their creative output: I we thought of that’ as a part “I/we made that”. Students have more ownership of *spa*.
projects than is usually the case. By increasing their creative input it seems likely that we can increase ownership and students’ perception of their work as relevant.

The approach described in this paper is being examined as part of more formal research to for an EdD thesis and further work will be required beyond this. The author’s experience in the classroom and successful publications based on the spa, already indicate that it has something to offer. It is for readers with a knowledge of their own fields to consider whether the spa could be adapted for use beyond design and technology. In a rapidly changing world it is ever more important that we encourage our students to use the knowledge in our subjects creatively to meet needs that we cannot yet imagine.

Readers interested in this approach and the Design Challenge series of books, video CD or teacher training based on it, are welcome to contact the author. International contacts are especially welcome: kwgood@supanet.com and k.w.good@gre.ac.uk

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The expression 'communicating' is used daily and seems so familiar and self-evident that we never really think about its meaning. The word communicating has its origins in the Latin word 'communis', which means common. Communication is a word denoting almost all mutual cooperation and derives from the Latin verb 'communicare', which means to cooperate, share, consult, discuss, and ask for advice. Therefore it means understanding between people by means of message exchange.

Some theorists define communication as a fundamental social process, because this process is crucial for man's personal development, for formation and existence of groups, and for relationships between groups. According to Watzlawick the communication is 'conditio sine qua non' of a man's life.

Communicating is therefore a process connecting at least two people. We can say it is impossible not to communicate, because during communication we perceive the response of our co-speaker and answer to it with our thoughts and feelings. Our further behaviour is a response to what we see or hear. Our co-speaker reacts in the same way to our behaviour.

The significance of communication is in the feedback that we receive. Only the feedback information can tell us if the receiver has understood the message and only this stage enables us to examine the success of communication. This shows us that communication is a two-sided mutual system.

The conversation after having observed the teaching is an important method of motivating co-workers. It is an opportunity for a principal to inform his co-worker
about how he works, praises him and tells him what he expects in future. Researches show there is a chronic lack of feedback information in schools. The most frequent reason for this is the opinion that people know best when they work well and when they do not, the teachers can also get upset, or it is too tiring for the leader. (Erčulj, 1998)

The forming and giving feedback information are probably the most important skills that a leader should develop. The feedback information is always constructive, for it is the base on which we build and plan further development and encourage good practice or improve what is bad.

The conversation following teaching observation should embrace rules for good communication. We should arrange for adequate place and time, and also for a democratic, relaxed and empathic atmosphere which assures security. While conversing after observation the observer links theory with practice and puts into practice that part of theory which meets the school aims. The basis for conversation is the notes of the lesson observed. The constructive feedback information always includes work assessment based on facts and not on feelings or judgements; what exactly should be changed or kept; time definition, tell when the change should be made; the definition of what should be achieved and what help could be offered. It is necessary to make an exact definition of both lesson elements: the good ones, and the ones that need improvement. We should follow the work later on and provide fresh feedback information. The conversation following teaching observation is an excellent opportunity for joint planning of personal and professional growth. The feedback information is the “breakfast of champions”. Giving feedback information is a skill where

- the event should be close.
- the message should be formulated in a positive and constructive way.
- the actual state or behaviour should be analysed and the messages should be conveyed clearly with examples provided.
- we should consider 7 +/− 2 pieces of feedback information – calibration of acceptability, because people have different sensibility for quantity of feedback information. A perforated bucket can take enormous quantity, yet there will be no effect, a glass can take three or four and integrates them into its work, a thimble can take only one and needs special attention (Erčulj, 1999).
- explained willingness should be considered.
- we should always communicate in 1st person singular.

It is also of great importance that a co-speaker can listen and receive feedback information, therefore a receiver should:

- accept, ask if necessary.
- not reason, explain, apologize, excuse or defend himself.
- reflect and change if necessary.
- thank for a good return message.
When people communicate there often arise obstacles that hinder or make their communication impossible. Such obstacles can be: offering solutions to co-speaker (commanding, warning, moralizing, instructing...) or estimating and determining (criticising, labelling, diagnosing), or asking questions and cross-examining or withdrawal and humour, or the messages used for co-speaker to feel better and to make the problem seem less difficult. (Tomić, 1990).

In a real dialogue conversation the defence mechanisms, such as apologies or distraction are minimal in the first stage and they totally disappear during the conversation. So the teacher can decide for himself on things to improve. There is a two-way communication and the solution is acceptable for both.

**Scheme 2: Interaction Communication** (Tomić, 1990, page 118)
When having conversation we surely should not forget about the seat arrangement, as the best communication is provided by the corner position, which allows unlimited eye contact and observation of co-speaker. The cooperative position is also good, as enables cooperation. The competitive-defensive position is the worst situation, as here rules the superior-inferior position, some call it a “hot seat”. People who do not wish for any mutual contacts occupy the independent position.

*Scheme 3: The Sitting Positions during Conversation, T...teacher, P... principal (Tomič, 1990, pages 125, 126)*

![Diagram of sitting positions]

The belts in personal space should also be mentioned here, as they also have influence on our choice of seats and indirectly also on the conversation itself. The personal space is divided into intimate, personal, social and public belts.

*Scheme 4: The Belts in Personal Space (Tomič, 1990, page 127)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intimacy Belt</th>
<th>Personal Belt</th>
<th>Social Belt</th>
<th>Public Belt</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>15–45 cm</td>
<td>46–122 cm</td>
<td>122–360 cm</td>
<td>over 360 cm</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Man owns his air rim. Distances in personal space are culturally and historically conditioned. The social position also influences the distance between people. It is very interesting that a personal belt of people living in the countryside is much bigger than of those living in the town. The intrusion into intimate belt cannot be avoided in schools, if there are many pupils in corridors and classes. Such intrusion definitely affects the privacy and personal space. When there is a crowd of pupils in one place, the individual's personal belt narrows, causing physiological changes in his body. The heart beats faster, the adrenaline is released into blood, the brain and muscles pump the blood enriched with adrenaline. The body is physically prepared for a possible combat or retreat. A lack of room and too many pupils in one classroom are probably the reasons for hostility and aggression in mutual relationships in schools.
According to Ana Kranjc the two persons go to meet each other when establishing a relationship, and at the point where they meet they establish a contact (Kranjc, 1986). If teachers in school have a negative attitude towards teaching observations, then the principal will find it hard to establish good contact at the conversation following the observation. Therefore Ana Tomić (Tomić, 1990, page 121) differentiates three possible relationships:

1. **T ← X → P**

   The principal (P) dominates this situation, as the teacher dislikes the teaching observations. However the teacher resigns to the situation and the position of principal is a dominating one. This usually happens with young teachers. The communication is deformed, as there is no dialogue.

2. **T ← X → P**

   In this situation the teacher defends himself at the very beginning and with his offensiveness monopolizes the conversation with the principal. This is a frequent reaction of senior teachers and of young “know-alls”. There is no dialogue in this situation and the conversation is not effective.

3. **T ← X → P**

   In this case the dialogue is dominant, there is no winner or looser.

The formation and mediation of the feedback information are probably the most important skills that have to be developed when we talk about leading people. The feedback information is always constructive, as it is the base on which we build and plan further development and encourage good practice or improve what is bad. The leader should consider such rules when discussing with and giving feedback information to a teacher. A teacher himself when giving feedback information to parents or pupils should also consider them.

Complexity and dynamics of the communication process warn us about the necessity of examining the destiny of the sent message, that is: has the receiver heard it at all, how has he understood it and how the message has affected him.

All this can be achieved by metacommunication that is by communication about our communication, and by mutual exchange of feedback information, which explain what was going on during our interpersonal communication.

We can communicate with or without words. This means it is not possible not to communicate (Watzlawick's first communication axiom). Every communication conveys to the other person content and at the same time defines our attitude towards both the content and receiver of the message, according to Watzlawick's...
second communication axiom. The next axiom says the attitude towards the receiver of the message is conditioned by a non-verbal communication. Then he says we can communicate verbally or non-verbally. The fifth axiom says the communication can be symmetrical or complementary. Symmetrical relations tend to similarity and avoid diversity whereas complementary relations complement themselves with diversities (Bratanić, 1993). If everything that we communicate non-verbally is in accordance and if the spoken content confirms our attitude towards both the contents and the receiver, then our communication is being congruent, harmonized and sincere (Brajša, 1993).

Feedback information is the best way to examine the effect of our communication. It helps us see how other people see us and also how we influence others. Feedback information represents an essential element and an important component when evaluating interpersonal communication.

A thought for the end: 'when communicating reconcile yourself to the fact that the meaning of your words is manifested in your co-speaker's answer and not in what you think you are expressing. Be aware that your words activate in others different images, emotional associations and meanings than you have.' (Greene, 1995, page 9).

References

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Imagine you as a tourist in lovely Prague. After some visits you get hungry and you find a nice place in a small bohemian restaurant just underneath the Hradcany with a lovely view of the city and the river. Unfortunately the waiter does not understand you, because he cannot speak English; he is unfriendly and bad dressed, he does not explain the main courses, he does not clean the table and the chair before you sit down. Finally, he pours half of the soup, you have ordered, on your shirt…You leave the place with the comment to the manager, that he should choose people with more potential as waiters, otherwise his business will collapse in the future…. Most of us have some kind of experiences with “good” and “bad” waiters – or some implicit imaginations about the profile of a “good” waiter. You leave with a “mental model” of this person as a good or a bad waiter, who is either well trained or not trained for this profession. If teaching is a profession too, we are now in the centre of what the European Appraisal of Potential for Teaching project (APT) tries to achieve: high quality teacher for a high quality profession of teaching.
From Assessment to Potential Analysis

In the late 60’s some big companies started to recruit their work force by “assessment centres” (AC). They wanted to know, if a specific person, who applies for a job, fits into the profile of the work they expected of him. The need for this approach was obvious: the more complex a workspace is shaped, the less you can rely on what the applying person tells you about his formal qualification and earlier experiences in the field. You need tools, that allow you a more profound and - in the language of humanistic psychology – “deeper” entrance to the personality of the applying person. Originally, this idea did not arise from economists, but from educationalists and humanistic psychologists in the late 40’s and 50’s, when experiential psychology concentrated in the US, due to persons like Kurt Lewin⁶, Max Horkheimer/Theodor Adorno⁷, Bruno Bettelheim⁸, Ruth Cohn, Fritz Perls and others, who had emigrated from nazi terror. After the nazis had expelled the earlier works of John Dewey⁹ from the education field in Germany, these immigrants continued to support his main features, which led to a new conversion between Education, Social Psychology and Sociology. Most of their templates – embedded later in the area of MIT’s Centre for Organizational Learning (OLC) - now SOL – Society for Organizational Learning” have been perpetuated by scientists like Carl R. Rogers¹⁰, Ed Schein¹¹, Erving Goffman¹², David Kolb¹³ or Peter Senge¹⁴. From their point of view a shift from economical organisations to school organisations was not a huge step, but it took a long time, until theses ideas reached the entrance gates of schools. Despite the fact that the teaching system is a major consideration in any nation’s aspirations to attain, or maintain, an educational system of high quality, namely when our knowledge-based societies are placing new demands on individuals’ abilities and skills, the efforts to implement potential analysis into teacher education is quite new. Universities often use formal appraisal schemes, but in teacher education any kind of appraisal is in most of the European countries not on the actual agenda. If teachers and their teaching constitute the core of the educational system by

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⁷ Horkheimer, M./Adorno, Th. (1950): the Authoritarian Character, New York, republished in german 1968
¹⁰ One of the earliest works about the issue is: The concept of the fully functioning person, in: Psychotherapy: theory, research and Practice, 1963, No. 1, S. 17-26
highlighting the fact that their performance has a large impact on student performance\textsuperscript{15} the question can be asked as to whether “anyone” can teach or not. It is therefore entirely appropriate for education authorities, policy makers, administrators, and practitioners alike to consider appraisals in early teacher education on the background of potential analysis – not for selection - very seriously. Current thinking in the area of teacher professional development has begun to recognize the importance of individual, tacit belief systems, the shape of personality and the influence, these factors have in the way a person learns to teach, how he teaches his students and how he reacts in difficult situations in his classroom. This creates a much wider horizon then just asking, if a teacher is good in his subject. The critical role that teachers play is reflected in a wide variety of OECD activities in recent years\textsuperscript{16}. In addition, OECD took major efforts to build a comparative data base on teachers\textsuperscript{17}, the Education Committee completed two relevant documents\textsuperscript{18} and CERI has been investigating related issues in its programme\textsuperscript{19}. The Education Ministers placed great importance on teachers in their April 2001 Communiqué\textsuperscript{20} but their main interest focuses more or less in the fields of lifelong learning, possible shortage of teacher supply in subjects or early language learning. Student teachers, who may not be sure if they should enter the teaching profession or not, do not play a major role in these surveys. On the other hand, the suitability for the professional role of the teacher is an urgent question in many ways; the reasons why young people want to become a teacher or the question of matching their own learning biography and the attitudes towards teaching to the necessary requirements of the school organisation creates for every student teacher entering education some further painful questions: Shall I be a “good” teacher? Can and how do I become a “good” teacher? What kind of potential should I have or have I developed before finally entering this profession? On the other side of the market place, schools ask: How do you get “high quality” teachers? What kind of competence setting must a “high quality” teacher develop during his teacher education and training? It is noteworthy, that in some European States like Germany a teacher as a state employee is - after entering the profession - up to 35 or more years in the same job. It is easy to understand, that the decision of a young man or woman, to become a teacher, is a real challenge, more or less a “life” decision. But who knows, how heartily committed to teaching is someone after 20 or 30 years of teaching? And furthermore: Does the educational environment either support or block the development of the potentials for high

\textsuperscript{15} In recent work, Rivkin, Hanushek, and Kain (2000) conclude that teacher quality is the most important within-school factor explaining student performance. See: Rivkin, Steven G., Eric A. Hanushek, and John F. Kain, 2000, Teachers, Schools, and Academic Achievement, Working Paper 6691 (revised), National Bureau of Economic Research, Massachusetts.

\textsuperscript{16} including The Teacher Today (OECD, 1990), High Quality Education and Training for All (OECD, 1992), Quality in Teaching (OECD, 1994), Staying Ahead: In-service Training and Teacher Professional Development (OECD, 1998), and Teachers for Tomorrow’s Schools (OECD & UNESCO, 2001).

\textsuperscript{17} Education at a Glance (OECD, 2001a)

\textsuperscript{18} Lifelong Learning for Teachers and Teacher Demand and Supply.


\textsuperscript{20} Investing in Competencies for All.
quality teaching? But there are still more major implications, that influence this decision. To give an example: How far schools are able to transform and to adapt to the pressing societal needs will hinge to a large extent on the availability and effectiveness of the teaching workforce. It is the case that in a great number of countries the age profile of teachers is skewed towards the older end of the age-range and signs point to a recent worsening of the situation. A teaching environment that is near the state of “burn out” is not an ideal platform for potential analysis to enter the profession. In addition, the relative attractiveness of the profession, as far as the salary dimension is concerned, has declined substantially in a number of countries in recent years. Other evidence indicates that, at least in some countries, a substantial share of the teaching workforce does not even hold a regular teaching qualification, and the proportion of “out-of-field” teaching assignments is strikingly high in some key subject areas. While many institutions in the field are rather concerned about “objective” needs like making teaching more attractive as a profession for both present and future teachers or gain a better understanding of the range of factors that affect the attraction, recruitment, development and retention of effective teachers, we should not forget the “subjective” factors of future teachers – e.g. their performance level, their communication skills, their attitudes towards teaching, their value system, their commitment to students, parents, peers etc. To answer some of these questions concerning the teaching person a shift from “implicit” estimations to “explicitly” observable behaviours, a dive into the person, who teaches, seems to be necessary. This is the background of the APT – Appraisal of potential for teaching approach.

**Appraisal of potential for teaching (APT) project**
The Comenius 2.1. APT project 2003 – 2007 aims to support the training of student teachers by developing together with seven European teacher training institutions diagnostic tools to help them to identify and explore fundamental attitudes towards the teaching profession. These instruments can hopefully provide the student teacher with the opportunity to increase self-awareness through reflection and critical questioning as a starting point for further professional development as a “change agent” in school. Exercises and activities are to be used with student teachers during short-term intensive training programmes. The student teachers are observed during the activities (individual and group activities) and detailed feedback is recorded and given to them by the observers. The proposal is simultaneously addressing the needs of two target groups: namely, teacher educators and student teachers. The so-called ‘process learning’ central to the work they will undertake by using this instrument, has effects for both groups. If teacher educators know, where the learning fields of their teacher students lie, they can change the curriculum and offer individualized training units to bring out the potentials of the person in a holistic sense. This approach can also create a ‘learning organization’ in a true sense, because the work involved implies

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21 Estonia (Tallinna Pedagoogikaülikool); Sweden (Luleå tekniska universitet), Spain (Facultad de Ciencias de la education – Universidad de Granada); UK (Edge Hill College of Higher Education, Ormskirk Lancashire); Belgium (Provinciale Hogeschool Limburg) and as coordinating unit Germany (Staatliches Seminar für Lehrerbildung und Didaktik Offenburg)
reflection and change to be implemented by both sides of the teaching and learning dynamic. The impact of the project is to provide student teachers with a deeper understanding of their personal motivations entering the profession and with insights into the aspects of teacher competence that lie beyond knowledge of one’s subject. In addition to highlighting the multi-faceted nature of the teaching profession, the diagnostic tools used assist teacher educators in distinguishing the different skills and competencies on the part of the student teachers with whom they work. It can provide them with a more objective, professional diagnosis of the student teacher’s present potential and by extension will point the student towards finding solutions to identified learning fields, before they enter the complex profession. The project tends also to gain a wider impact at a European level. As it is practical in application it tries to initiate and develop the expertise of teacher trainers in Europe. In so doing it could bring about a network of professional skill in Europe making way for the exchange of ideas and ultimately transnational mobility on the part of student teachers and teacher educators. The aim of deepening a mutual understanding of the wider European teacher-training environment could lead to a scenario, where agreed European profiles of identifiable attitudes for teaching are available. These envisaged outputs of diagnostic tools or instruments for the use with student teachers for the purpose of identifying and exploring attitudes to teaching profession can ensure appropriate changes which occur and are needed for professional development of the teaching profession. One can also argue, that all these efforts are not necessary: Good teachers are good teachers by nature, not by nurture. But this is rather a “banalisis” (instead of an analysis), and people with a certain knowledge of the European Commission know that they would not support a project that would cost tax payers around 600,000€ for three years.

Kurt Lewin’s field theory – an old, but quite modern way of identifying problems

The theoretical background of the project falls back to the field theory of Kurt Lewin. Here we will not enter into the detail of Kurt Lewin’s field theory (it is beyond our remit). However, it is necessary to note its key elements. To begin it is important to recognize its roots in Gestalt theory. (A gestalt is a coherent whole. It has its own laws, and is a construct of the individual mind rather than ‘reality’- the modern constructivism has exactly docked on here). For Kurt Lewin behaviour was determined by totality of an individual’s situation. In his field theory, a ‘field’ is defined as ‘the totality of coexisting facts which are conceived of as mutually interdependent’

Individuals were seen to behave differently according to the way in which tensions between perceptions of the self and of the environment were worked through. The whole psychological field, or ‘life space’, within which people acted had to be viewed, in order to understand behaviour. Within this individuals and groups could be seen in topological terms (using map-like representations). Individuals participate in a series of life spaces (such as the family, work, school and church), and these were constructed under the influence of various force vectors. Behaviour is a function of the field that exists at the time

the behaviour occurs, analysis begins with the situation as a whole from which are
differentiated the component parts, and especially Kurt Lewin also looked to the
power of underlying forces (e.g. needs) to determine behaviour and, hence,
expressed a preference for psychological as opposed to physical or physiological
descriptions of the field. In this we can see how Kurt Lewin drew together insights
from topology (e.g. life space), psychology (need, aspiration etc.), and sociology
(e.g. force fields – motives clearly being dependent on group pressures). As
Gordon W. Allport\textsuperscript{23} puts it, these three aspects of his thought were not separable.
‘All of his concepts, whatever root-metaphor they employ, comprise a single well-
integrated system’. Lewin’s task oriented workshops date back to the summer of
1946, when he along with colleagues and associates from the Research Center for
Group Dynamics (Ronald Lippitt, Leland Bradford and Kenneth Benne) became
involved in leadership and group dynamics training for the Connecticut State
Interracial Commission. They designed and implemented programmes that looked
to encourage group discussion and decision-making, the trainers and researchers
collected detailed observations and recordings of group activities (and worked on
these during the event).

It was this, in significant parts, which gave his ideas its peculiar power. Knowing,
that there is no hope for teacher trainers to change the underlying bigger social
structures as well as we know, that we can hardly influence mental models, beliefs
or attitudes, the project chose the only possible exit of this antinomy: Observe task
oriented behaviour by using face to face structures. In a clear distinction to
assessment centres, where the selection of applicants is dominant, we relied rather
on building up a certain kind of feedback culture, to which the concrete person can
rely too.

\textsuperscript{23} In his foreword to Lewin (1948): Resolving Social Conflict - selected papers on
group dynamics, ix), New York
On the other side, using Lewin’s model, practitioners working in the present teacher education systems know that in most countries there is an impact of State policy on entry into the teaching profession, which cannot be changed by educationists. We had to find the “place” of teacher Training Colleges in the teacher supply pipeline, where could possibly interfere with these tools. The model of Goertz et. al. shows very clearly, where we can throw our anchor. (see figure 2). Teacher trainers have a lot of influence on future teacher students in the entry and the training parts. They can interfere with policies affecting the teacher education curriculum and can decide, who finishes teacher education via examinations. It was clear, that after pipe three there is a magic border, which no teacher training institute can cross without political implications. But somewhere between the first three pipes we could try to install any kind of potential analysis, because some kind of behaviour can be made observable in all three pipes. Furthermore in or between all three pipes some unknown potential elements of a “teacher personality” are likely to occur and could be indicated at a certain point of his professional development.
What kind of level of appraisal can we choose?
The next question was the construction of the diagnostic tools: How deep can we, should we, must we dive into someone’s personality, to give him clear feedbacks on his strengths and learning fields. Here we adopted the Water-lily model because before the construction of tools the constructor must be quite sure, what level of “deep down” he can approach.

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The model is based on a model of Ed Schein.\(^\text{25}\) He argues, that organizations and cultures have a lot to do with each other. He defines three levels of cultures, which are important for organizations and possible changes in them:
- Artifacts (visible organisation structures and processes, which are hard to decipher)
- Espoused values (strategies, goals, philosophies – espoused justifications)
- Basic underlying assumptions (unconscious, taken for granted beliefs, perceptions, thoughts, feelings – ultimate source of values and action).

Our own model fits into Schein’s differentiation between different levels of self shaping in cultural environments. The assumption is, that any interaction between persons also is multifunctional, based on a set of different levels of understanding patterns like knowledge, self-image, traits and motive. A waterline defines the border between “artifacts” (what the other person should see) and “facts” or assumptions lying underneath the waterline. The picture of the water-lily (you could also take the model of an iceberg) shows the lovely flowers, but its roots are deep down in the water. By starting a appraisal of potential analysis with a person, the appraiser must be constantly alert for changes in mood or feeling on the part of the appraisee, being especially sensitive to issues that may be threatening to the appraisee leading to a shutting down of the flow of information and interaction. The goal should be, to create an interaction that will provide information to the appraiser, begin to build trust so that potentials become visible. Any kind of mistrust against the appraiser leads to the point that the appraisee automatically turns to a reaction, where his potentials become less visible or even invisible. Ed Schein quotes about his process: “The goal should be to create an interaction that will provide information to the change agent, begin to build trust with the potential change target, and begin to get the change target to think diagnostically and positively about the change project such that he or she will welcome another interview or interaction because their curiosity or their own energy for change has been aroused. In a sense the concept of "change target" has to become transformed in the change agent's mind into a "client" who seeks some help or into a "learner." The change agent has to become a facilitator of the learning process and the desired change has to be embedded in a "helping process" that makes sense to the learner”.\(^\text{26}\)

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\(^{25}\) Schein, E. : (2004): Organizational Culture and Leadership, 4th edition (e-book);

Matching personal aptitudes to organizational requirements

If we take Lewin’s “field theory” as a platform, an appraisal of potential for teaching process cannot be started without some basic assumptions about the matching of personal aptitudes to organizational requirements. But again, most of these assumptions are presumptions: People, who want to enter the teaching profession have implicit mental models (or assumed potentials, what teaching is all alike) – school organisations (e.g. Examination Boards, recruiting headmasters) also have assumed criteria of qualifications needed, of teaching standards, of desired behaviours etc. – the latter, due to the recruitment process can make them much more explicit than the applicant can. The potential analysis has to deal with these two different sets of spoken or unspoken requirements of the school organization and spoken or unspoken self profiles of the applicant. But when it comes to the direct recruitment decision (or not), it is far too late for both sides, to balance qualification needs with the personal achievements of the candidate (see pipe 4 figure 2). The earlier, the matching between requirements of the organization and the person starts, the better are the possibilities, to identify the potentials for teaching, to find out about the person’s future learning fields and strengths and the earlier one can develop individualized learning strategies or offers from the teacher training institutions for the future teacher. But this is more than an easy saying: There is a widespread discussion about the changes of the roles of teachers. The range of tasks teachers are seen as responsible for has widened significantly. What are the new job profiles or definitions of core responsibilities that reflect the new “enriched” but also more demanding profession of teaching? To some old roles, a whole cohort of new responsibility must be added today, e.g. teaching in multi-cultural classrooms; developing civic
and social skills; integrating students with special needs; providing professional advice to parents; working and planning in teams; being part of a learning community (within the school and/or in a network of teachers); evaluation and systematic improvement planning; management and shared leadership. It took us a long time in all the APT partner countries, to get on a common platform, what kind of profile or parts of personal performance a European teacher needs today. Our “Granada Agreement” (named after the APT meeting there in 2004) is a provisional approach, to come to a certain kind of observable core competences, which we underpinned our diagnostic tools. Among these are:

- Self organization/self responsibility
- Role clarification
- Specific competences for the teaching profession
- Performance attitudes
- Leadership
- Role model function
- Strategic thinking and acting

Developing diagnostic tools for potential analysis

It would be too much to present in this paper the whole range of diagnostic tools, the seven European teacher Training Institutions have developed so far. One example should be enough, to shed a small light on our approach. In Germany, the teacher training College at Offenburg has so far developed four different types of tools, which come into being as a voluntary offer, when in each course around 130 teacher trainees started their final probationary training period of 18 month before entering the teaching profession. The first tool is a standardized entrance interview I and II, where we have constructed a set of questions, which deal with knowledge, skills and abilities, the teacher trainees think they have learned during their university studies. Entrance interview II one year later should demonstrate a learning process on a curved line, when we collate the answers from Entrance Interview I with Entrance Interview II. We realized very soon, that this instrument has some weak points. Many trainees answered the questions in a way, they understood them, which was sometimes quite far from what we wanted to know. Experiences with Project work has for example nowadays a very wide range and is often far from Dewey and Kilpatrick’s Project Work at the Chicago Laboratory School. The second tool was developed to erase these weak points by a personal ‘face to face’ interview in the sense of Lewin. With the help of a question sheet, in a ‘face to face’ situation, we ask the trainees about their school career, learning biography, visions and missions, etc. The answers are written down by the interviewer, signed by the interviewee and then taken to his own portfolio. This instrument was partly a success – a lot of trainees appreciated the personal contact – but others were a bit frightened about their mental model of a cross examination.

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27 You can find the Granada agreement, its indicators and the discussion on core competences on the APT homepage http://www.lh.ltu.se/apt/ram.htm. All materials, including the developed diagnostic tools from the seven countries are open to public use.

28 An overview on the different teacher education systems in the APT partner countries is also on the APT homepage.
(we had explained frequently, that the latter was not our intention, but some kept a certain mistrust, and answered very vaguely. The third instrument is the APT workshop, which is still on a voluntary basis. For one and a half day (mostly Friday afternoons and Saturdays) a group of six teacher trainees is guided to a backstage room, where a backstage persons cares for them. The trainees get exercises, which they can prepare in a certain amount of time and then present the results in another room to six observers, they do not know. The observers are specially trained for their observation, especially about the distinction between “observing” and “judging” and the technique of “observing” and writing down at the same time (which is not as easy as it looks). The three or four exercises range from single work (e.g. present for 5 minutes yourself to your new teacher colleagues) partner work (e.g. present to the department your plans for an outdoor stay of 5 days) and group work (e.g. plan and present to your colleagues your ideas for an open day at your school for parents and the local community). The exercises are watched by the observers in their preparation and their presentation and are always taken out of the future working field, typical teacher school tasks. After these exercises, the appraisees can give feedback on how they felt doing the exercises and then they leave with a date arranged (usually some days later) for the individual feedback. The real work then starts for the observers’ group. The following session of the observer group has three main topics: a) Flashlight about the person (a ‘gut reaction’) b) her/his strengths c) her/his learning fields. Only b) and c) are later reported to the person as the statement of the observer group.

Figure 5: Diagnostic tools developed and practised in Offenburg
All observed aspects are only laid down, if each observer agrees. One observer later must give feedback to the appraisee on the groups “observed common ground” with details, written down while he/she was exercising. The appraisee has the opportunity, to add his view to the laid down aspects. The closing procedure is the destruction of all used materials. All three tools are constantly evaluated, shortly before using them, shortly after the experiment and in a long range, one year after. The evaluation shows some remarkable results. A vast majority of trainees especially rank tool three very high, they are surprised about the outcomes of the observations on strengths and learning fields. On the other side, there is a clear borderline, which trainees do not want to be crossed: the use of the outcomes for assessments or examinations. They insist on a secured environment, in which they can decide, if, or how they use the results for their own reasons. A more pressurizing approach (in the sense of using the results for clearly outspoken offers, to improve the named learning fields) would clearly destroy the atmosphere of trust and the line of “support” we offer.

Conclusions
Findings from the OECD Project Attracting, Developing and Retaining Effective Teachers, 2004-2005 (with 25 countries participating and 10 countries visited by review teams) indicate that three broad conclusions emerge from research on student teacher learning:

1. Largest source of variation in student learning is attributable to differences in what students bring to school – their abilities and attitudes, and family and community background.
2. Of those variables which are potentially open to policy influence, factors to do with teachers and teaching are the most important influences on student learning.
3. It is difficult to predict who is going to be a good teacher just by considering the more measurable characteristics of teachers (e.g. qualifications, teaching experience, and indicators of academic ability and subject-matter knowledge).

The report declares clearly Policy priorities:
- Developing teachers’ knowledge and skills;
- Developing teacher profiles: Clear and concise standards of what teachers are expected to know and be able to do;
- Reflect broad range of competencies;
- Provide framework to guide and integrate initial teacher education, certification, induction and on-going professional development;
- The framework should be evidence-based and reflect student learning objectives and should be built on active involvement by teaching profession.

These priorities are not quite new – a lot of work is already on its way in these areas. What was new for us was the last named priority:

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29 See all three tools with the evaluation results under Outcomes Germany on the APT homepage
Broadening the criteria for teacher selection: The selection criteria for new teachers need to be broadened to ensure that the applicants with the greatest potential are identified.

Teacher appraisal to occur within a framework provided by profession-wide agreed statements of standards of professional performance.30

Potential analysis is one way, to identify the potential for teaching. We all know, that potential is not an objective and measurable term. Able teachers are not necessarily going to reach their full potential in settings that do not provide appropriate support or sufficient challenge and reward. Without a stimulating work environment, without a school management and leadership who show no interest or critical friendship in valuing and supporting teachers even the most potential teacher trainees will face after a certain period of time, that their potentials are not used. The water lily model shows, what happens then, especially in education system like Germany, where teachers are tied up to their profession for life: teachers show some “artefacts” of teaching, but their potential forms part of an inner emigration and is used for other purposes than teaching. The victims then are clearly the children, who need the highest quality teaching – for our and their future. To bring potential analysis into the education system is a small step forward, as Johann Wolfgang von Goethe quoted: “Die Menschen scherzen und bangen sich an den Lebensrätseln herum, wenige kümmern sich um die auflösenden Worte”31.

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31 Goethe, An Schiller, 12.7.1801; people make jokes and discuss the riddles of life, only a few care for the suspending words.
Abstract
This paper presents the ELTE programme offered by the University of Pardubice, Faculty of Humanities. The focus of the presentation is on a new model of teaching practice, the so-called Clinical Year, which is a compulsory component of the study programme. The Clinical Year is the one-year assistant practice of the students at primary and lower secondary schools. This paper introduces the theoretical background of this model of teaching practice, describes the roles of the participants in the Clinical Year (mentor, assistant, tutor) and analyses its benefits not only in terms of the development of the student’s professional competence, but also the development of co-operation between schools and the university.

Description of the context
In 2001/2002 a new model of pre-service teacher education was launched at University of Pardubice, Faculty of Humanities. It concerns the 5-year ELTE programme that provides full qualification for teaching English at primary and lower secondary schools (MA degree). The programme consists of several study modules – communication (a series of language development courses), linguistics (a group of subjects focused on theoretical study of English language, e.g. English syntax, morphology, lexicology, phonetics and phonology, etc.), cultural (a group of subjects aimed at increasing target culture awareness related to English speaking countries, e.g. British and American Literature, cultural studies, etc.), general module (ICT Basics, Philosophy, etc.), optional module (the group of subjects the students can choose from according to their own preferences, e.g. other foreign languages, etc.) and two professional development modules.
The focus of this article is on professional modules of the ELTE programme as they represent a unique model of pre-service teacher education in the Czech Republic. These modules are:

1. Professional development module, i.e. the integrated syllabus of three courses: general didactics & ELT methodology & short-term teaching practice; the courses of psychology, educational science, educational research methods, social skills for teachers, optional courses (e.g. teaching heterogeneous classes, multimedia in ELT, educational management, etc.)

2. Clinical Year, i.e. one whole year’s compulsory teaching practice of students in primary and lower secondary schools

Problems that gave rise to the action
The above described ELTE programme was designed in response to the most pressing issues arising from the debates on theoretical concept of teaching profession in the Czech Republic at the turn of the millennium. It is also based on the findings of the empirical research on novice teachers’ subjective perceptions of the most pertinent problems during their induction period.

The findings of the research documented a need to emphasise the personal dimension of the processes of professional learning. The novices were frequently unable to recognise, and even less to utilise their strengths and neutralise their weaknesses, whether in the classroom or in the staffroom. Their reactions to the perceived culture of their schools were often negative, emotional rather than rational, and they tended to generalise their experience. They also - in most cases - did not appreciate what they perceived as imposed autonomy, i.e. insufficient structured support scheme during the induction period. This increased the initial anxiety and often led to disappointment, to hypercritical attitude to the system and its institutions, a refusal to see the system as a whole (see Pišová 1999, 2000).

Objectives and expected outcomes
The results of the research mentioned above (Pišová 1999) provided incentives to innovate the ELTE programme offered by the University of Pardubice, Faculty of Humanities. All the implemented innovations are consistent with the concept of the teacher as a reflective practitioner (according to Schön 1983), which is based on the assumption that professional learning/development is achieved through constant reflection-on-action. Professional competence, the central concept in this model of professional learning, is perceived as “a set of operationalisable internal schemata/constructs/images which encompass internalised knowledge, reflected experience, self-awareness and professional value and belief systems, and which guide effected goal-oriented situated actions. It is initiated, sustained and promoted through informed reflection-on-action.” (Pišová 1999: 15)

Professional competence is then conceived as a holistic concept of an individual and flexible nature. Therefore, from the very beginning emphasis is put on integration, cooperation and reflection, which have proved to be the key words of the innovated ELTE programme (Pišová, Černá 2000). The core component of
this programme is the Clinical Year, i.e. the whole year teaching practice, with its objectives listed below:

- to facilitate professional learning
- to structure the experience / help to focus on immediate areas of concern and solve the problems
- to equip the trainees with specific reflective strategies and techniques (incl. tools) for the future
- to externalise mental processes and conceptualise their teaching

The overall aim of the Clinical Year could be then expressed as “high-level provision of real-life school experience crucial for trainees’ professional learning”. (Černá 2005: 83)

**Description of the action**

From the point of view of the Clinical year, there are three phases of professional development: the pre-clinical phase, the clinical phase, the reflective phase. The following table provides a brief summary of the content of the Professional development modules of the innovated ELTE programme at University of Pardubice, Faculty of Humanities:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year/form of study</th>
<th>Phase</th>
<th>Teaching practice and integrated courses and seminars</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st daily</td>
<td>Pre-clinical</td>
<td>Introductory courses – educational science, psychology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd daily</td>
<td>Pre-clinical</td>
<td>Observations + integrated reflective seminars</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd daily</td>
<td>Pre-clinical</td>
<td>Short teaching practice (2 weeks) + integrated didactic block, compulsory course <em>Preparation for the Clinical Year</em>, optional courses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4th distance learning</td>
<td>Clinical</td>
<td>Clinical Year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5th daily</td>
<td>Reflective</td>
<td>Reflective didactic seminar, diploma paper</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Clinical year represents a unique approach to teaching practice as a component of teacher education programmes in the Czech Republic in terms of its philosophy, allocated time, content and actions (Černá, Pišová 2002: 9). Let us, therefore, have a closer look at this particular model of teaching practice as one of the outcomes of innovative efforts of University of Pardubice, Faculty of Humanities.

**Outcomes**

The Clinical Year is built on a close partnership between the University and a range of primary and secondary schools. The acronym MAT, which belongs to the key terminology of the Clinical year, stands for its main participants – mentor, assistant, tutor.
It means that the trainee’s position at the school is that of an assistant. S/he is expected to co-operate with an experienced teacher, a mentor, who provides advice, guidance, help and support throughout the year and who evaluates the trainee’s development in areas of professional competence. The co-operation involves not only an institutional induction but also a wide range of activities focused both on teaching-related issues, i.e. observations, team teaching and the assistant’s own teaching including planning and evaluation, and on other activities outside the classroom, e.g. launching a project.

Students can either suggest a school of their preference or university tutors may be asked to find a placement for them. Negotiations with the selected schools are initiated and if the schools are interested in the project, a bilateral contract is endorsed to legally support the co-operation between the institutions. Then, a student placed in a particular school signs a document Resolution on Allocation the School for the purpose of Teaching Practice, by which s/he recognises rights and duties stemming from an assistantship. (Černá 2005; also Pišová 2005; Černá, Pišová 2002, etc.)

Another responsibility of university tutors is to provide both the mentors and the assistants with a thorough introduction to the Clinical Year. Assistants have to fulfil the requirements of the course Preparation for the Clinical Year during the last semester of their pre-clinical stage of study, mentors are invited to participate in one-day training meeting at the University of Pardubice. Two more meetings of the mentors are organised by the tutors at University of Pardubice during the year. Besides, individual mentors’ needs are catered for either during the tutors’ regular visits to the schools or via MAT Forum, which is accessible for the authorised users at the Internet as the main communicative channel among the participants of the Clinical Year and also as a specific learning environment extending the opportunities for professional learning (see Černá 2005; also http://matforum.upce.cz ). Also a brochure (a guide) has been published for the mentors who participate in the Clinical year (Pišová, Černá 2002).

The ways of co-operation between mentor and assistant and between mentor and tutor have been described above. The co-operation between tutor and assistant will be presented in the following chapter as an evidence of a specific role of tutor in the process of facilitating professional learning of the assistants.

Evidence
Throughout the Clinical Year, tutors should be viewed as one of the sources of support of the assistants’ professional learning, together with the mentor, school culture, other assistants and other critical friends. (Pišová 2005)

Tutor-assistant co-operation is centred around six projects that the assistants are obliged to complete within the school year. Their sequence, focus and reflective technique used correspond with the stages assistants go through when coping with the challenges of the Clinical Year. The focus changes from institutional culture, via learning about the self and classroom competence to material development and
curriculum design. Reflective techniques are deployed in the following order: first, a written diary, then a questionnaire and survey, observation, lesson report, audio and video recording, and finally, action research. A brief summary of the projects is presented below:

- **Project 1 – Reflective journal**
  - focus: professional induction
  - technique: portfolio, clinical writing

- **Project 2 - Professional self**
  - focus: self-awareness, self-management
  - technique: questionnaires, interviews

- **Project 3 – Classroom competence I**
  - focus: professional learning I
  - technique: observations, video recording

- **Project 4 - Towards change in the classroom**
  - focus: professional learning II
  - technique: action research

- **Project 5 – Teaching aids swop shop**
  - focus/technique: textbook evaluation and materials design (including ICT4ELT – some of the products of the students are accessible at http://www.hotpot.wz.cz)

- **Project 6 – Curriculum design**
  - focus/technique: primary and lower secondary ELT curriculum design

*Tutors* meet *assistants* in traditional face-to-face sessions, which have a format of half-day seminars at the University held at intervals of approximately six weeks on Saturdays. Also, *tutors’* visits to schools provide opportunities for personal encounters. The mediated mode of communication is necessarily deployed in this context. MAT Forum is an important technological tool to support communication and learning (more about MAT Forum-based learning activities that constitute an obligatory part of the projects – see Černá 2005).

**Reactions of people involved**

Another responsibility of university *tutors* is to analyse the effectiveness of the Clinical Year on continual basis and if necessary, to modify it according to the needs of its participants. Therefore, asking for feedback both from *assistants* and from *mentors* is an integral part of this particular model of teaching practice. Some examples of both *mentor* and also *assistant* voices are stated below.

The following evaluative comment was provided by one of the *mentors* who decided to share her experience at the international conference organised by ATECR (Association of Teachers of English of the Czech Republic):
• “The Clinical Year was experience for me. A great one. Not only a student-teacher got a practical input of the teaching profession, but me as a mentor I had the necessity to think about my work. I was enriched and I hope that all others participating in this programme feel the same.”

(Literová A., in Píšová et al. 2004: 19)

As regards the assistants, at the end of the Clinical Year they are always asked not only to provide an overall evaluation of their experience but also to use their own metaphorical expressions when answering the question: What was it like? Some of the metaphors are stated below:

• the first long step into teaching reality
• I feel like climbing a mountain
• at the beginning of the school year I felt like an empty cup, now I feel fulfilled
• someone who does not only look – but can actually see (at least something)
• sunshine with raindrops

(see Píšová 2005)

The final comment of one of the assistants at the end of the Clinical Year was deliberately chosen in order to document the reflective nature of the ELTE programme offered by University of Pardubice, Faculty of Humanities:

• “There were times when I was really down and pessimistic - but now it’s gone. I have learnt a lot, I am more self-confident - and I also realise that there is nothing like a perfect teacher or even a perfect lesson. There is always something to improve, to change for better - and it’s fine as far as I am concerned. I really feel like a learner and I am positive about it.”

Conclusions and implications for the future
The innovated ELTE programme with its core component – the Clinical Year – has been in practice for four years. The findings of the research studies focused on some aspects of the Clinical Year document that from the perspective of developing professional competence of student-teachers it proved to be to a large extent effective (Píšová 2005, Černá 2005). The experience related to the Clinical Year has been presented several times at both national and international conferences. The presentations were given not only by university tutors but also by mentors (Literová, A. in Píšová et al. 2004 – see the comment in the previous chapter), and even by assistants (Sochová, K. in Pišová et al. 2004; Vrbová, L. in Vrbová, Brebera 2005).

Besides, the existence of the Clinical Year has contributed significantly to a successful development of a mutual co-operation between University of Pardubice and primary/lower secondary schools from many regions of the Czech Republic. More than 50 schools have participated in the Clinical Year so far and the feedback they provide is mostly positive and constructive.
The efforts of the University of Pardubice, Faculty of Humanities, in the area of pre-service teacher education are traditionally directed towards continual improvement of its ELTE programme. The needs of all the participants in the Clinical Year - namely trainees and primary/secondary schools - are constantly reflected so that all the parties involved might have an opportunity to participate in the process of shaping the system of teacher education in the Czech Republic. The future activities of University of Pardubice, Faculty of Humanities, will be extended more towards other institutions of pre-service education and the current series of 2 brochures – i.e. *For mentors* (in Czech) and *For assistants* (in English) - will be soon complemented by the third brochure - *For tutors*.

**References**


Websites:

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*Chapter 12: Practice in teacher training* 141
Pavel Brebera, Monika Černá and Michaela Pišová are teacher trainers and researchers at the Department of English and American Studies, Faculty of Humanities, University of Pardubice, also responsible for the professional development modules of the ELTE study programme including the Clinical year teaching practice.
Chapter 13: Can everyone teach? Is school out of date?

Round Table Discussions at the Prague Conference

At the network’s Prague Conference 2005 a number of Round Table sessions took place, having the purpose to collaboratively reflect on, discuss and answer to some mind-provoking statements and questions related to the new role of the teacher. The results from four of these sessions are presented below.

‘In team work you lose your own personality’

by the observer Gyöngyi Fábian (HU) and the moderator Helen Masani (UK)

Team: Different and common features

Question 1
- How is a school or college like a football team?
- What are the most important features?

The discussion started with the observation of some sequences of a football match which triggered a conversation over the common and distinct features of sport team activities and team teaching.
The relationships of teams

In comparison with a football team, team teaching was found specific in that it can be realised in various forms (e.g. student–student; teacher–student; teacher–teacher), the activity is characterised with a multi-goal feature; the methodology of action shows a great variety, and, in addition, the space and time of practice demonstrates diversity.

But for the differences all forms of team work are characterised by the common features of sharing. The most common aspects of sharing are listed below:

Sharing …
- goals,
- responsibilities,
- ideology,
- values,
- attitudes,
- knowledge,
- strategies,
- achievement. and
- consequences.

Besides the act of sharing, team work has other fundamental principles, among which the following were found crucial. The members of the team are able to act successfully if they plan and initiate actions and then act on common grounds of ideology, values and attitudes. Efficient communication is needed to share goals, strategies, knowledge and others. Within the team a variety of roles is taken up by the members, each representing a distinct set of responsibilities and knowledge.

Successful team work results in transferable new knowledge, which lends itself to dissemination outside the boundaries of the team.
Personality

Question 2

- What do we mean by personality?
- Do you ever need to lose your personality for the good of the team?

During the next stage the relationship between personality and team teaching was discussed. The biological and genetic roots of personality development have been discussed by studies in human ethology (Bereczkei 1992; Csányi 1999, 2000). The current structure of personality is the result of the co-evolution process of man and culture (Csányi 1980; Eibl-Eibsfeldt 1989), and thus, personality cannot be discussed without understanding some basic theories of human ethology.

The studies of the discipline have also served as the starting point of a number of social psychological theories of personality (Argyle 1994).

In the following, we will conceptualise the findings of the discussion within the framework of a pedagogical theory of personality, which was developed, among others, on the current theories of evolution, ethology and social psychology.

The competencies of personality

From recent pedagogical perspective the concept of personality is defined as a bio–social componential system (Nagy, 2000), whose three main components are the personal, social and cognitive competencies of the individual. Out of the basic competencies, as a fourth component, some specialised competencies develop, which might become vital in one’s professional life. Each component can further be reduced to genetically inherited and learned components, which become active during the activities of the personality.
Personality and team

Question 3

- Can you be a personality and still be a team member?
- How can we make the most of the different personalities within the team?

From the discussion it can be concluded that although the team member takes part in the team activity with the whole of his personality, out of the three main components it is the social competence of his personality that plays vital importance in taking a role, in becoming a part, in contributing to and adopting the rules. Acting successfully as a member needs specific qualities (e.g. flexibility), abilities (e.g. to share, to take responsibility), social skills (e.g. communication, facilitation, co-operative) as well as specific knowledge which is related to the team, its work and its members. The features mentioned above, and some others, all contribute to and further develop through working in co-operation with others.

Some features of personality which might hinder the efficiency of team work were also mentioned. For instance, in lack of respect for others or of ability to adjust one might fail to take part or develop the work of the team. Another basic component of personality is personal competence. Self recognition, self respect, mental balance and fundamental personality traits may all facilitate or hinder the success of the team. Extreme cases, such as alcohol-addiction or selfishness were mentioned as examples causing difficulties.

The individual takes part in the activities of the team with his given cognitive competences, which are further developed through team work.

Conclusion

So:

- Do we think that you lose your personality when you are part of a team?

In summary, it can be stated that out of the three basic competencies of personality each takes part in and contributes to the success of the work of the team and, at the same time, develops through it. We can conclude that team work is of great benefit at the level of the individual, of the team, and, furthermore, beyond that. At this point, we should remember that personal and cognitive competencies might develop through individual endeavours, however, social competencies, which are needed to interact with other members successfully, only develop in partnership with others.

This latter idea raises the issue of individual and cultural differences which might develop as the outcome of differences in the learning environment of the individual and cultural group. Our intention is to draw the readers’ attention to the
importance of creating the perfect learning environment for a balanced personality development, the methods of which might serve as a crucial area for further studies.

References

‘Is there any need to build teachers’ and learners’ self-esteem?’

*by the observer András Tarnóc (HU) and the moderator Luísa Carreira (PT)*

The workshop titled “Any need to build teachers’ and learners’ self-esteem?” explored the issue of psychological and personal reinforcement concerning the learner and the teacher. While everyone agrees that in the knowledge-based society the educational process has to be radically altered and new thinking and attitudes have to result in the shift of the educational paradigm, less is spoken about the psychological impact of such changes on students and teachers alike.

The round table session included participants from the UK, Portugal, Hungary and Ireland. The participants formed three groups and each group selected a question to discuss from the five questions proposed by the facilitator. The questions focused on the issue of self-esteem both from the teacher’s and student’s point of view.

The round table session discussed the following questions:
Teacher’s point of view

What makes you think you are a good teacher?

The discussion provided the following answers. Whether one is considered a good or bad teacher depends on several factors as teachers operate in a complex environment composed of the educational system, the school organisation, students, colleagues and parents. Consequently, the answers to be given to this question can be either formed along the lines of process or result oriented thinking. While intangible markers include the opinions of the abovementioned audiences, examination scores, attendance figures, formal evaluations can provide concrete indicators. Furthermore, another less objective, or tangible, yet important indicator of the teacher’s self-evaluation is his or her own self-image and the respective attitude to the teaching process.

What does school and teaching give you?

This is a question educational professionals often ask themselves and the answer provided greatly influences the respective teacher’s attitude to school and students. School, teaching, or the job of the educator provides several results. First of all, it is a rewarding experience as teachers can shape the future of the students and society itself. A teacher’s work is future oriented, in fact working in this capacity he or she expresses her hope for the future. Teaching offers individual rewards as the job well done promotes personal satisfaction and a sense of usefulness to society.

How can cooperation between teachers build self-confidence?

Team teaching or cooperation among teachers can provide psychological reinforcement, mutual professional motivation and emotional support.

Learner’s point of view

"I can’t learn this!"

A student’s admission of his or her inability to acquire the required knowledge is not necessarily negative development. This can be interpreted as a signal to the teacher that the student requires additional attention, it points out the need for the human touch and provides feedback to the teacher on the efficiency of his or her effort. Furthermore, it can also indicate a need for the adjustment of the applied methodology. However, this could also mean that the student refuses to take the responsibility for the learning process and rejects the teacher as a guide in the learning effort.

The importance of emotion to develop self-esteem

The incorporation of emotional aspects in the educational process on the part of teachers and learners can make learning more successful. It should not be forgotten that despite all methodological, infrastructure, and content-based developments and achievements, teaching and learning are essentially forms of human communication and thus the attention to human emotional needs is indispensable.
“Papers shouldn’t bleed red ink”
This statement primarily indicates the need for positive feedback. Emphasis on the positive provides a sense of success for the student and functions as an important motivator for academic excellence. Marking or grading thus should not be result, but process oriented. Learning is a continuous process and the mistakes made are milestones on the road leading to educational success.

In conclusion it can be stated that the round table discussion was successful. It achieved its goal to evoke thought and provoke its members to contribute to the never-ending effort of improving the work of an educator.


‘Good teachers give no answers’

by the observer Bente Pedersen (DK) and the moderator Birgitta Andersson (SE)

At the introduction the participants in the workshop were told that there are neither right nor wrong answers to a statement of this kind. However, reflecting on and answering this statement is a contribution to a better understanding and sharing of experience which will result in new thoughts that in turn enhance personal and professional development.

The session started by participants introducing themselves to each other. They walked around in the room, stopped in front of a colleague, and presented themselves. If they might have the same professional task, they may stop and have a chat; if not, they had to go to the next person. After that they were asked to sit down in groups of three and give a short presentation of themselves.

After the introduction people were asked to form new groups and discuss one or two of these questions:

- Do we teach pupils to ask questions?
- Good teachers give answers-when?
- Good teachers give no answers-when?
- Why ask questions?
- In what way can we learn about learners learning?
- How do we know what we have learned?
- Who is responsible for the learners learning?
- What is the vision?

The groups had about 10-15 minutes to discuss the questions.
The aim was:
• to learn more about each others thoughts
• to look upon things from different perspectives
• to have a discussion with “no wrong and right answers”

The result of the discussion was presented in a method called “the hot chair”, where six chairs were placed in a circle. Four persons, one from each group, were sitting in the circle together with the round table leader, and discussing what they have talked about in the groups. One chair was empty. Whenever another person outside the circle wanted to say something, he or she was invited to sit down on the empty chair.

The conclusions of the discussions were:
• Questions may develop the students’ thoughts.
• When/if the students are able to ask questions, they also want to know the answer.
• Asking questions lead to knowledge. The students have to find the answers themselves, they get curious.
• Teachers shall encourage the pupils to find the answers themselves.
• The teachers shall listen to the pupils before he/she gives the answer.
• Pupils must find the information themselves by help of the teacher.
• The teacher is going to be an adviser.
• Questions are good when they are “open not closed” yes and no answers.
• We have to create a new culture of asking questions.
• Children need basic skills so they are able to find the answers themselves.

‘Can everyone teach?’

by the observer Tony Hayes (UK) and the moderator Wiebe Goodijk (NL)

The group that debated this question quickly agreed that there was a distinction between teaching that naturally occurs between a parent and their child, and that of the formal role of a teacher, designated and approved by society to teach its young people.

In the former, it can be seen that all animals model behaviour for the benefit of their offspring. Young animals are taught to hunt or to fly and young people are instructed about the ways of the world by their parents and grandparents. Children are taught to be polite and well mannered (hopefully) and about the dangers of the road or electricity. If concerned with this group, the answer to the question ‘Can everyone teach?’ would be ‘Yes’. 
However, everyone felt that this is not the group that we, as members of the Learning Teacher Network, should be concerned with. We are teachers, headteachers and teacher trainers and as such should be concerned with those that society designates as ‘teachers’.

Each society, chooses, trains and then accredits certain individuals to teach its young people, to prepare them for the society in which they live and to ensure that they become productive and happy members of that society.

Although it was agreed that some people have certain natural characteristics that allow them to become a good teacher, such as empathy, charisma or natural authority, it was felt by the group that teaching needs to be learned. A person, interested in working with children, with the right social skills and love of children, needs to go through a state sponsored programme to develop the competences necessary to become a teacher within that society.

A teacher must have integrity, patience, stamina and a sense of humour. He or she needs to be able to empower children to learn, to manage their own learning, to be able to challenge children to have high expectations of themselves and to understand the value of their mistakes.

That teacher also needs an understanding of the role of the teacher within that particular society, the rules under which he or she will be working and that society’s expectations of a teacher and of the children in his or her charge.

However, there was some concern that occasionally people could go through a training programme without the right attitude, social skills and knowledge base and gain the necessary qualification to work as a teacher in a school but may not be good or effective teachers.

Perhaps then, the question should not be ‘Can everyone teach?’ but ‘Can everyone teach successfully?’ The answer to that question is ‘no’.

‘School is out of date!’

by the observer Christina Johansson (SE) and the moderator Ivan Lorenčič (SI)

Background
The changes in society are rapid. Young people meet new technology, which demands new skills. The vacancy advertisements of today ask for qualities like
flexibility, cooperation, creativity skills, critical thinking. The international exchanges increase, borders are no longer an obstacle to conquer.

With this in mind, it’s obvious that learning today cannot be the same as it was some years ago. If you ask learners what they think, you get answers like:

“School is too rigid”
“School is too traditional”
“The curriculum is not connected to real life”
“It’s easier to get the same information through internet”
“Teachers don’t know the problems of young people”
and the list could go on.

The current situation
What then are the reasons that school does not go along with the changes in society?
Obviously there are innumerable problems that affect the situation.

In this round table discussion with participants from different countries, different cultures, different systems, different realities, you might think that there would be difficulties in agreeing on the statement. However, there was total unanimity. School is out of date.

The problems are of a practical as well as theoretical nature. These are some of them:
- is it necessary to have classes in classrooms?
- the changing of schoolbuildings between primary and secondary school
- traditional timetables
- the system of hiring staff
- in service training is not up to date
- evaluation is not adequate
- teachers are not prepared to shift
- inappropriate grading

Conclusions from the round table session
In order to go along with the changes in society, school has to change its rigidity. It has to become flexible in regard to organisation as well as to curriculum, open to shifting methods of teaching, teach life skills, re-evaluate the importance of subjects, take in other sources of learning, evaluate the system as well as the results and accept the new demands of society.

Teachers must be re-educated and prepared through the in-service training for these new demands. They must be willing to identify the problems of the learners and connect their teaching to the learner’s reality. Learners must be seen holistically and their progress measured using methods other than traditional exams. Teachers must evaluate their teaching in order to become better teachers.

**Good teachers make a difference.**
Towards Learning Design for the Information Age

Simon Walker and Malcolm Ryan

Abstract
Many teachers’ practices, particularly in Higher Education (HE), still tend to be predicated on theories of instructional design that are better suited to a transmissive model of education. In Europe, the transformation from an industrial to an informational society has an impact on the curriculum, on the relationships between teachers and learners and on the learning environments in all sectors. Teachers and learners are increasingly exploiting the unique affordances of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) tools to support learning in face to face, blended or distance modes. However, in order to understand the changes that are required in their role, teachers need to link research with practice. Although not a new idea, the term ‘learning design’ has emerged as a means of describing a range of learner and teacher practices which is focused on learner activity and integrates the appropriate use of ICT. A further complication with the use of this terminology is that an internationally agreed technical specification for describing the development and management of activity based eLearning is also called “Learning Design”. This paper will discuss differences in these concepts and identify key issues for practitioners who are moving towards a technology-enhanced practice informed by learning design.

Introduction
Vermunt and Verloop (1999) suggest that teachers tend to work in similar ways when they start to plan a lesson or course. They employ an implicit design idea based on 'knowledge transmission', starting with the content. This is the body of
knowledge, concepts and skills students are to learn at particular levels. Then the order or sequence is considered; for example, should their learners know topic A before they can tackle topic B? Should they acquire certain skills before moving onto the next stage e.g. keyboard skills before Word Processing? Should they have acquired particular concepts before they can understand new material? Then there is the question of pace. How much time should be allocated to a topic? If too little time is spent, some students will get left behind; if too much time is spent the course may not be completed and some students may become bored & disruptive. Then there is the identification of the potential resources that constitutes the body of knowledge, such as facts, figures, tools and lastly, the sorts of assessment methods that might be best employed to test whether the knowledge has been acquired.

This whole process is usually conceptualized within the context of an undifferentiated class of learners. Economies of scale are employed as one teacher transmits knowledge to many learners. Irrespective of sector, level or age of learner, traditional learning environments are designed to facilitate this model. Desks and chairs are commonly placed in rows and students sit in lines facing the front. Students too, expect to learn in comparatively straightforward ways. They generally listen, think, take notes, revise and are tested on the knowledge the teacher has imparted.

This instructional design model of teaching predominates in many teacher training courses. It is supported by a set of well known educational theories. Influenced by work in the later decades of the twentieth century by such theorists as Bloom (1956), Gagné and Briggs (1979) efficiencies in learning were seen to be gained by adopting an approach that featured an analysis of learning objectives and learning outcomes that cascade through the lesson plan and determine the pace, order and types of activities used. This is still seen as good practice in teaching, but in reality, a student-centred approach is rarely applied and many teachers tend to revert to teaching content rather than following through on well articulated and simply stated learning outcomes (Koper, 2003:51)

Designing for active learning
Western countries are moving from an industrial to an informational society, where information processing and knowledge generation - “the knowledge economy” lies at the heart of practices at work and in society generally (Hargreves, 1999; Castells, 1998). Governments recognise that prosperity is increasingly dependent on intellectual rather than physical capital, and emphasise the need for rapid re-skilling and knowledge generation. In an industrial society, which developed clear boundaries of work, status and hierarchy, the outcome of the educational mission was the reproduction of knowledge and skills and the rehearsal of given facts and procedures rather than the production of knowledgeability or the development of creativity (Guile & Young 1998). Writing two decades ago, James Botkin (1979:10) argues that “school on a world-wide basis is hopelessly out of date … more hours, more homework, more science and math have been the guiding principles rather than new teamwork, focus on values,
or holistic learning.” It would appear that educational institutions are doing an excellent job in using an obsolete model for learning.

In response to the technological and economic restructuring that is now a feature of the global landscape, views on the effectiveness of the instructional design model are beginning to change. Educational and training organisations are searching for new approaches to enhance learning and increase effectiveness (Desforges, 2001, Davis N, 2002, Dobbs, 2002). The context for change is driven by a number of factors:

- The rapid rate of change in the knowledge base: education and training must become a lifelong process as traditional schooling and university provision cannot meet these lifelong learning demands for supplying the needs of the knowledge society/economy

- Learner demands: increasingly learners are looking for more flexible ways of accessing education and training

- The need for individualised and personalised approaches: more learners are now seeking experiences that are contextualized to their own situation and customized to their own learning style

- Research in pedagogy: learners actively construct new ideas by building and testing hypotheses, often through collaborative activities and dialogue; learners develop their identity through participation in specific communities and practices (Duffy and Cunningham 1996, Dougiamas, 1998, Wenger 1998, Mayes & de Freitus 2004)

- Rapid development in information and communication technologies: e-Learning is now part of organizational change strategies in many education and training institutions. These are often driven by government initiatives and funding bodies, e.g. The Office for Standards in Education (OFSTED), The Adult Learning Inspectorate (ALI) and the Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE) in the UK. In addition, increasing familiarity with interactive and immersive environments provided by computer games and high quality video and audio entertainment delivered by DVD, CD-ROM and broadband, increases expectations of their use in education and training resources.

In this emerging educational context, differences in the role of the teacher mean that a far greater emphasis is placed upon the design of learning activities. The relationship between content and the ways in which knowledge is learned is changing. Instead of content delivery via the teacher having primacy, learning occurs through active learner engagement (often social) in which learners construct their own understandings.
The change in pedagogical approach requires a methodology that incorporates activities for learners to perform as individuals or in groups to maximise learning at deeper levels. Discussions, problem-solving exercises, individual and collaborative research, simulations, mimicry, role-plays, mind-mapping, and a variety of real world enquiry-based learning and assessment methods play a part. The use of such techniques has an immediate impact on students where participation, interaction and communication are expected. Putting the learner centre-stage means that the students are responsible for his/her own learning processes rather than the teacher or an institute (Koper 2004:2).

Whether the change in instructional theory is sufficiently dramatic to constitute “a new paradigm of instruction” as Reigeluth (1999:27) suggests, or whether it is a more evolutionary process, the term “learning design” has emerged to encapsulate the various dimensions of learning within the context of learning and teaching with technology.

Learning design as a general concept
Oliver and Herrington (2001) see learning design as a contemporary term that is replacing instructional or educational design, although these terms are often used interchangeably. They suggest that the focus on learning is more in line with constructivist learning theories and concentrates on learning rather than teaching. Writers, researchers, academics, trainers and teachers from across the educational spectrum understand the term ‘learning design’ to be extremely wide ranging, especially within the context of the knowledge society and the increasing adoption of technologies in learning.

In a review of e-learning theories, frameworks and models, Mayes and de Freitas (2004:4) conclude that “there are really no models of e-learning per se – only e-enhancements of models of learning”. What this means is that with the appropriate use of technology, learners can achieve better learning outcomes, or a more effective assessment of these outcomes, or a more cost-efficient way of bringing the learning environment to the learners.

The implication, then, for teachers who operate within a technology-enhanced model of education is that they need to reconsider their approach to designing learning. In the 'Designing for learning' theme of the JISC eLearning programme in the UK, a model for learning activity design was produced to represent "the process of designing, planning, orchestrating and supporting activities for learners, as part of a learning session or programme" (Knight, 2004:3). The general approach that the teacher adopts may be based upon a range of factors, such as their experience, knowledge of their learners and their preferences, their understanding of learning theory, the type of intended outcomes required and the nature of the environment and the mode (face to face, blended or distance). The focus is firmly placed on learning activity within the context of a selected pedagogical approach. Simply stated, a learning activity is defined as “an interaction between a learner and an environment leading to a planned outcome”. (HEFCE 2004:12)
Figure 1: adapted from a specification for learning activities H Beetham 2004.

In a technology-enhanced environment, the teacher may design learning activities using a range of appropriate approaches. Scribbins and Powell (2003) use a fan diagram (figure 2) to illustrate the variety of ways in which electronic media and resources can enable and support effective teaching and learning.
Each segment of the fan represents an approach which is appropriate to the needs of the learner. For example, the first segment supporting learning indicates the sort of learning activity that takes place outside scheduled classes that complements or supports the main programme. This might comprise research on the web, reinforcement or revision exercises.

The second segment illustrates the sorts of activities that might enhance and support traditional teaching, such as the use of PowerPoint, graphics, spreadsheets, PDF documents or word-processed documents to present information via handouts or, using a data projector, a projected visual display. The third segment represents a critical use of ICT in learning; the learning event could not be conducted without the integration of ICT. Up to this point, the teacher could manage without using ICT. The type of ICT integration or ‘blend’ will depend on local contexts and preferences but might constitute the use of computers or other eLearning tools and objects within a face to face class, or mix online work either before or after face to face meetings. In order to work, this approach needs to be well planned and may involve changes in timetable, work patterns, delivery processes and assessment. The fourth segment indicates a situation whereby learners may access either some or their entire programme at any time that computers are available when the college is open, including non-scheduled times. The final segment shows a situation where access to learning is at any and all times. It would require remote access from any location and would typically be supported by online peer and tutor communication. This may suit
particular learners who work in particular contexts, such as work based learning, professional development, prison education, children excluded from school and distance learning. As the fan unfolds from left to right, the degree of learner autonomy increases and the amount of intervention and direct teacher control decreases. It is incorrect to make the assumption that teachers and learners should move progressively around the fan. This would suggest that institutions should adopt remote solutions as being the best approach to learning. The approaches to using e-learning should instead be viewed as a set of opportunities to enhance and support learning to meet the changing needs of learners, whether as individuals or in groups working together.

![Figure 3: Some constituents of learning design](image)

“Learning design” as a term for practical usage refers to a variety of ways of designing student learning experiences, that is, a sequence of types of activities and interactions. It can be considered as the framework that supports student learning experiences that are grounded in outcomes-based learning and employ flexible approaches which are often integrated with information and communication technologies (figure 3).

**Learning Design as a technical concept**
eLearning provides opportunities for a range of applications and services, such as digital materials storage and distribution (presentation), synchronous and asynchronous communication, simulative interactivity, multimedia, and tracking of processes. In other words, eLearning can make information available and play a part in the construction of understanding. It is important to note that technology is neither content nor process, but it can be used to provide access to both.
The IMS Global Learning Consortium, a worldwide non-profit organization that develops open technical specifications to support distributed learning, has adopted the name, ‘Learning Design’ (spelled as a proper name and referred by the abbreviation IMS-LD) to describe a technical specification that supports the use of a wide range of pedagogies in online learning. The idea is to provide developers with sufficient information built around an agreed standard to enable software tools to be built for practitioners. IMS-LD provides a generic and flexible language which enables many different pedagogies to be expressed.

The process of knowledge construction is something that humans perform quite naturally but not all learners are equally capable of effective and efficient learning on their own. The exploitation of eLearning within education and training organisations has tended to concentrate on content delivery and assessment with few opportunities for interaction or knowledge construction. The implementation and use of Virtual Learning Environments (VLEs) in UK education, such as WebCT, Blackboard, Moodle or the National Grids for Learning (NGfLs) is widespread, yet there is concern that pedagogical issues have been of secondary importance.

The content-delivery model has assumed primacy at the expense of a variety of other dynamic pedagogical models that are built around collaborative activities on the part of learners. There is a feeling of unease amongst learning design practitioners that the transmissive model is mirrored in eLearning, often in the form of re-usable learning objects (RLO’s) where the only form of interaction consists of ‘page-turning’ of static content which often leads to a loss of motivation and learner engagement. Whilst VLEs are becoming more sophisticated in their provision of communication tools, in comparison to face-to-face alternatives, the pedagogical choices available to teachers and learners remain narrow.

The IMS Learning Design specification has been developed to broaden the set of activities used to support learning in an e-learning context and provides the following rationale (Britain, 2004: 2)

1. People learn better when actively involved in doing something (i.e. are engaged in a learning activity)

2. Learning activities may be sequenced or otherwise structured carefully and deliberately in a learning workflow to promote more effective learning.

3. It would be useful to be able to record ‘learning designs’ for sharing and re-use in the future.

At the heart of Learning Design is the idea that Learners perform Activities in an Environment with Resources. This statement uses the metaphor of a theatrical play to describe the workflow involved in a learning and teaching scenario and
expresses the key components and relationships common to all major educational approaches involved in learning (Koper, 2001).

One of the most recent and significant software developments and probably the one that has generated the high level of interest in “Learning Design”, is the Learning Activity Management System (LAMS) created by James Dalziel of MacQuarie University. LAMS is an online web-based system for creating, managing and delivering sequences of collaborative learning activities. Although LAMS does not actually implement the IMS-LD specification, it does embody the core ideas behind the specification in that it focuses on creating sequences of activities, rather than content. One of the highly attractive features of LAMS is that it provides a simple and highly intuitive user interface that allows the course designer to drag and drop LAMS activity tools into the workspace and use connecting arrows to organise the activities into a sequential workflow (figure 4). The learner view is given in figure 5.

![Figure 4: Lams - author view](image-url)
One problem with LAMS with regard to the goals of Learning Design is that sequences cannot be exported for use or re-use in other environments. LAMS sequences can only be run within LAMS. However they can, and have been, shared by other members of the LAMS community. (Masterman et al 2005:26)

**Issues for the learning teacher**

From the teacher’s perspective there are a number of distinct advantages associated with moving towards a learning design approach for the 21st century. Learning design can provide a framework for teachers to reflect in creative and deeper ways about how they design and structure activities for different learners or groups of learners. However, for this to be effective at an organisational level, a dialogue needs to take place among stakeholders in the organisation. The teaching profession is known in some circles as the “loneliest profession”, and has earned this name because many teachers, whilst working in highly social contexts with learners, work in comparative isolation from their colleagues. Although often managerial rather than supportive, the current inspection regime imposed upon staff in the UK has, at least, started to unlock this situation but the culture of sharing good practice and team teaching remains marginal in many organisations. Learning designs that prove to be effective should be communicated and shared between teachers or, if using an IMS-LD activity sequence, archived for re-use for future occasions.

A number of fundamental principles might serve to specifically guide the integration of e-learning in learning design (Noble, 2005).

- acknowledgement of the effectiveness of the learning design approach and the utility of exploiting e-learning in helping support improvements in the enhancement of learning
• the potential for cost effective solutions to supporting diverse groups of learners
• all staff should have access to training in the new methodologies
• a range of e-learning tools and objects that are ‘fit for purpose’ should be adopted rather than single solutions of the “one size fits all” variety.
• Dissemination of existing good practice in design for learning and the use of appropriate tools and reusable learning objects

Conclusion
If we are to operate successfully as teachers within an information society then we need to revisit our understanding of instructional design and embrace new models of, and approaches to, learning and teaching. The appropriate exploitation of ICT can provide new, unique and enhanced learning opportunities that are possibly better suited to preparing the citizens of the 21st Century. However, a major implication for teachers who specifically operate within a technology-enhanced model of education is that they need to reconsider their approach to designing learning. Learning design in the 21st century provides a framework that can better support student learning experiences. These must be grounded in outcomes-based learning but employ flexible approaches that will often exploit information and communication technologies. The claims that are made about the ways in which technology can enhance learning are more likely to be realised if teachers focus on the delivery of content to the detriment of planning sequences of activities to enable and enhance understanding. The use of appropriate learning design tools such as LAMS is one way of achieving the necessary move away from teacher-centred, transmissive, content-led pedagogies to those that are more student-centred, immersive and process-oriented, leading to deeper and more meaningful learning.

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A learning community is:

a group of people who are socially interdependent, who participate together in discussion and decision making, and who share certain practices that both define the community and are nurtured by it. Such a community is not quickly formed. It almost always has a history and so is also a community of memory, defined in part by its past and its memory of the past. (Bellah, et al. 1985, p. 333 in Rovai, 2002)

Members of a community have a feeling of “belonging, a feeling that members matter to one another and to the group, and a shared faith that members’ needs will be met through their commitment to be together” (McMillan and Chavis, 1986, p. 9). A community is the “result of interaction and deliberation by people brought together by similar interests and common goals (Westheimer & Kahne, 1993, in Rovai, 2002), or as an environment in which people interact in a cohesive manner, continually reflecting upon the work of the group while always respecting the differences individual members bring to the group (Graves, 1992). Hence essential elements of a community might be seen as: mutual interdependence among members, sense of belonging, connectedness, spirit, trust, interactivity, common expectations, shared values and goals, and overlapping histories among members (Rovai, 2002). The effective collaboration can lead to
well co-ordinated activities and practices and a sense of connection, belonging and support (Fullan, 1999) as indicated in the illuminations of practice. As a result there is more capacity for sustaining improvements and the core values that underlie them.

Learning Communities are ubiquitous phenomena within the current education environment. They are subject to a myriad of terminology and nomenclature (Wenger et al, 2002). The objectives of these communities vary to some extent but there are some common areas which are in line with those identified by Networked Learning Communities (NLCs) a national initiative supported by National College for School Leadearship (NCSL) which include:

- Improvement of the learning achievements of pupils across schools and how to improve it further.
- Increasing expertise and skills of adults both to enact these improvements in pupils learning in the classroom and beyond and the ability of adults to engage in professional learning.
- Ensuring that leaders of networked activities and processes are able to learn how to lead these by accessing the best possible knowledge sources by enquiring into these developing practices.
- Development and management in ways, which motivate members, optimise impact and ensure sustainability
- Evidence of the scope breadth and impact of the network and how it can inform practice of others.

Building a networked learning community usually relies on an organisation taking the initiative by identifying the need to network, identifying the best partner(s) available and choosing an appropriate contract to formalise the alliance. In the case of the Black Country networks funded by Networked Learning initiative the organisations made the first step in embarking on a network relationship in 2002 by recognising the value of working collaboratively and basing their work on shared long-term requirements. (Illumination 1)
Illumination One
The Strategic setting of the Black Country Learning Networks

The Local Enquiry and Research Network (LEARN) and the Primary Learning Network (PLN) were established in 2002 to develop professional learning and evidence-based practice across the Black Country, West Midlands, UK. The networks were originally co-funded by the National College for School Leadership (NCSL), Networked Learning initiative, the university of Wolverhampton and the individual schools belonging to the networks. The cluster has received strategic support from the Black Country School Improvement Partnership (BCSIP) and the four Local Education Authorities in which the schools are located. The networks have been part of the BCSIP Development Plan since 2002.

The two networks have worked as a ‘cluster’ to maximise the potential of the identified focus areas. These focus areas are practitioner enquiry and research evidence for school improvement in priority areas and the use of evidence to support the development of the use of Learning Technologies in the classroom.

Enquiry and Research Clusters

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Inclusion of Special Needs Pupils</th>
<th>Learning Technology in the Classroom</th>
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<tr>
<td>Foundation Stage Curriculum</td>
<td>Learning Styles</td>
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<tr>
<td>Indoor and Outdoor Learning Environment</td>
<td>Parent support for Learning</td>
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</table>
The UK education environment is currently characterised by turbulence with NLCs seen as “an effective means of supporting innovation in times of change” (Jackson, 2004). These NLCs would commonly be based on locally identified needs, which are driven by local factors informed by national and global trends. However where learning communities are formed as a response to national initiatives conventional building processes can be influenced by the prescriptions of the initiative and the priorities of the national agenda. Schools that function successfully within learning networks are able to acclimatise and respond to new policies and environmental change (McREL, 2003) because they have the benefit of local support and collective knowledge. Local environmental factors can therefore influence the potential sustainability of the network because the interdependence of organisational perspectives that impact on the building and sustaining a learning community (Figure One) are recognised. These include: strategic perspectives (Kanter, 1989; Johnson and Scholes, 1994; Kogut, 1988; Das & Teng, 1997); economic perspectives (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978, Kogut, 1988) and social perspectives (Gulati, 1998). The strategic and economic perspectives tend to be the main focus of nationally funded communities such as Networked Learning Communities (NLG) initiated by the National College for School Leadership (NCSL). This paper argues that although strategic and economic factors provide organisational benefits for those involved in such communities these are not sufficient to ensure the success and sustainability of the communities. It is the social factors, which shape the way organisations seek allies whose abilities augment their strengths or ameliorate weaknesses and determine whether the collaborative approach can be maintained. This paper focuses on these social factors and how they interplay with strategic and economic factors in a way, which generates synergistic gains for a learning community. Thus ensuring that a Networked Learning Network maximises its potential and that sustainability does not simply mean whether something can last. It addresses how particular initiatives can be developed without compromising the development of others in the surrounding environment, now and in the future (Hargreaves and Fink, 2002.)

The Strategic Perspective
Strategy is a set of decision-making rules guiding organizational behaviour (Ansoff, 1984). It is an intangible and abstract concept involving the capacity of an organisation to, consciously, attempt to influence their environment and organisational relationships (Arndt 1979, in Varadarajan and Cunningham, 1995). Johnson and Scholes (1997) described strategy as

“the direction and scope of an organisation over the long term: which achieves advantage for the organisation through its configuration of resources within a changing environment, to meet the needs of markets and to fulfil stakeholder expectations.” (p.10)

A full consideration of strategy in relation to NLCs is beyond the scope of this paper. It should be noted, nonetheless, that strategy is usually based upon matching the external and industry (education) environments with the strategic capability of the organization or community (Hubbard et al. 1997). Capability
refers to the focus on motivation and competence of people in an organization, which enable it to perform its task effectively and successfully (Hubbard et al. 1997, p.126). Most organizations possess a range of basic capability these become strategic capabilities when the process has three significant distinctive characteristics that are they are of value to the customer; they are better than that of the majority of other competitors; and they are difficult to imitate or replicate (Hubbard et al. 1997). The development of these characteristics is dependent on the relational aspects of an organisation. It has been found that by identifying strategic capability, or clusters of strategic capability, by aligning these to the environment and incorporating them into a strategy, an organization can out perform its competitors (Hubbard, et al. 1997; Stalk et al. 1992). Consequently if the environment and strategic capabilities of an organisation are appropriately matched it is possible to improve performance of educational organisations and achieve a long-term sustainable competitive advantage (Kurnar et al. 2000).

The process of building NLCs is frequently initiated because of perceived complementarity based on a distinctive capability of each member of the community. When organisations have complementary capability, each partner can concentrate on those activities where it can make the greatest contribution. As a result of complementarity a community can gain advantage in two ways. Firstly,
In some network schools, where more than one research activity is taking place, LEARN has funded payment for a school-based Learning Mentor. There are currently six teachers receiving such payments within the network, of whom four are sharing the role with a colleague. The academic co-leader of the network acts as Learning Mentor for two other schools. These Learning Mentors are experienced researchers who

- negotiate research foci with head teachers and senior managers
- provide guidance on all aspects of research to their colleagues
- link with other mentors in other schools (Pupil Voice Conference)
- disseminate research findings
- help in the accreditation process if required.

The Learning Mentors are a collaborative leadership group in their own right and work together to plan the researcher support programme. They also have access to University of Wolverhampton facilities and resources. (External Evaluator, 2004)
individual partners focus on where they can contribute the most toward cost and or differentiation advantage given their distinctive skills and resources. Secondly, network partners can pool their capabilities and resources in order to jointly perform one or more of their activities to achieve a competitive positional advantage.” (Varadarajan and Cunningham (1995, p.293). In the case of the Black Country Network both of these benefits have been gained through the collaboration between the Schools the University, the LEA and the Black Country School Improvement Partnership and the National College for School Leadership (Illumination One). Each of these organisations has worked from their fundamental values and identified a need, which is met through the network. They have made variable contributions but the fundamental goal has been to enhance the enquiry and research capacity within the sub-region and in this way gain not only competitive advantage for the organisations but also to impact on attitudes to learning at all levels in education. Consequently the strategic success of the network does not simply rely on organisations making a written commitment to the objectives of a learning community, as is usually the requirement for this type of initiative (NCSL, 2001). It is essential that the members (organisations and individuals) are fully compatible in their values, vision, and needs of the NLC. This clarity of expectations is essential if the network of organisations, which may make conflicting demands, are to be successful and become structural embedded within the community.

Building a sustainable network in education is about maintaining a learning community, which serves the changing demands of the participants and varied stakeholders, without damaging their strategic and routine operations. Leaders of learning networks must be compatible with the intention to develop a specific capability in the management of their portfolio of community activity. The LEARN Mentor (Illumination 2) manages the collaborative projects and the links between schools in the network. Evidence (Gulati, 1998) suggests that there may be systematic differences in the co-operative leadership capabilities and processes that organisations develop as they have more experience of collaborative working. These capabilities may include: identifying valuable opportunities and partners, using appropriate governance mechanisms, developing interorganisational knowledge-sharing routines, making requisite relationship-specific asset investments, and initiating necessary changes to the community as it evolves. The challenge in the network has been to develop such leadership capabilities and processes through key individuals within their own organisation and their cluster. It is hoped that this will ensure the sustainability of the network and the effectiveness of the projects with the intention that the organisations internalise such capabilities and processes. The leadership of the networks is therefore a crucial aspect of community learning may affect the relative success of those organisations involved (Lyles, 1988 in Gulati, 1998).

The Economic Perspective
In economic terms the development of a learning community is not cost free. Consequently, it is important to ensure that all members and sponsors of the community are convinced that they are net beneficiaries. One of the major perceived advantages of embarking on a programme of collaborative working is
Illumination Three
Economic Perspective

The LEARN network has been funded partly by the NCSL Networked Learning Group and partly by a partnership between schools and the University of Wolverhampton School of Education. The funding outlined below is the national funding and the resource form the partnership have been predominantly related to practitioner time and the school-based initiatives that form the focus of the school improvement projects.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LEARN Expenditure (against £50,000 income from NCSL)</th>
<th>Year 1</th>
<th>Year 2</th>
<th>Year 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Scholarships (30 CATS) and support @ £250</td>
<td>6,000</td>
<td>9,500</td>
<td>11,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Web-site development</td>
<td>2,000</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Digital mini disc players 5 years 1 and 2 @ £300 each</td>
<td>1,500</td>
<td>1,500</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Digital camcorder</td>
<td>440</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DV Mini DV player</td>
<td>820</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voice recognition Software @ £68 x 16 yr 1; 14 yr 2; 10 yr 3</td>
<td>1,088</td>
<td>952</td>
<td>680</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contribution towards University support (normally 40%) 10%</td>
<td>5,000</td>
<td>5,000</td>
<td>5,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joint submission costs for management and leadership (separate sheet)</td>
<td>33,000</td>
<td>32,685</td>
<td>33,132</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Funding requested from NCSL</td>
<td>49,848</td>
<td>50,137</td>
<td>50,062</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Funding for joint activity
The two networks, LEARN and PLN, are both located within the Black Country and are affiliated to the Black Country Schools Improvement Partnership (BCSIP); this provides an appropriate focal point for the effective functioning of a cluster. The cluster links back into the management structure across the four Local Authorities in the Black Country sub-region and consequently has the support and wider impact potential on learning. The Sharing Success conference has been a successful practitioner research conference for the wider Black Country education professionals.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Network Costings</th>
<th>Year 1</th>
<th>Year 2</th>
<th>Year 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Project manager</td>
<td>23,000</td>
<td>23,690</td>
<td>24,400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co-leader 2 x 30 days x £350</td>
<td>21,000</td>
<td>21,000</td>
<td>21,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co-leader (schools) 2 x 20 days x £350</td>
<td>14,000</td>
<td>14,000</td>
<td>14,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Web-site development &amp; maintenance</td>
<td>2,000</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sharing Success Conference</td>
<td>6,000</td>
<td>6,180</td>
<td>6,365</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>66,000</td>
<td>65,370</td>
<td>66,265</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
the cost saving that results or the enhanced benefit from a given resource. Perhaps the most obvious benefit is that all the wastage (in terms of time, resources, and effort) associated with adversarial relationships with competitors is neutralised as responsibilities and tasks can be shared across the group. However, the economic uncertainties and unknown variables involved in the building and sustaining NLCs are often difficult to identify when calculating a return on investment. Many of the costs are not made explicit in the planning stages, consequently they are never accounted for in the final performance tally. This is particularly the case in the work of LEARN which has been structured to ensure that it is well embedded in the routine business of the member organisations. This has been achieved through the structuring of the network (Illumination 1) and through the early decision to finance a network manager to focus on the routine activities of the networks. This appointment was a significant cost but the benefits have significantly enhanced the network activity (Illumination 3). Day (1995) emphasised the findings of Varadarajan and Cunningham (1993) who identify potential opportunity costs from

1. the time spent by management to negotiate, implement, and integrate the community;
2. the loss of flexibility and freedom of action in the areas of common interest;
3. leakage of proprietary knowledge to the partner, who may later use this knowledge to erode the organisation's advantages and
4. the atrophying of organisation capabilities in areas of partnership activity that have been ceded to the partner.

Trust between individuals or an organisation ensures that, within the community individuals have the confidence that a partner will not exploit the vulnerabilities of the other (Bamey and Hansen, 1994). Collaborative approaches can make a difference to the nature of resources available to individuals, groups, or organisations but there is also a price to pay in time energy and effort. There will be substantial benefits where the network activity exceeds expectations but considerable costs are incurred if the community does not live up to expectations and does not meet the objectives agreed. The network manager has enabled LEARN to achieve the agreed objectives but has also provided unforeseen and significant outcomes in relation to the generation of good will and enhanced communication.

The Social Perspective
The social perspective builds on the general notion that strategic and economic actions are embedded in a network of social relationships and activities, which influence the development and sustainability of a learning community within its environment. A social network can be defined as “a set of nodes (e.g., persons, organisations) linked by a set of social relationships (e.g. friendship, transfer of funds, or knowledge) of a specified type“ (Laumann, Galaskiewiez & Marsden, 1978, in Gulati, 1998, p.295). In NLCs these connections represent a set of ‘relationships with a purpose’ (Jackson 2004). There is no specific sequence of events or model that leads to network formation (Gulati, 1998). The process is
The project manager for the network is the main point of contact for schools in LEARN and the Primary Learning Network (PLN). He is jointly funded by the two networks and is responsible for funding and financial management in conjunction with the Steering Group. He manages events across both networks, publishes newsletters and maintains a website. He is able to alert members to National opportunities through links with the National College for School Leadership (NCSL) and other funding bodies. He organises training, for example in the use of Learning Exchange Online (LEO), which NCSL has developed as a means of cross-network communication on the web. LEARN has recently acquired various ICT equipment, which is intended to enhance both the processes of research and dissemination within the network.

Steering Group Composition
- 4 Co-leaders school-based (Headteachers or senior staff)
- 2 Co-leaders university based
- 4 Co-leaders LEA based
- Network Critical friend

Network Linkage
“LEARN appears to be a leader in the field of network-to-network learning. As well as active relations with PLN and a close relationship with WACO (where mutual evaluation has taken place), the network, through its university links, are in touch with many of the other Black Country networks. Delegates from these have attended the LEARN/PLN Annual Conference. Co-leaders and teachers have attended NCSL national conferences. National links are also developed through other conferences and events such as the National Teacher Research Conference. LEARN has built international links with networks in Slovenia, and with the European Learning Teacher Network.” This network involves teachers from a vast range of European countries and the annual conference creates an opportunity to make links with teachers and other education practitioners.
extremely fluid with opportunities emerging through existing sets of contacts because of the security of previous working relationships or knowledge of the behaviour of individuals, which in turn influences decisions about the collaborative activity. The status of individuals within the community can be significant if they are perceived to adopt a key position in the work of the community but this is difficult to predict as they may be hierarchically significant or they may have a specialist knowledge area not least of which could be an understanding of collaborative working.

Social embeddedness influences the formation of new networks. Pre-existing professional relationships can enhance development that would be much slower getting off the ground and is more likely to become bogged down in the detail. Personal relationships in turn ‘exert pressures for conformity to expectations’. Ring and Van de Ven (1992) pointed to the important role of informal, personal connections across organisations in determining the governance structure used to organise their transactions. Previously allied organisations are likely to engage in further networks because they know about the specific skills and needs each demonstrate many new deals are created interactively with them. Previously unconnected organisations are more likely to enter a network if they are in close geographical proximity to each other. Embeddedness can also influence the choice of partners. The embedded network position of an organisation determines the potential partners about whom an organisation can have information beyond the circle of organisations directly or indirectly tied to it. These two benefits are distinct but they overlap, because of the benefits arising from access to information (Burt, 1992, p.78).

Collaboration between organisations with diverse goals will inherently involve the managing conflict in objectives, cultures, styles of management and decision-making. Although these can be understood and dealt with early in the negotiations, they are often deferred (Day, 1995). The most evident of these is frustration when the NLC does not meet expectations. Recognising that this is a possible source of conflict experienced individuals in organisations should take active steps to warn their partners that the community carries no guarantees, only opportunities (Brown, et al, 1994). Lack of clear decision-making responsibility can lead to conflicts consequently leaders often try to run their network together, either because of lingering distrust or because of a genuine desire to share (Day, 1995, p.298). This method of co-leadership is certainly a feature of the NCSL, Networked Learning Communities but the reality is that this approach can lead to difficulties mainly because of the time commitments involved.

Effective communication helps to provide information that can reduce uncertainty (Granovetter, 1985, p.497). Communication refers to

“exchanges and discussions within a group [that] typically have a history, and that this history results in the routinisation and stabilisation of linkages among members . . . [and] a structure of relations affects the actions taken by the individual actors composing it. It does so by constraining the set of actions available to the individual actors and by changing the dispositions of those
actors toward the actions they may take.” (Marsden, 1981, in Gulati, 1998, p. 296)

Where the principles of the learning community are fully embraced the volume, quality and timeliness of information exchange is greatly enhanced. Communities that are characterised by rich information exchange and long-term commitments are usually involved in activities requiring greater co-operation (Illumination 5). Through sharing strengths and understanding their own weaknesses they can produce better outcomes and experience for the members of the NLC which translates into concrete performance benefits for the organisations forming such ties. Brown, et al., (1994) support this view when pointing out that effective communications take place through a web of inter-organisational cross-functional teams that deal with complex and sensitive issues such as product development. They assert that communication will improve because you are getting people in the same room to talk about problems and to identify problems and to have a genuine mutual wish to resolve them. The development of the people involved in this process is also significant because it encourages individuals to open their listening channels and grow together to effectively achieve shared goals. The benefits of good communication and its true significance to the sustainability of PLCs can only be appreciated when we consider the implications poor communications (Brown, et al., 1994, P.16).

The presence of interorganisational trust is an extraordinary lubricant for a network that involves considerable interdependence and task co-ordination between partners (Illumination 6). Trust can enable members to work together closely, if necessary, without the need for formal hierarchical controls (Gulati, 1998, p.304). A social network of priorities can promote trust through two possible means. Firstly this is achieved by serving as effective referral mechanism through prior social awareness of each other's existence. An important aspect of referral is vouching for the reliability of an organisation. Consequently if a member of a community suggests one of their own partners as a good fit for our needs, it is usual to consider it very seriously. (Gulati, 1998) Through this interaction, organisations not only learn about each other but may also develop 'knowledge based trust' around norms of equity. Secondly trust is developed through open communication and sharing information. This reciprocity ultimately leads to enhanced relational embeddedness, which provides direct cohesive ties that can be a mechanism for obtaining detailed and confidential information. As a consequence of relational embeddedness strongly tied individuals are likely to develop a shared understanding of the utility of certain behaviour through discussion in strong, socialising situations, which influence their actions. The capacity for social ties to carry information that diminishes uncertainty and promotes trust between individuals and organisations (Gulati, 1995a in Gulati, 1998) is fundamentally important to the sustainability of the NLC. These cohesive ties can become a unique source of information about the partner's capabilities and reliability.

Organisations entering learning communities benefit because social networks furnish “organisations with 'social capital' which can become an important basis
for competitive advantage (Burt, 1997 in Gulati, 1998, p.297). The NLC organisations are likely to have greater confidence and trust in each other, both because they have greater information and because the network creates a natural deterrent for bad behaviour that will damage reputation. Trust not only enables greater exchange of information, it also promotes ease of interaction and a flexible orientation on the part of each partner. All of these elements can create enabling conditions under which an organisation or network is more likely to be successful. An LC with linkage to an LEA and HEI support can gain access to national networks and engage with a wider range of partners. It is also likely that NLCs which demonstrate embedded relationships also perform better, and are particularly effective, in situations of high uncertainty (Gulati, 1998). In this way the idea of social capital, most developed for individuals, is extended to organisations and their interorganisational networks (Gulati, 1998).

The benefits of social capital accrue to organisations from the access to information it provides and the potential for control benefits. This information can be a powerful catalyst, providing organisations with new productive opportunities to utilise the financial and human capital with which they are endowed. (Gulati, 1998, p.297).

**Sustainability**

Various writers have tried to identify the magic formula for sustainable collaboration (Bleeke and Ernst, 1991, Broughers, et al, 1995, Varadarajan and Cunningham, 1995, Gulati, 1998) but the factors that ensure the collaborative arrangements and induce a sense of mutual interdependence remain elusive. Strategic compatibility and loyalty to partners needs to be based on a shared perception that there is a high degree of “strategic fit” between them. Part of the reason for this is the realisation that the forging of such close liaisons, and the subsequent development to meet the required specifications, is not only time-consuming but also expensive (Brown, et al, 1994). One of the most significant long-term benefits is that working together is effective and allows [the organisation] to do more without putting excessive workloads on staff. A meaningful community will yield further benefits in terms of the increased willingness of partners to agree to improve and update their services (Brown, et al., 1994, P.16). Once established communities can promote behavioural conformity by serving as conduits for technological, social and economic information about organisational activities. This can influence the extent to which organisations will adopt new innovations.

Considerable time energy and effort is required to monitor the progress of innovative community activity against strategic objectives and investment. This monitoring is a complex matter and needs to be both systematic, against agreed criteria, and flexible because although the outcomes have been negotiated they may be achieved in different, often asymmetric ways or the collaborative practice may identify new evidence which changes the view of the participants. The building of NLCs is undoubtedly dependent on resource investment that is front loaded but the sustainability is dependent on strategic benefits realised through
**Illumination Five**
**Trust, Reciprocity and Collaboration**
(The power of the ‘know you’ factor)

Local Enquiry and Research Network (LEARN)
Collaborative Case Studies

**Collaborative Case Study 1**

The Foundation Stage teacher at one of the LEARN primary schools invited five local schools, with whom they already met on a regular basis to discuss practice, to take part in a joint review of good practice in outdoor play for Early Years pupils. Each school received a £1000 grant from LEARN to participate in a collaborative research project. The researcher at the school was able to visit each of the five other schools to discuss provision with other Foundation Stage teachers. The group met regularly to compare the outcomes of their evidence gathering, and the lead school integrated the findings of the survey into its Inclusion Policy.

“If it had not been for the network the partnership would not have developed and we would not have been able to make such rapid progress. We are developing a range of work with different mainstream schools in our area.” Headteacher

**Collaborative Case Study 2**

Every Tuesday since last September the pupils from years 5 and 6 at Castle School have worked with their peers at Walsall Wood School. Each pupil from Castle School has a buddy. They play together and they work together.

Staff and pupils are currently involved in evaluation activities and planning the way they would like the project to develop next year.
successful NLC activity. Building learning communities can be advantageous as it enables organisations to either broaden its service provision or fill gaps in its knowledge but the perils of excessive dependence on networks must be borne in mind. Although a web of support can begin to break down the isolation of some institutions there is also a need to maintain the identities of the members in an environment that requires schools to be accountable for their performance. Learning communities develop as a strategic response to the needs of the member organisations and individuals and are the basis of a holistic commitment to meet a specific stated objective. It is difficult for a well-embedded learning community to disentangle the evidence required by nationally funded initiatives to specifically evidence a causal link between externally funded activity and the strategic outcomes of the schools. If, as this paper argues, social factors are significant to the sustainability of a community it is essential to manage the social development and monitor the emergence of these relational factors throughout the community building stage. Some of the suggested objectives in determining the potential sustainability of a learning community might be:

- The status of individuals within their community and the embeddedness of their role in their own organisations and learning community.
- The power and influence of the individuals to effect the aims, objectives and activities of learning community.
- The ability of individuals to address the inevitable difficulties, which arise in negotiating and maintaining partnerships and to resolve conflict to the benefit of the learning community.
- The capacity of the individuals and the organisations to communicate effectively together to maximise the opportunities that arise in the NLC.
- The recognition by the NLC to develop skilled networkers who can maximise the benefits of personal relationships or long standing associations to improve their strategic networks. The benefits of networking with partner organisations are: providing a range of perspectives by tapping into the wider education community; opportunities to exchange ideas; reduces insularity
- The ability to promote a cognitive and emotional basis for working relationships between individuals, which involves trusting individuals to do what they agree to do.
- The capacity to exchange information enhances reciprocity within and beyond the NLC.
- Promote relational embeddedness through the development of direct cohesive ties between individuals that act as a mechanism for developing trust, reciprocity and effective communication. Individuals come to share not only an understanding of their area work but valuable information about the partnership capability.

In encouraging the building and sustainability of professional learning communities it is essential that leaders and members recognise the dynamic nature of this activity and the potential for damaging stable and functioning aspects of their existing community. There is no guarantee that change and development will lead to the planned improvement if the equilibrium within their environment is not
maintained in the pursuit of strategic objectives. Consequently it must be recognised that functional processes and the intricate relationships, which assist the dynamic growth and development of these communities, must also be managed. Also the extent to which social factors can alter the evolutionary path of the learning community must be acknowledged if the performance of the community is to enhance the quality of the pupil learning.

Bibliography
Chapter 15: What is really going on in learning networks?


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Chapter 16: How to Become an Effectively (Self)Evaluating School

Implementation of Evaluation and Self-evaluation in Higher Professional School of Business in Zlin, Czech Republic

Olga Mrňová

Abstract
The fundamental change of the educational paradigm accompanied by the growing degree of autonomy induces an increasing need for feedback. Self-evaluation became obligatory for Czech schools according to the new Education Act adopted in 2005. A large number of schools, namely primary and secondary schools, are starting from scratch but for some schools, especially higher professional schools, it is not entirely a new concept. This case study aims to contribute to the debate on the best approach to evaluation processes introduction so that the schools themselves could benefit in the first place. By presenting the experience in the particular school in the process of evaluation and quality management it proposes some general principles which if followed and developed may help the head teachers and teachers make their effort effective and meaningful, resulting in education quality improvement.

Brief insight into the Czech higher professional education quality evaluation
Higher Professional School of Business in Zlin was established in 1991 in the form of a pilot experiment comprising twelve Czech schools with the support of the Dutch government and the Dutch HBO sector as a completely new type of
institution between upper secondary and higher education with the ambition to be recognized as part of the country’s higher educational system. Nowadays it provides higher education in short-cycle non-university professionally oriented study programmes as well as university bachelor-degree study programmes realised on the basis of the agreement and close collaboration with T. Bata University in Zlin.

As expected, soon after the school started to operate it had to demonstrate that it provided quality education and ‘produced’ quality graduates in its novel kind of study programmes. Thus the necessity of external evaluation appeared partly as the pressure from some Czech traditional tertiary education institutions, the accreditation commission and partly from the public. Furthermore, in the mid-1990s many new higher professional schools started to operate, the competition increased, some schools were not able to go well beyond existing secondary schools and ‘post-maturita’ courses and a new type of education had to prove its legitimacy and quality to many subjects.

Our school participated in the establishment of Association of Schools of Professional Higher Education which became and still remains one of the important actors in the development of this sector. In 1994 the association introduced a new system of EVOS – Evaluation of Higher Professional Schools - based on the experience from the Netherlands where new methods of quality management and control in the respective sector had already developed and put into practice.

**The EVOS model**

The EVOS model connects both external and internal evaluation. In preparation for the external visiting committee the school is required to carry out self-evaluation and submit a self-evaluation report. The visiting committee (consisting of 4-5 members – peers from higher professional schools and colleges and at least one expert from the field and one educational expert) visit the school for usually two days and speak with representatives of all interest groups, including management of the school, students, teachers, graduates, representatives of employers and local institutions. The quality judgement is given in the final report, in which the commission marks seven fundamental aspects of the evaluation, adds the factual comments of them and states the problems, outlooks, expectations and recommendations.

The aspects of the quality of school evaluated are as follows:
- the goals and mission of the school, its management and strategies;
- graduate profile;
- study plans and curricula, organizational setting of the study programmes;
- personnel policy,
- student support facilities and services,
- material provision of teaching and learning,
- internal quality assurance system.
The recommendations supposedly lead to improvements together with the measures taken based on the self-evaluation in anticipation of the visiting committee.

This complex evaluation procedure in our school resulted in high score and the school was awarded with the Certificate of High Quality, which was first of all the message for the stakeholders who prefer quantification for its clear indication of results and comparisons ability. The impact on the school community namely the school management and teachers who were put to the proof was apparently very positive.

The school management benefited from the experience with EVOS and study visits to several European countries where the debate on the quality assurance was in progress and started to prepare the setting for the regular self-evaluation process enabling to concentrate on what was important for the school. It initiated the evaluation of school climate and culture to find out how the school was prepared to accept such a big change. Then the questions of why, what, how and how often to evaluate had to be answered and the action plan devised. We launched a two-year cycle evaluation of instruction and teacher performance quality and course effectiveness. According to the current needs we pursued an evaluation of the quality of foreign languages teaching and in collaboration with the representatives of employers an extensive evaluation of student professional placement. The teachers were encouraged to self-evaluate and the students were involved as very valuable feedback providers who even started to initiate their own inquiry on the best teacher.

After some 10 years we can summarize our experience that might serve as the guideline and at the same time the background for the debate on common evaluation and self-evaluation criteria determination.

**Management of the evaluation and self-evaluation processes**
The head teacher and other members of the school management evidently play the most important role in the preparation phase and as the first step they should

- **develop a positive evaluation culture**
in order to eliminate threatening connotation of evaluation that may act as the obstacle to introduction and effective functioning of self-evaluation procedure. Teachers may be afraid of misuse of the results, the heads themselves of release of negative results followed by criticism and handicap in the competition;
- **motivate** – self-evaluation aims at a learning process of all parties concerned and all individuals concerned,
- **initiate** - it is necessary to initiate and sustain a dynamic culture of quality evaluation and development at school level,
- **promote school self-accountability** transferable to wider accountability – head teacher and teachers need to know they have impact on their pupil’s/student’s progress, development and achievement,
provide useful indications of what works well (you should celebrate it and analyse to understand its success) and what needs to be improved (it is a starting point for reflection, for removing barriers to improvement and look for tools to ensure improvement,

communicate - determine trends in school’s effectiveness and improvement over time – we inform the teachers

lead to further development – the evaluation itself (collection of data) is not the goal, it is helpful only if it is used. Guidance and directions on what needs to be done to improve are important.

Development of the evaluation and self-evaluation principles
In the course of preparation and introduction of the evaluation procedure we searched for the answer to the question ‘What makes evaluation and self-evaluation successful?’ This led to the definition of teachers’ motives, quality indicators and process standards for professional self-evaluation with regard to individual feedback and school research activities. Which chances are there that teachers actually evaluate their practice? When can teachers be satisfied when evaluating their work? What is necessary for quality evaluation in teachers’ development and in school development? The following principles were formulated and became the guideline for everyone involved.

✔ Evaluate what you value
This is vital for the school although it can be sometimes complicated particularly when certain issues cannot be easily evaluated and counted. It is possible when the main values and goals are clearly articulated and shared, plans and strategies to reach these goals are developed and implemented. We also evaluate to be sure that these strategies have had the desired impact. It is the never-ending improvement process that the school has to monitor together with the progress and outcomes. Furthermore self-evaluation shows uniqueness of the school which may play the crucial role in the competition on the education market.

✔ Evaluate to understand your school better
It is about sharing goals – to understand ‘where we are going’ and what quality we are building for the future.

✔ Evaluation should be formative
It is concerned with locating problems; seeing where the process of change is not running as smoothly as it might and where individual students, groups or whole classes do not appear to be benefiting from a new initiative. Monitoring and analysing the process of change is as important as evaluating its intended outcomes.

✔ Blend of internal and external eyes can examine jointly a school’s effectiveness and improvement and combine the best features of both. There is a very little evidence that external evaluation itself actually improves the quality of education. Provision of a basis for external evaluation (inspection, accreditation commission) is important – but managing the whole process of
evaluation in the way the schools (students, teachers, head teachers) could benefit first is essential.

- The individual or institutional implementation of consequences is essential in sustainability of self evaluation in practice.
- Dialogue in a professional learning community is the leading principle.
- Our evaluation is pupil/student centred. We focus on a student in the teaching and learning process. Of course the top of the ladder represents the effectiveness as demonstrated in positive students’ outcomes.

**Teacher evaluation criteria**

*Examples of the criteria the management use for evaluation of the teachers through the inquiry (student evaluation) in the course evaluation*

The aim of the course evaluation is to utilize the students’ experience and opinions about the course to create a basis for eventual changes in the course’s content and organization, so that the educational goals are better achieved. In addition to answers on the scale it is therefore valuable to have comments and suggestions for motivation. The essential part of the inquiry is the course/subject teacher assessment:

- pedagogical skills of clear, interesting and systematic delivery,
- adequacy of the teacher’s demands for the student’s preparation for credits, exams and self-study,
- opportunity for discussion, consultation and interaction,
- relationship to the students,
- teacher’s expertise,
- availability of study materials recommended.

With regard to the profession oriented nature of the study programmes provided at HPSB, we ask students to comment on the following statements:

- the instruction is based predominantly on the utilization of examples and latest knowledge from practice,
- theoretical data are evenly applied on the practical examples,
- lecture is based on a mere citation of literature.

*Examples of the criteria for teacher self-evaluation:*

Commonly, course evaluation conducted for the purpose of a teacher’s self-evaluation differs in some issues according to what the teacher needs to focus on. The teacher needs more or less instant feedback on how a course is being received by the students. Teachers also want to investigate whether there is a mismatch between their aims for their course and their students’ orientations. Very often it is necessary to find out what their students expect and what their purposes for study are – this can explain why they can evaluate the same event in different ways. Helping students to learn more effectively and identifying opportunities for their teaching and development of other practices together with possible threats to their continuing quality, belong to other targets of a teacher self-evaluation.
Example of an evaluation questionnaire used for the course evaluation:

**EVALUATION OF THE COURSE       THE EVALUATION SHEET**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Recognition of some aspects of the course</th>
<th>Use the following scale: 1 = very high, 2 = high, 3 = good, 4 = moderate, 5 = low, 6 = very low</th>
<th>Please specify</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. The importance of the course in the framework of your study programme</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The quality of teaching</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. The quality of relationships, (e.g. cooperation, consultations)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Level of demands for the course</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Proportion of self-instruction</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Gained knowledge and skills in comparison with the beginning of the course (added value)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. What was the biggest problem (obstacle) for you?</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. What do you consider the most serious shortcoming of the course?</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. What would you change in the course?</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. What do you consider the strongest point of the course?</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Your queries, recommendations: .................................................................
Despite the problems of quantitative research in education, a questionnaire belongs to the most common methods of evaluation, its results may serve the teacher as an input for a follow-up discussion that may help to clear up both teachers and students ambiguous issues. Alternatively discussions and interviews can be used to help identify issues for inclusion in a questionnaire.

Conclusion
Regardless of the increasing confidence in managing self-evaluation processes due to the lengths of experience and breadth of evidence of quality improvement from both internal and external agents, the school knows that all members of the school community need to continue learning in a rapidly changing educational setting.

In the continuing dialogue it is important to be aware of psychology of the evaluated to be able to overcome fear and resistance and increase enthusiasm for evaluation and active participation. It should be explicit what the main target group of the evaluation is, what the main goals are including those of feedback to the individual and collective learning processes and adequate scope for reflection.

Generally, internal quality evaluation involves systematic recording of student progress, systematic evaluation and follow up of the evaluation results into curriculum development, and the responsibility for innovations. It is a time-consuming and demanding process systematically forming and underpinning opinions on the course of events in the school and thus it is very important to give and gain support to keep evaluation as a challenge for everybody involved.

References

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From Lip Service to In-service

An evaluation of continual professional development offered by a speech, language and communication needs facility

Penny Kershaw

Introduction
No aspect of education today can be examined effectively without some reference to the broader context of global change. From a global perspective, change is extraordinarily pervasive and exceedingly rapid. Ideas about a changing society are not necessarily new ones though; Toffler stated that ‘Change is avalanching upon our heads, and most people are unprepared to cope with it.’ (Cross et al 1974, p.39). The theme of change in educational sense is a major theme for authors, for example, Hargreaves (1994) describes the implications of a post-modern society upon schools and Fullan (1991) provides a detailed account of the processes involved in educational change. Educational change is now a subject of study in its own right. CPD is the international response to the acceleration of change in society in which education, in a political sense, is obliged to follow, Peerson (2004), Collinson and Ono (2001), Purdon (2003).

In the UK, successive labour and conservative governments have responded to rapid global developments by implementing changes within the education system. Teachers themselves, having to constantly re-adjust to sociological changes in their personal lives, have also faced profound change in their professional lives. Perhaps the two most significant educational developments in the last few years
have been a requirement to deliver a standardised national curriculum (along with a mandatory, nationwide system of national curriculum key stage testing) and the concept of ‘inclusion’. The most recent incarnation of inclusion is entitled ‘Removing Barriers to Achievement’ (DfES, 2004). The underlying emphasis of both of these initiatives is not primarily educational but socio-economic (Hutton 1996, p.169ff). In an attempt to support teachers’ implementation of these two initiatives alone there has emerged a plethora of CPD models and providers; the DfES ‘teachernet’ website, access to external consultancies (for example the Centre for British Teachers), as well as conferences and workshops arranged by special educational needs (SEN) organisations such as the National Autistic Society are but a few examples. In recent weeks, a designated satellite television channel for teachers has also appeared called ‘Teacher’s TV’.

The type of CPD investigated in this research paper will be referred to as in-service education and training (INSET) from this point onwards. Although Craft uses the terms ‘professional development’ and ‘INSET’ interchangeably to indicate ‘all types of professional learning undertaken by teachers beyond the point of initial training’ (1996, p. 6) a more specific description will be applied. For the purpose of this research paper, INSET will be defined as, ‘...a planned event, series of events or extended programme of accredited or non-accredited learning, in order to distinguish it from less formal in-school development work and extended partnerships and inter school networks...’ (Day, 1999, p.131). The term ‘lip service’, used in the title of this research paper, reflects the perceived lack of transfer of strategies introduced through CPD into some mainstream teachers’ classrooms in several mainstream schools, even though they regarded such strategies as valuable. According to Gulland and Hinds-Howell, ‘to pay lip service... [means] to respect a principle or custom in theory but to ignore it in practice’ (1994 p.4). There are clear parallels with what Argyris and Schon refer to ‘espoused theories’ and ‘theories-in-use’ (cited in Day, 1999, p.24). Espoused theories represent the way in which teachers claim to embody certain teaching philosophies whereas theories in use reflect actual teaching practice.

The provision of the SLCN facility includes included delivering INSET as a vehicle for improving access to the curriculum for pupils with SLCN, who account for between five and seven percent of pupils (Centre for Educational Development and Research, 2002). The facility supports twenty-seven mainstream primary schools in one town and the target caseload is seventy-five pupils. Pupils eligible for support must have SLCN as their primary barrier to learning. Referrals for pupils to receive support from the SLCN facility are accepted from teaching staff in mainstream schools. The usual full compliment of SLCN staff is one teacher-in-charge, two specialist teachers, three teaching assistants (full time) and one administrator (part time).

The type INSET evaluated comprised two workshops, the first entitled ‘Raising Awareness of SLCN’ and the second ‘Basic Strategies for Pupils with SLCN’. The aim of each workshop was for teachers and teaching assistants to experience the difficulties faced by pupils with SLCN in their classrooms and to learn core strategies that would enable them to address these needs. Workshops included
descriptions of SLCN and the implication arising from these needs, short video clips, practical activities, examples of resources and an opportunity for the audience to ask questions. The workshops were held either at the SLCN facility itself or within mainstream schools. The majority of SLCN strategies presented were well established and non-specific, examples of which include using a structured approach to develop narrative, (Shanks, 2002) and writing ‘Social Stories’ (Gray, 2002). The teachers within the SLCN facility had previously used these strategies successfully within their own classrooms.

Following the workshops, each teacher and teaching assistant had the opportunity for weekly consultations to discuss pupils with a specialist teacher or a specialist teaching assistant from the SLCN facility; if no consultations took place target sheets and supplementary resources would be sent to all staff involved and progress was reported at least weekly within ‘home-school-centre books’. Pupils also attended sessions at the SLCN facility and teachers could observe teaching sessions at the SLCN facility and/or within their own school. To further promote effective practice when addressing SLCN, staff at the SLCN facility established an extensive resource library for mainstream staff and parents.

Methodology
The analysis of evidence for the evaluation of INSET was qualitative. The data was gathered during the period from September 2002 to July 2004 and analysed to provide an evaluation of the effectiveness of INSET delivered by staff at the SLCN facility. Four sets of evidence were used for this:

- Evaluations by staff at mainstream schools of workshops delivered by the SLCN facility during the Autumn term, 2003.
- Evaluations by staff at mainstream schools of the ongoing support and provision by the SLCN facility for the academic year 2002/3.
- Evaluations by staff at mainstream schools of the ongoing support and provision by the SLCN facility for the academic year 2003/4.
- An evaluation of actual practice observed in mainstream schools following INSET was completed by staff at the SLCN facility which focused on the academic year 2003/2004.

The rationale for selecting the academic year 2003/4 for the evaluation of actual practice observed in mainstream schools by SLCN facility staff was to investigate the actual transfer of strategies between two positive annual evaluations of ongoing support and provision of the SLCN facility made by mainstream schools. Evaluations by staff at mainstream schools, for workshops and ongoing support and provision, were compared to evaluations completed by staff at the SLCN facility of actual practice observed in mainstream schools and any discrepancies were noted.

Participants
Three mainstream schools were chosen to be included in the evaluation and these will be referred to as school ‘A’, ‘B’ or ‘C’. In the interests of confidentiality no
school or area has been identified by name. The criteria for selecting these particular mainstream schools were that they had previously completed the necessary evaluations for both workshops and on-going support and provision by the SLCN facility. Additionally, a full programme of INSET; specifically two workshops, use of the resource library and the opportunity for consultation on a weekly basis was made available. INSET delivered by the SLCN facility was then evaluated in relation to two pupils on the SLCN facility’s caseload. There were no changes to the staff involved during the evaluation period. A minimum of three facility staff were involved in consultations and in teaching pupils both at the SLCN facility and at the mainstream school; this also had the benefit of guaranteed access to mainstream schools and access to records describing specific outcomes of support offered. A short description of each school will be included in the main body of the text that follows presented as a vignette. For ease of interpretation, each vignette will appear alongside the results and discussion of the evaluations.

INSET delivered by the SLCN facility was thought to be successful if it encompassed an element of partnership between SLCN facility staff and staff in mainstream schools, also found in Goodman (in Smyth (ed.) 1995) and Stenhouse (1975, p.25). Ideally this partnership would promote reflection on the part of the mainstream schools staff; this would be evident in the depth and quality of consultations. Resources and suggested teaching strategies would be used effectively and where necessary, differentiated. The evaluation was presented as five questions:

- The first question asks about the frequency of consultations requested by staff in mainstream schools. Records of consultations were assessed to determine how often they took place.
- The second question relates to the quality of feedback during consultations which ranges from ‘vague’ to ‘very specific.’
- The third question is concerned with the frequency of access to the resource library. Loan records from the resource library were assessed for frequency.
- The fourth question asks for specific examples of strategies developed by SLCN facility staff being used in mainstream schools.
- Finally, the extent to which strategies are extended to meet the individual needs of the school and pupils is examined.

Evaluation Results and Discussion
The evaluation results that follow are largely concerned with addressing the first research question; did the transfer of skills and knowledge gained during INSET take place in some schools and not others?

School ‘A’
The first school is a large infant school with four classes per year group. The school is located between a middle class housing area and a large council estate which meant that the intake was mixed. Around 10% of pupils were on the SEN
register, five of which had statements of SEN. Three pupils received support from SLCN facility staff during the evaluation period. The head teacher reported how beneficial the workshops were in enabling the school to approach SLCN consistently. The SLCN of the pupils included social communication difficulties, including autism, and phonology difficulties. The two pupils selected for evaluation included one pupil with autism who proved to be especially challenging for the school in terms of disruptive behaviour as well as having no verbal language whatsoever. The second pupil had phonology difficulties (affecting sound discrimination and speech articulation) and the mainstream staff working with pupil 1 and pupil 2 had no previous experience of addressing SLCN.

The evaluation of both workshops by mainstream staff at School ‘A’ was very positive. A few negative comments were given for the first workshop, raising awareness of SLCN. These comments showed that some mainstream staff found the quiz confusing although this was not reflected in the overall ratings. The quiz was designed to be a fun activity to finish the workshop and stimulate questions and mainstream staff were able to clarify their confusion after the workshop was finished. The evaluations for the second workshop, basic strategies, were all positive. For both workshops, participants commented positively about the practical activities which appeared to successfully engage mainstream staff.

Similarly, evaluations by this school demonstrated that the ongoing support and provision was well received and appreciated for the academic years 2002/3 as well as 2003/4. One comment on the evaluation for 2003/4 referring to a lack of opportunity to visit the SLCN was puzzling because mainstream staff at this school did take advantage of regular visits to the SLCN facility, it is possible that the frequency of these visits were not fully communicated to the SENCO who completed the form.

The evaluation of actual practice observed in this mainstream school by staff at the SLCN facility was also good. Not surprisingly the pupil with autism at this school attracted the most requests for consultations and resources. Staff supporting this pupil were able to offer detailed feedback, and frequently asked to be observed so that their approach could be discussed. They were particularly keen to learn more about autism and share their own personal experiences of how they had extended the strategies that were suggested. The staff also made extensive use of the resource library and the school invested a considerable amount of time and staff hours to support the pupil’s needs. Although the pupil with phonology difficulties was not the focus of such intensive support mechanisms, brief consultations were requested on a weekly basis and strategies were swiftly adopted within the classroom. Resources were regularly adapted to prevent boredom as this commonly occurs when a pupil is practising single sounds continuously.

School ‘B’
School ‘B’ is a two form entry primary school situated amongst one of the most deprived socio-economic areas in East Sussex. Approximately 20% of pupils were on the SEN register with three pupils with SEN statements. The SLCN
The facility supported six pupils with SLCN in three classes. The pupils’ difficulties ranged from specific language disorders (for example auditory memory or syntax), phonology and one pupil with autism. Additional SEN support in this school was exclusively small group withdrawal and the teachers all complained about the lack of liaison with SEN support staff within the school.

Evaluations from both of the workshops were good. School ‘B’ had invited colleagues from a nearby secondary school to the raising awareness of SLCN workshop which caused two difficulties. Firstly, these colleagues all identified that they needed more strategies for older pupils. Secondly, School ‘B’ did not photocopy enough handouts for all of the mainstream staff who attended the workshop. These two problems highlight the need for direct communication with mainstream schools to ensure that workshops meet the needs of all mainstream staff attending. However there were few negative comments for the raising awareness workshop and no negative comments at all for the following workshop explaining basic strategies for SLCN delivered only to mainstream staff at school ‘B’.

School ‘B’ reported that ongoing support and provision was very good during the academic years 2002/3 and 2003/4. The only difficulty appeared to be managing liaison and paperwork with different staff at the SLCN facility supporting pupils at this school although only school ‘B’ commented on this.

During the evaluation period of actual practice observed in school by SLCN facility staff, one teacher and all of the teaching assistants made use of weekly consultations. One teacher was able to provide very detailed feedback and discussed adapting strategies developed at the facility; she invited staff at the SLCN facility to work alongside her to develop attention and listening skills, visually supported activities and auditory memory. In this particular case resources were well used. The remaining teacher did not attend any consultations, nor make use of any strategies or resources suggested by the SLCN facility staff. However the pupil in this class, who had autism, made such good progress, despite the lack of transfer of strategies in the classroom, that he was discharged from the SLCN facility.

School ‘C’
The third example of INSET occurred in a junior school that had a considerably large number of pupils that fulfilled the criteria for support from the SLCN facility. The intake of this school was predominately from a large council estate. Approximately 15% of pupils were on the SEN register, twelve pupils had statements of SEN. Out of a total of twelve classes eight pupils were on the SLCN facility’s caseload during the evaluation period. The pupils receiving support had difficulty with semantics (understanding) and the expressive organisation of language, e.g. word finding difficulties and problems forming sentences. The pupils all had varying degrees of academic ability. The pupils selected for evaluation of INSET included a pupil with Downs Syndrome. This pupil’s learning was significantly delayed; he had no literacy or numeracy skills. The other pupil selected had severe word finding difficulties and problems with
receptive and expressive syntax. In recognition of the amount of pupils with SLCN at this school and the continual demands for ‘something to be done’ by the SENCO; this school received far more offers of support in terms of resources, consultations, and offers of additional workshops.

Mainstream staff at School ‘C’ evaluated the raising awareness workshop and the basic strategies workshop as positive. There were some negative comments for the workshop aimed at raising awareness of SLCN referring to video and audio tapes. No negative comments were recorded for the workshop explaining basic strategies. The practical activities and emphasis on transferable strategies included in the workshops were well received. Several of the positive comments made referred to mainstream staff intending to use suggested strategies in their own teaching practice.

Mainstream staff at school ‘C’ also rated the ongoing support and provision of the SLCN as very good for the academic year 2002/3 but less positive for the academic year 2003/4. Issues surrounding liaison time and the procedure of discharging pupils were highlighted as difficulties in the 2003/4 evaluation. The availability of resources was also cited as problematic; however, staff at the SLCN frequently reported donating resources to this particular school. It was noted that in general there was a high degree of interest and commitment in all areas by the teaching assistants which evident in the evaluation of actual practice observed completed by staff at the SLCN facility. However both the class teachers and the SENCO failed to attend scheduled meetings; consequently there was no feedback from class teachers. Some of the teachers did not attend the training sessions delivered during staff meeting times by the SLCN facility. The feedback was high in relation to the teaching assistants although the teaching assistants reported great difficulty in securing release time for these consultations, sometimes attending consultation sessions in their own time. A large amount of resources were either donated or loaned to the school; however only once in the evaluation year did a member of teaching staff make use of the resource library. Teaching assistants regularly accessed the resource library. The two pupils evaluated for INSET spent a substantial amount of time being withdrawn from class for individual or small group work with teaching assistants. The teaching assistants were observed using and extending strategies during 1:1 or small group sessions. Strategies directed at addressing SLCN in the classroom were not implemented at all by teaching staff even when resources were custom made and delivered in person.

The second research questions for this research paper, ‘what circumstances effected the implementation of suggested strategies into a classroom environment?’ will now be addressed. Eight themes have been identified that provide some explanation, and a discussion of these themes follows.

**Model of INSET**
Consideration must be given as to whether or not the type of INSET provided by the SLCN facility was appropriate. INSET offered by the SLCN facility was certainly evaluated by mainstream schools as comprehensive. The approach to INSET taken by the SLCN facility was designed to be flexible and responsive and
these are important components for collaborative working, (Thiessen in Hargreaves and Fullan, 1992b, p.90). In this evaluation, collaboration between school staff and external agencies was necessary in order to facilitate successful implementation of strategies, also highlighted by the EPPI-Centre Review (2003). The evaluation results however, demonstrate that the model of INSET alone used does not guarantee successful implementation; for this to happen, staff in mainstream schools must assimilate new knowledge into existing teaching philosophies (Nais, in Smyth, 1987, p.139). Highlighting particular models of INSET delivery as successful fails to take into account the interaction required by participants, and leaves the question of how to involve practitioners who don’t engage in INSET unanswered. Initially, the commitment of staff at the SLCN facility to deliver this model of INSET was seen as contributing to the effectiveness of INSET. However, according to Fullan (1991, p.90) commitment by the SLCN facility staff in may have been a barrier to successful INSET.

**Time**

Time, or rather a lack of time, is cited as an obstacle to the implementation of strategies in the classroom, even if these strategies were accepted as beneficial by teachers (Hargreaves, 1994, p.82ff). Furthermore, strategies are not necessarily implemented even when they are a legal requirement (Sikes in Hargreaves and Fullan, 1992a, p.49). However, being granted time to attend workshops and consultations did not fully account for lack of transfer of strategies in all of the mainstream schools that were evaluated by SLCN facility staff. Teachers at all of the mainstream schools evaluated were provided with classroom cover or were released from duties such as assemblies and staff meetings so they could either visit the SLCN facility or meet with SLCN facility staff. In this instance, the findings are similar to Hargreaves preparation time study (1994, p.120ff), in that designated time was frequently used for other purposes. In this evaluation of INSET, lack of time may be a barrier, but increasing the amount of time available to implement strategies was not necessarily a solution. Nonetheless, time is necessary to deal with educational change (Sikes, in Fullan and Hargreaves, 1992a p.42). Moreover, Lam (2001, p.167) suggests that it is problematic to gauge how much time is required by individual teachers for reflection before strategies can be implemented effectively and in synthesis with their current practice. In the three mainstream schools evaluated, the amount of time available to teachers to implement strategies may not have been an important factor, however the way in which time was prioritised for this, over other demands, possibly was. One of the main reasons for the extensive amount of teaching assistants implementing strategies however could be due to time. Teaching assistants are not perceived as having the additional demands that a teaching role has, for example time spent on planning and assessment. Additionally, teaching assistants may well have had less need to reflect on how new strategies may conflict with current teaching philosophies. It is possible that the mainstream schools selected happened to employ extremely effective teaching assistants, a factor not considered when the mainstream schools were selected for evaluation. From the SLCN facility’s perspective, there did not seem to be a connection between the amount of time devoted to mainstream schools, for example offers of more flexible consultation times or more resources, and the impact of INSET.
School Culture
Day defines school culture as being ‘…about people in the organisational setting and is characterised by the ways in which values, beliefs, prejudices and behaviour are played out within the micropolitical processes of school life.’ (1999, p.78). The culture of the school is usually created by the head teacher (Sikes, in Fullan & Hargreaves, eds. 1992 a, p.43) and can have a profound effect on teaching practice (Hargreaves, 1994, p.166). Success of INSET delivered by the SLCN facility could easily be explained to some extent by the culture or general attitude to inclusion. Numerous comments were made in School ‘B’ relating to the inappropriate placing of pupils in mainstream schools; staff would regularly comment that certain pupils supported by the SLCN facility should be placed in Special Schools. On the other hand, School ‘A’ was felt to be positive about inclusion; the question in this school was essentially not ‘if’ pupils should be included but ‘how’ this could be achieved. School culture does not explain though, individual differences in the implementation of strategies that were observed in School ‘B’; nor does it fully account for the high level of commitment shown by teaching assistants in all of the mainstream schools evaluated, regardless of school culture.

Individualism and Collectivism
Individualism and collectivism are closely linked with school culture (Hargreaves, 1994, p.165); a school’s culture can either promote collective practice or encourage individualism amongst staff. Individualism, however, can also arise from anxiety and uncertainty about the changing expectations of the teaching role (Hargreaves, 1994, p. 167). It is possible that, in some cases, staff from the SLCN facility were perceived as threatening in terms of expertise and ‘demands’ for changes in practice. The staff that demonstrated a degree of collectivism, though, made most use of the support available from the SLCN facility; this was particularly noticeable in respect of teaching assistants who appeared to work towards the common goal of promoting the inclusion of pupils with SLCN. The results show that where there was a lack of collaboration between mainstream staff and staff at the SLCN facility, strategies did not transfer to the classroom so collaboration was a necessary component for INSET on this occasion. Hargreaves concept of contrived collegiality (Hargreaves, 1994, p.195) was not found in the mainstream schools evaluated. Support was offered by the facility but not made compulsory, teachers could choose to collaborate or choose not to engage with staff at the SLCN facility at all; some chose the latter. Based on the ineffectiveness of contrived collegiality, this may have been beneficial in saving unnecessary time that could have been wasted ‘going through the motions’ described by Biott, in Biott and Nias, 1992 p. 3-17. To what degree the lack of collaboration by some teaching staff was known to other colleagues within the school was not established; certainly there are no references made to this in the evaluations of ongoing support and provision made by staff in mainstream schools.

Ownership & Control
The most effective implementation of strategies delivered during INSET appeared to take place when staff assumed both ownership and control of strategies and
adapted them in accordance with their own school environments and specific needs of pupils, an observation also illustrated by Higgins and Leat (1997). There was a direct link between the quality of feedback and the extent to which strategies were adapted, rather than adopted; implicit in these findings is the amount of reflection that was taking place when the feedback during consultations was detailed and specific (Buchman in Day et al, 1990, p. 50 - 54). It is possible that in circumstances when staff did not seem to have ownership or control of strategies, they felt they did not have ownership or control over the pupils with SLCN. In the two mainstream schools (schools ‘B’ and ‘C’) where some mainstream staff, specifically teachers, did not consult with facility staff or implement any strategies pupils spent a high proportion of time being withdrawn from classrooms for 1:1 or small group work. Some teachers in this situation may have genuinely believed that pupils with SLCN were either the responsibility of the SENCO, teaching assistants, or the SLCN facility itself, despite teachers’ obligations under the SEN Code of Practice (DfES, 2001). However, problems arising over ownership and control may run deeper still; perhaps some mainstream teaching staff felt disenfranchised from educational change per se, a recurrent theme for Hargreaves (1994).

The Nature of Educational Change – Imposed or Invited?
There is an extensive amount of literature detailing the disadvantages of change when change has been imposed. (See for example Stenhouse, 1975, p. 83, Grimmet and Neufield, 1994, p. 94-97, Day et al, 1993, p. 93). The SLCN facility is in a contradictory position; inclusion has been imposed via a succession of government directives, yet staff were not forced to participate in INSET. Even when workshops were provided during INSET days, some staff remained in their classrooms. The voluntary nature of INSET provided may have accounted for a lack of involvement by mainstream staff in some instances. It is interesting to contemplate if the mainstream staff who did implement strategies were already keen to address SLCN and would have done with, or without staff at the SLCN facility. Guskey (2002) and Fullan (1991, p. 47/48) both advocate the need to trial teaching strategies before such strategies can be incorporated into teaching practice. The quandary is that the staff who did not accept INSET are precisely the staff who would appear to benefit from such support, a point also noted by Day: ‘Homeostasis and habit will at the very least hold back change that the teacher does not recognise as being needed’ (1999, p.99). However, for experienced colleagues who may feel drenched by the amount and pace of new educational initiatives, paying lip service may be a conscious or unconscious survival mechanism. (Gardner et al, 2001, p.8 - 9).

Motivation
Whether or not staff in mainstream schools were motivated to collaborate with staff at the SLCN facility was felt to be a crucial. This is perhaps the only sure explanation of the differences found in the evaluation of actual practice observed in mainstream schools. Motivation was certainly intrinsic in some examples, where staff were interested in, for example autism, and genuinely wanted to learn more about the implications of such a disorder on teaching and learning. In other cases, motivation may have been extrinsic, prompted by performance management
procedures or a forthcoming inspection. In both instances, staff appeared motivated if the INSET was considered relevant, a claim also cited in studies by Ming Ng (2003) and Midthassel (2004). INSET needs to be relevant to either teachers’ personal development or professional performance. There are several reasons why teachers may be de-motivated, for example, an increase in ‘the range of educational goals and expectations from schools’ (Fullan, 1991, p.117) and the ‘addition of increasing social work responsibilities to the task of teaching’ (Hargreaves, 2000, p. 163). Given the importance of INSET and CPD in addressing new educational initiatives, a lack of motivation amongst teachers could present serious difficulties implementing any changes to teaching practice. In this evaluation, it appeared that a lack of motivation resulted in unsuccessful transfer of skills and knowledge gained during INSET.

**Teaching Assistants**

The discussion of findings would not be complete without comment about the importance of teaching assistants in using strategies from INSET with pupils. The background and awareness of teaching assistants in the mainstream schools evaluated varied enormously but their dedication to addressing SLCN was consistently apparent. The literature supporting this research paper concerning educational change and INSET concentrates exclusively on teachers; it fails to address the impact that teaching assistants have in facilitating changes in educational practice. The findings of this evaluation highlight the importance of teaching assistants as the ‘unsung heroes’ of inclusion; put simply teaching assistants readily addressed pupils SLCN even when more senior colleagues failed to do so.

**Conclusion**

Future INSET offered by the SLCN facility will be developed with the following conditions in mind. These conditions are symbiotic, for example collaboration should both reinforce and promote reflection and vice versa. If any one of these conditions is not sufficiently fulfilled then INSET is likely to fail in the long term, even if lip service prevails in the short term.

- Meaningful collaboration is paramount and can take a variety of forms for example between staff in mainstream schools and external specialists, emphasised in Day (1999, p.97), Fullan (1991, p.131 – 137) as well as Hargreaves (1994, p. 187 – 211).
- Reflection upon strategies and approaches introduced through INSET is necessary in order to implement changes in teaching practice, Craft (1996, p. 160 – 173) and Day (1999, p.135 – 139).
- Resources should be accessible in terms of cost, preparation time and availability; this refers to those required by pupils as well as teachers, for example books, computer programmes as well as specific classroom materials noted by Craft (1996, p.145) and Fullan (1991, p.61 – 64)
- Information disseminated though INSET needs to be appropriate to the context for which it is intended. Possible constraints should be investigated for example relevance to and compatibility with other

• Finally INSET should generate ideas that can be differentiated to suit the individual needs of pupils and teachers. Highly prescriptive methods, even if they fulfil all of the conditions above, are unlikely to be effective if there is no room for individual adaptation, supported by Fullan (1991, p.90) and Hargreaves (1994, p.61).

Undertaking an evaluation of actual practice observed in mainstream schools led to changes in the way in which INSET was delivered. It was discovered that several mainstream schools were not using strategies delivered through INSET. This academic year (2004/5) pupils were offered support from the SLCN facility on the condition that attendance at workshops and consultations were compulsory. This decision was mainly due to a continuing shortage of staff at the SLCN facility; only mainstream schools that demonstrated a commitment to collaborate with the SLCN facility would continue to receive support. Staff at the SLCN facility did not make this decision lightly. There was a great reluctance to withdraw support from pupils with SLCN because of a lack of co-operation from staff at mainstream schools although it was accepted that these pupils were not really benefitting if strategies did not transfer into pupils’ classrooms; it was intended that such pupils would be discharged from the SLCN facility. However, when this was made clear to staff at mainstream schools, they all opted to attend workshops and consultations and there was a definite increase in the transfer and adaptation of strategies into mainstream classrooms. It was interesting to discover that this also led to more genuine collaboration.

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The need for creating effective learning methods in the schools has long been sought. But this appreciation of necessity is rarely followed by practice. One of the main questions of the official education policy is how to build up and form the key competency of teaching of learning equally in Europe and Hungary.

The realized need is however followed with delay in practice, and the fact that the official educational politics treats the problem of learning methods as a central question to be solved in Europe and Hungary in the same way. Mihály (2002) in her paper summarizes the tasks set by the ministers of education of countries wishing to join the EU on conferences between 1998 and 2002. These tasks concerned necessity of improving the quality of education. She quotes that on the conference held in Uppsala the skills of the pupils, necessary for the society, were classified into two dimensions by the ministers. The personal dimension included the basic skills (reading, counting) the basic knowledge in mathematical and technical subjects, entrepreneurial ability, the knowledge and use of informatics and communicative methods. The cultural dimension included skills relating to methods of effective learning, social skills, knowledge of foreign languages and general cultural elements. The national educational politics relying on the results of investigations carried out by the PISAformulates the main tasks in the following: to deliver functional knowledge by the most efficient means. At the same time the conditions for equal opportunities should be improved.
Teaching of learning methods and the preparation of students to be able to learn independently became the central problem of the school of the 21st century. Our national educational politics also consider the preparation of students for independent learning an important task to be developed in the future.

From a cognitive point of view the key to learning lies in the capacity of a person to be able to represent some mental relations of the world and carry out operations in this field and not in reality. (Atkinson 1994.) Psychologists usually use the word knowledge only if information is represented mentally in a concrete form and it has some kind of structure. (Eysenck-Keane, 1997).

This complexly organized knowledge (cognitive-scheme) gives a framework for the acceptance of new information, the new information is adapted to the scheme or even modified (see: Piaget-1997). Whenever we acquire new information it is always adjusted to the framework of the former system of knowledge which enables us to reorganize our knowledge.

Constructivism, contrary to the traditional theory of cognition, thinks “knowledge is a completed system in every moment or in other words it supposes a cognitive system which is enriched not by contacts with the outside world and inner elaboration but by the transformation of its own structure.” (Nahalka, 2002.41.p) According to this constructivist viewpoint new knowledge is not a cumulative development, as compared to the previous knowledge, but it is a restructuring of the whole knowledge.

Cognitive psychology regards not the quantity but the quality of the mental achievement important. At the same time this quality of knowledge is important only if it is appropriate and functional. Therefore the way the knowledge is presented is not of vital importance but what kind of connection exists between the elements and how much it is meaningful (Csapó, 1998). Knowledge is effective only if its relevance and use is possible in many ways. Erikson and Smith (1991, Csapó, 1998) use the expression competence to indicate a knowledge which is usable and intelligent. The development of cognitive competence has become central in the pedagogical investigations (Csapó, 2001) and the newest school surveys are based on a comprehensive competence test (Schütter-Vári, 2004).

If we want to help the pupils to acquire intelligent, meaningful and useable knowledge we have to take into consideration their previous experiences. We strive for providing an intelligent knowledge and the new knowledge is to be acquired in many different situations (Csapó 1998).

Special attention should be paid to the meta-cognitive knowledge, which aims at the effectiveness of learning which is characterized as a person’s knowledge about his own mental activity and his ability to direct it (Kalmár 1997). Lappints (2000, 53.p) underlines self-reflection consciousness as the two most important characteristic features at meta-cognition. He emphasises that “due to the self-
reflection related to learning the individual recognises his own possibilities, inclinations and gifts. He can compare his own learning experiences with the demands of the environment and according to this he may modify his learning methods, habits and learning style. This is already a high level of self-development…”

According to Robert Fischer (2000, 53. p) “proper thinking and learning methods are characterized by meta-cognitive direction.” He speaks about “meta-cognitive” pupils who are well aware of the mental process and know themselves and their tasks very well and are capable of directing the thinking process, independent learning, and if necessary can guide the learning to new areas. He lays stress on three meta-cognitive elements of meta-cognitive knowledge: the monitoring of the process and its evaluation. He explicitly speaks about meta-cognitive or in the other words interpersonal intelligence which according to him is the most important part of human intelligence.

“This is the way we can get to our thoughts and feelings in order to understand we feel and think and to know the reasons for our actions.” (Fisher, 2000. 22. p.)

According to Panchara (2000), the components of independent learning consist of tree main areas: learning to learn, coaching to learn and teaching to learn.

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Learning to learn means the activity of students. While they learn several subjects, they learn to learn too.

Coaching to learn includes the activity of parents and teachers. It also means forming suitable learning environments and developing the students’ basic skills.

Teaching to learn refers to learning methods, techniques and strategies.

That is the reason, why we think that, the methodological aspects of improvement of independent learning are:

- Using methods for students’ activity (cooperative and differential pedagogy)
- Indirect development of learning methods (development of students’ basic skills)
- Direct development of learning methods (development of learning techniques and strategies)
- Providing consultation for students and their parents if they have learning problems (learning counselling)
Main tasks to teach to learn
- To create a suitable learning environment (home and at school)
- To form the ability of independent learning
- To create high motivation in learning
- To teach learning techniques, strategies, and help to choose them individually
- To teach learning techniques specialised for different subjects
- To teach to structure the learning time (planning the time for learning, making a daily routine, cut up the learning material, good parts to study, etc.)

These tasks are specific to various ages, because every developmental psychological age has different optimum periods in the learning process.

Improvement of learning efficiency in different age groups

Kindergarten age:
- Sensitive period in development of basic skills of learning: (perception, verbal and movement skills, body scheme). Learning is a spontaneous process.
- Main tasks are: to prevent learning problems, develop basic skills, with playful exercises, support the normal development process.

Primary school (6-10 years.)
- Learning becomes an intended process, students start using memory strategies, but they have a predisposition to learn mechanically
- Main tasks are: to teach elementary learning techniques (reading, writing, preview, etc.) develop basic skills, forming effective learning habits

Primary school (11-14 years)
- The thinking and memory development process makes it possible for students to have more understanding of their learning, than in earlier ages.
- Main tasks are: to teach setting out relevant matters, to teach and practise complex learning techniques (to make summaries or drafts, to test their knowledge etc.) Teach to structure the learning time. Teach learning techniques for different subjects. To support and practise meaningful learning process.

Secondary school
- Develop the ability of self-directed learning and to use effective learning techniques. Develop the meta-cognitive functions and interest in different subjects.
- Main tasks are: to teach and practise learning strategies. Teach to structure the learning time. Provide consultation for students, if they have any learning problems. Support the choice of profession according to their interest.

In our research, with the help of group counselling in the learning-efficiency training, we directed our students to develop this meta-cognitive direction of learning. The essence of learning counselling is that in group situations we try to find the solutions for individual problems and the group makes suggestions for the individual to try to find ways to solve his/her own problem and find and plan his/her own learning methods and make changes if necessary. The group situation
makes it possible to share experiences, form relations and the individual can test
the new behavioural models without any risk within the protective framework of
the group. The advantage of all group methods is that the individual gets
knowledge and opinions about him or herself and gets feedback from his/her
contacts. S/he acquires new knowledge which is based on experiences and
provides it with special significance. This is the most important element of the
change. We consider the counselling groups as a social environment which
provides appropriate conditions for development and change, where learning is
influenced by the aim it wants to achieve and the necessary changes are
accomplished with the help of the special effects in the group.

Counselling groups differ considerably from other type of groups in their special
system of aim.
In group counselling, as it is the case in all counselling, the members of the group
are in some kind of problem or situation and they hope that their participation in
the group will help to solve their own problem.
In our learning-efficiency-developing-training we tried to use the advantages of
group counselling and group-work to achieve our aims and to solve the students’
learning problems.

The speciality of the training method developed by us compared with other
methods is that it uses the method of group guidance to improve students’ learning
strategies, acquire new learning techniques and develop learning habits adaptable
to requirements in higher education. In accordance with the basic goals of
guidance the method’s starting point is that within the frame of the group each
student works individually on solving his/her problem in connection with learning,
and the group leader and the group itself supports him/her in this problem solving
activity. The speciality of training work is that we follow up the steps of problem
solving with the help of guidance models developed by us, (V. Dávid: 2002/a and
2000/a) with having regard to the phases of group development.

**The steps of problem solving strategy in the group counselling process**

*Revealing the problems*

The aim of this act is to make the circumstances of the group member seeking
advice clear to everyone; this includes him/herself, the other members of the
group and the group leader. Another goal is to bring out from the range of
problems one which can be effectively dealt with through help of guidance, which
is in accord with the goals of the group. The resolution of this difficulty would
probably ease other problems. In a guidance group it is of the essence that
everyone should be fully aware of all the problems because this is an essential
condition of being able to help each other in solving them. When starting a new
group the phase of problem revealing comes after getting acquainted with each
other. In our experiment (practice) the main types of problems were scheduling,
practising mnemotechniques, learning topics in subjects the students had little
interest, coping with nervousness before exams and searching methods to bring
themselves to sit down to learn.
Determining the goals of the group means the implementation of problem defining, making it possible to launch the next phase. Considering that problems may change from group to group and that the thematic line of guidance has to follow the needs of the group it may be different for each group.

*Working on finding alternative solutions*

The topic to be dealt with in the guidance group is defined by problem definitions and the goals of the group based on the members’ problems. The main topics arising in groups on training courses led by us are: internal and external conditions of learning, optimal learning habits during the term and the exam period, scheduling learning time, preparing daily and weekly schedules, finding the essence, taking notes, making a draft, visualisation techniques as mapping methods, learning styles, memory aids, the PQRST method, tackling exams and the importance of self-respect in learning.

Our experience show that during working on finding alternative solutions it is rewarding to run the steps of clarification and information collecting related to one topic simultaneously. When working on a topic the tasks have to be selected in such a way that the first step offers the possibility of meta-cognition in connection with learning.

In the second step we have to provide the group with information relating to the actual topic, either by letting them know the opinion of professionals dealing with learning methodology, or by talking about the effective learning methods of group members. Tasks used at the clarification step can show big variety from the methodological aspect: verbal free-interaction techniques, drama elements, questionnaires, drawing exercises, self-evaluating scales. Information may come from written sources, from the opinions of the group members or from sources provided by the group leader.

Meta-cognition about one’s own learning, self-definition, and conflicting opinions about advisable learning techniques can lead to the situation that a group member - realising his/her own imperfections in learning - may want to change his/her learning habits.

*Agreeing, preparing an action plan*

In group guidance the phase before the end is the step of integrating experiences and preparing action plans for changes related to learning. In the action plan it becomes clear what actions have to be taken in favour of more effective learning. In the case of a successfully operating group the members would have several possible answers on how to solve their problems.

Besides direct learning methodological development during the training course we put emphasis on indirect training as well. These include using attention and creativity improving exercises, mnemotechnical methods and exercises needing cooperative or individual problem solving.
Varying different work forms such as individual work, working in pairs, small groups or in a big group are used to generate active participation of the members in the process of both problem solving and group development.

The essence of learning counselling is that in group situations we try to find the solutions for individual problems. The group makes suggestions to help the individual solve his/her own problem and find out and plan his/her own learning methods and changes if necessary. The group situation makes it possible for individuals to share experiences, form relations and test the new behavioural models without any risk within the protective framework of the group. The advantage of all group methods is that the individual gets experiences and opinions about himself and gets feedback about his/her contacts. S/he acquires new knowledge which is based on experiences thus providing it with special significance. This is the most important element of the change. We consider the counselling groups as a social environment which provides appropriate conditions for development and change, where learning is influenced by the aim it wants to achieve, and the necessary changes are accomplished with the help of the special effects in the group.

Counselling groups differ considerably from other type of groups in their special system of aim.

In group counselling, as it is the case in all counselling, the members of the group are in some kind of problem situation and they hope that their participation in the group work will help to solve their own problem.

In our learning-efficiency-developing-training we tried to use the advantages of group counselling and group-work to achieve our aims and to solve the students’ learning problems.

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The Reflective Learner

Simone Fehlmann

Evolution in teaching strategies has always been a condition to progress, and the more so now in a completely different learning environment from what we knew 20, even 10 years ago. The necessity to create new ways of reaching their goals for students of the 21st century is obvious and one answer is to develop awareness and responsibility in their learning plans, and to make them actors and doers, not listeners and “subscribers” to the teachers’ efforts to interest them while providing knowledge.

One way is to make learners understand the objectives and the requirements of learning through projects they can choose to achieve with a tutor teacher to guide them. You explored that line completely in the Albufeira work, last year.

Answering individual needs and creating a personal portfolio of competences to stimulate and accompany the awareness and responsibility of learners is another way, I should even say a complementary way, which I discovered through using the European Language Portfolio – the E.L.P. - produced and validated by members of the Council of Europe. This is the tool which I intend to explore with you, although I know that some of you already know about it.

First, I will explain briefly what it consists of, and the principles it relies on to understand how it can facilitate the change from a teacher-centered to a learner centered approach. There are drawbacks and advantages, and we’ll try to explore them through experiences and testimonies.
A presentation of the Portfolio

The purpose of the Council of Europe in publishing The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages was to clarify communicative objectives and to fix common goals for language learners in order to encourage everybody to learn more languages, to facilitate mobility in Europe and to contribute to mutual understanding.

The first ELP (European Language Portfolio) – appeared in Switzerland in 1995. It was then created to develop strategies in order to accompany self-learning projects in a lifelong project. It thus met the two key goals of the project formed by the council of Europe: the development of broad functional plurilinguism and self reliant citizens.

The French version of the ELP was published in 2000 and up to now, 36 out of the 45 member states of the Council of Europe are concerned with the ELP project. 64 E.L.P.s are now validated. More are on the way, because each country chose to decline one or several versions in keeping with the age and goals of the learners, respecting the criteria of the Common Core, but corresponding to particular contexts and educational traditions.

As an example, France has created three versions of the Portfolio: one for children in primary schools, one for pupils in junior schools (colleges in the French system) and one for older pupils and adults (Lycées, university).

The ELP is composed of three elements:

- **a language passport**: shared by all the countries which have adopted the E.L.P. which records the owner’s linguistic identity and language profile, language learning socio-cultural experiences, a list of diplomas implying language qualifications.

- **a language biography**: that enables the learner to use graduated learning targets, suggestions to develop personal projects, a means to record his/her achievements through self-assessment, to quote his/her socio-cultural experiences in language learning.

- **a dossier**: in which the learner keeps samples of his/her work in the language(s) s/he learns, as well as memos of his/her reflection on the strategies used to solve problems.

The Language Passport

To explain in more details the role of each document, we can say that The Language Passport allows the learner to report his/her achievements in each language s/he has come across. The European communication goals are described in a double page set at the beginning of the passport and for each language; s/he can report personal achievements by ticking a grid in each of the five competences according to the level s/he has reached in each competence.
There are 5 competences:

listening  
reading  
spoken interaction  
spoken production  
writing

…. and six levels for each competence:

Beginners  
A1 Breakthrough  
A2 Waystage

Independent users  
B1 Threshold  
B2 Vantage

Proficient users  
C1 Effective proficiency  
C2 Mastery

As you can see, the learner can draw a rather precise profile in each competence, much more detailed than a mark for an exam or a written appreciation. The advantage is that it is very quickly visualised.

The other pages are dedicated to a record of his/her socio-cultural experiences, proving his/her knowledge of social habits and behaviour, or initiatives s/he has taken in order to be in contact with native-speakers. Such information is never mentioned in diplomas. The last page is a list of diplomas summing up what the learner’s general level is.

Such a document is not a diploma but a personal document the learner can choose to use or not. It is a sort of language C.V. which can serve as a memo for a learner to know where he stands in each language he has been practising, or as a proof of his proficiency and level in the languages he has been learning and of his level in each of the five skills.

It can be used by:
- pupils when they change school or class or group,
- students in university,
- employees when they apply for a job.

It has also the advantage of clarifying the objectives of language learning for both teachers and learners, which makes it a source of dialogue between them, changing thus the nature of the relationship.

This passport concept can be used in any learning field, even if reference levels are not so clearly defined. They can be objectives in a curriculum. What is appreciated is the detailed and transparent way of their description, the precision and variety of the records and the facility to read them.
The Language Biography
It has a pedagogical function.

The same descriptors are used both to define goals and objectives and to self assess achievements, but each level in each competence is split up in a graduated progression. That is to say from a descriptor of the reference program stated as A2 in reading, for instance, the French version gives 3 steps to reach grade A2:A2-1:A2-2:A2-3 which corresponds to the final A2 level descriptor. Such a progressive interpretation of the descriptor is to stimulate the learner’s efforts who otherwise might stay too long on the same global level A2.

At each stage several tasks are described so as to help learners to monitor their work either in choosing that task or a similar one with an understanding of the linguistic target it implies.

As you have at least five possibilities on each level or sub-level to assess different languages, it can be used to promote plurilingualism in a life-long project. Thanks to the transparency of objectives and tasks, it can develop the capacity of a learner to transfer strategies from LV2 to LV3.

For language teachers, it is an opportunity to share the same objectives in the different languages they train their pupils to learn, which facilitates team work on language learning methods and an exchange of ideas and experiences.

The Dossier
It is the part reserved for samples of achievements presented by the learner, but also notes or more organized memoes on his/her strategies to achieve success. With the creation of a self-assessment tool in the biography, this is the second and most important step to develop an autonomous approach to learning.

With the creation of a primary school version and a college version, the French choice was to start using the E.L.P. in schools, and my experience exclusively refers to this field. To create for pupils and students the habit of getting personally involved in language learning through projects accompanied by the E.L.P. and keep a memo of one’s own progression from a very early age helped to develop a gradually autonomous approach. It could only facilitate the change towards a learner centred approach. Today it is far from being generalised, but with the adoption of the European Reference levels in the curricula, we can hope for a rapid development. Indeed, it can help both students and teachers to face the requirements of education for the next 10 years if we refer to the conference on the future learning needs of teachers.

The ELP as a tool to change from a teacher-centered to a learner centered approach
Indeed, with the descriptors of the European Reference Programme beginning with “the learner is able to...” (and not “the learner has to...”), the E.L.P conceptors mark their intention to show the responsibility of the learner. But it was thanks to David Little’s work in his Centre for Language and Communication
Studies in Trinity College, Dublin, that the E.L.P has become an asset to develop autonomous learning, and we learnt from him the best way to use it through the seminars and advice he gave us.

Autonomy was not necessary to introduce the E.L.P. but as it was designed for learners to accompany their life-long project, using it to develop a gradually autonomous approach to learning was an obvious consequence. We all have heard or tried experiences in autonomy. Some were synonymous of chaos; others remained so strict that you could not make a difference with a teacher-centered approach for they relied on too many written instructions given to the students. Others looked hedonistic and little learning was achieved.

With the ELP I have just described to you, one could find the backbone of a rigorous and complete structure to prepare learners to become autonomous.

How can such a simple structure become a tool for autonomous learning?
First, we must consider, as D. Little reports in his article published in “Autonomy 2000” (University of Helsinki, Sept. 2000), that: “… learner’s autonomy refers to the exercise of an individual capacity for detachment, critical reflection, decision-making and independent action” and not simply having access to knowledge in a ressource centre without help. “It also requires interaction with other people…” He concludes: “… learning is both an individual cognitive activity and social interactive action.” (cf Vygotsky)

I can assert that such are the principles which underlie the implementation of the E.L.P all through its different steps, mainly because it supports strategies which correspond to the key questions every autonomous individual asks him/herself even if s/he is not aware of it.

The first question D. Little recommends the student or the trainer to ask themselves is:

WHY?
“Why learn/teach a foreign language?”
“What does learning/teaching a foreign language mean?”
I will describe one example I observed to illustrate that point.

After an individual reflection written on a piece of paper, and a group discussion, learners, who were less able pupils, 16 to 18 year-old boys and girls, chose the most relevant answers to write on a poster.

Here are some of the reasons given by them to the first question:
“.. because I want to travel”, “.. because my neighbour is English”, “.. I like American detective films…”, “Now, it’s necessary to have a job…”
But it was opposed by their answer to the second question: “Speaking English is too difficult”, “we have to learn vocabulary and grammar”, “understanding is difficult because of the different pronunciation”.

Chapter 19: The reflective learner
The teacher took that opportunity to introduce the Portfolio with the Language Biography. When reading in detail descriptors at level A2 as an example to prove that learning a language did not only mean grammar and vocabulary, most of them discovered they could already achieve level A2 requirements in understanding and speaking, even if they made mistakes and had a poor vocabulary.

The second question was:
**WHAT TO DO? WHAT FOR?**

They were asked to plan projects, and a theme about New York was chosen after a short discussion.

The final objective had to be discussed and formulated in the group, with the help of the teacher, in terms of an achievement: to make an exhibition to present New York to younger students. They were already used to working in groups and as the teacher had chosen to be in a language centre, the environment was adequate. Computers, books and resources could be found at hand.

To get organised and plan action, she asked them to use the E.L.P language biography which had been explained previously to help their reflection and decisions. In order to select their resources, they chose to concentrate on the reading skill. The teacher suggested looking at the descriptors from level A2-3 to B1 and invited each member of the group to check personally what his individual level was and the sort of tasks which corresponded to the competence aimed at.

During that session, the teacher went from group to group and helped them to formulate some questions but did not give instructions. They decided on the time which required six periods, and tasks were dispatched to individuals or groups of two or three, with an obligation to report to the class regularly. Being aware of one’s own level and planning the tasks to reach one’s aim was a decisive step towards autonomy.

The third stage corresponded to the question
**HOW TO DO IT?**

To monitor the work, they looked for material or prepared questions for interviews, according to the different projects. They worked by themselves and in pairs, and found help through group discussions, and from the teacher.

They had different sorts of actions: discussions to choose documents, reports to the class to exchange information, training sessions with the teacher when a special notion or competence required it. They developed reflection with the teacher to decide on methods to present the different aspects they had decided upon. The role of the teacher was important then, as an adviser and a coach.

**How did I succeed?**

To assess their achievements at the different stages of their work, they discussed with their teacher to clarify criteria.
For the final assessment, they had to organize the exhibition, to prepare an oral presentation, write notes for documents to be stuck on posters or given to other groups. The teacher shared with them the responsibility of deciding on criteria. Both students and teacher assessed those final performances and she noticed that they often under evaluated their achievements.

**How did I learn?**
This was the last but not least important step to find one’s own learning method and later be able to transfer it to learn another language, another subject. As D. Little puts it in “The E.L.P Guide to Teachers and Trainers”:

> “The word ‘Reflection’ means thinking about something in a conscious and focused way”;
> “This definition covers a complex range of mental behaviour. In language learning, we can reflect on facts about the target language, the processes by which we seek to learn it, and the processes involved in using it. We can reflect before we engage in a learning activity or communicative task (planning), while we are performing the activity or task (monitoring), and after we have completed it (evaluation).”

Such a reflection, with the help of the teacher in starting to analyse difficulties and pointing out solutions did not take place only at the end of the project, but all through the questioning process. It was both individual and interactive in group discussions.

I quote here contributions at the Albufeira conference last year, such as A.Frajdin’s work on the different learning styles.

I must mention two more requirements which D. Little asked language teachers to comply with. First, **it had to be written**, and it took time to convince them that they were able to do it but we agreed to what D. Little recommended, because as he said the act of writing obliged them:

- “to materialize intuition and to make it a reality, something to reflect on,”
- “to make it easier to distance oneself and be critical, and make the complex process clearer.”

We noticed that remedial work chosen after such a reflection was very efficient. For example two groups asked for three lab periods because their fellow students could not understand their exposés due to their very poor pronunciation.

Second, it was to be done **in the target language**. Here the teacher or trainer has an important part to play, especially with children, in giving them words and ideas through very simple remarks and set-sentences which helped their analysis and stimulated reflection.

Although it may appear as a major difficulty to beginners, it is in fact an asset because language is thus necessary to communicate for asking questions to the teacher and in group discussions. It soon became a source of motivation to use language to a purpose. It proved to be very stimulating as they practised real communication and did not reduce language to grammatical or linguistic elements.
in sentences. In fact, it was a live experience of the descriptors they read in the Portfolio version of the Common European Reference Framework.

Such a project, accompanied by the E.L.P documents and approach proved very rewarding, both for students who began to integrate key questions for an autonomous approach through activities they had chosen, and to reflect on their own learning style from self-assessment results. It was a good illustration of the first of D. Little’s statement we quoted, as it developed their capacity to plan, monitor, assess and reflect both individually and in groups. Learners had been active; everybody had a share in the success of the achievement, which restored self-esteem with the less able. It also changed the relationship between the teacher and her pupils.

If learners are to exercise gradual responsibility for planning, monitoring and evaluation, what is left for the teachers to do? They must change their role to become observers, advisers or coaches in order to prepare their students to become autonomous as well as to answer needs. They must not withdraw to the side. They always play a key role in stimulating the groups they are responsible for. They must initiate the various modes of interactive action through which the learners can develop their autonomy; they must find ways of negotiating with them the “necessary knowledge and skills” and look for the most appropriate way of leading them to the next level. Here again, we meet the goals set for the future teachers.

This description about the way to use the E.L.P. as a tool to formalise procedures during project work can be used in any learning activity and more particularly the development of the reflection process with its transferability to other subjects. I would like to stress how the E.L.P. provides both learners and trainers with a structured and rigorous approach to self-learning projects. It has to be introduced gradually, and explained in a training period and it takes time and a will from teachers. This is why many countries choose to do it with volunteers.

In France, we tried first with business students and Mr. Goullier, the general inspector in charge of the French project, helped us a great deal to make it a success. Then a general distribution of E.L.P. to the first year students in lycée two years later facilitated “awareness” of the European programme, and provided a great help to teachers ready to start project work and a learner-centred approach.

In our experience with younger learners, it was not used on a regular basis but they all enjoyed sessions with the portfolio project. These could take place once a week, or with a project every three or four weeks which could alternate with more formal training sessions required either from an analysis of results after self-assessment or a decision of the teacher to meet the syllabus requirements with the whole group after observing the necessity for it.

With older students, according to the teacher’s choice, it could be used regularly to start every new project and thus make it gradually the personal reference of students who could use it whenever they wanted. It might be either during classes
or for individual work to improve results which they had recorded as deficient in
drawing their profiles or to develop special competences. Some teachers had a
session with the Portfolio every half term to make sure students kept using it.

In fact, working with a Portfolio is not “working en plus” for the teacher, but it
can be for the learner, as it invites students to work on their own. It helps to
develop initiative and responsibility with the learner and records progress.
Planning and assessing was clearer to both learners and teachers as they shared
transparent objectives, and that changed the relationship.

**Advantages and difficulties**

**Motivation** is the first word we had on mind when starting all this.

As we quoted it during this exposé, it helps learners to develop
- a feeling of responsibility

From a pedagogical point of view, the E.L.P is designed to stimulate learners to
take decisions and to encourage action. They can do it first because objectives are
transparent and focus on communicative goals which they can understand. They
can also identify skills and communication strategies. Results can be reported in a
visible way which does not refer to marks but to successful steps. The knowledge
of a profile helped quite a lot of students to invest more on personal work to reach
the expected level. It goes along with project work, which always brings out
initiatives from the weaker to the stronger student. But saying that is not enough to
convince both teachers and learners.

- reflection and the beginning of a cognitive approach

was a difficulty but it helped to encourage an adult attitude to learning. This is
what a Czech teacher says about it: “...learners spend more time thinking about
their learning abilities and knowledge……they reflect more on what they do....”.
They all felt like actors and they called it “learning” in a different way.

- the use of the target language

in a real communicative situation, that is discussing in a group, asking the teacher
for advice, analysing results. It was both an excellent training and a discovery for
most students that they could make themselves understood, even if they made
mistakes. Writing to a purpose for memos on reflection or project work was also
another incentive. Communication goals were prior to linguistic achievements.
Tolerance of ambiguity and uncertainty in communicative levels at level A1 and
A2 (breakthrough and waystage) are clearly signalled. It facilitated their
willingness to take risks in order to cope with communicative tasks.

- the report of success

As you only signal what you achieve, you see your profile gradually rising. It can
enable slower students to have their own rhythm as it is an individual document
and it can help less able students to recover confidence and make them aware of
their possibility to improve their results with personal efforts.

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- the mention of voluntary work
The building of their profile helped them to invest more on personal work to reach
the expected level. Seeing the deficient areas such as listening or speaking was an
incentive to students to concentrate on these oral competences and look for means
of training their ears such as using the lab facilities, working on videos or listening
to the radio. Such work can be mentioned in the Language Biography and results
brought as a proof in the dossier.

- the validation of socio-cultural of experiences
It is an asset to develop initiative and we saw that language learners did not take
into account experiences or knowledge acquired outside school. Some students
who had learnt a language by living for three months in a different country or
being brought up by an Italian grandma or visiting regularly their German family
discovered they had a socio-cultural experience and even grade A2 in oral
competences.

- an incentive to learn more languages
One student, who spent holidays with her Greek family, when drawing her
profile discovered she could understand Greek Level B1 and speak Greek Level
A2, but could not write or read in that language. So she started evening class to
reach Level A2 in both reading and writing.

- the idea of building a Portfolio of competences
What Kohonen calls ‘commitment and ownership of one’s language learning’. Students became aware that if they stopped learning Spanish or German after two
or three years, they still possessed elements of those languages which could situate
their profile in some competences at level A2 to start with.

Although we must not equate the Portfolio with a diploma, it can testify more
clearly than exams and diplomas to the exact proficiency of their owners as well
as their mobility in European countries and cultural awareness. Such an advantage
was particularly observed by business students applying for a job when they met
employers and presented their Passport. As D. Little puts it: An autonomous
learner needs an autonomous teacher! And this potential success rests on the
teacher’s change of role and attitude as we said previously.

When we started that experience, some teachers were reluctant. At worst they
referred to it as extra-work, and time-consuming, not directly linked to the
syllabus and the national tests. They did not say it but we knew they considered
such a project as a loss of power, since they were no longer the source of
knowledge and assessment. They were not trained to teacher-centered methods
and did not want to question habits.

Others had more professional reasons. They were afraid of chaos - some of them
even of group-work. They did not want to have pupils waste their time because
they would not be efficient enough. They thought that pupils were not able to plan
and monitor projects and did not trust their capacity at self assessing.
Pupils also were reluctant. Although they appreciated the project sessions, some were at a loss to understand language learning objectives in terms quite new to them:
- to have the choice and responsibility in planning
- to master self assessment
- to reflect on their strategies.

Parents and administrators did not believe in a new evaluation system, with no marks but general appreciation on a proficiency with a Passport which would not be certified by an authority as a diploma.

Two major points for teachers and students
In fact, we could sum up these difficulties by mentioning two major points for both teachers and students:

The descriptors referring to communicative activities are written in general terms
Both teachers and pupils are not used to assessing language through communicative results and behaviour, but rather on linguistic achievements. Very little mention is not made of the vocabulary and neither grammar nor threshold of intelligible pronunciation are precisely referred to.

Moreover, I can point out some terms which created problems with descriptors such as listening:
Level A2: “Understanding simple messages”. What is a simple message? Information at a train station is very simple, but conditions with loud speaker voices, noise, and coded message make it difficult to understand.
Level B2: “Understanding extended speech”. What is the definition and the limit of extended speech? “Provided the topic is reasonably familiar”. What do we consider as reasonably familiar?

The second remark was about the situations which are described. They all correspond to everyday life, professional or adult situations. Teachers had often to transfer to different material corresponding to the descriptions of the curricula of pupils up to 15. On the other hand, they must not be mistaken for a syllabus. They are examples of situations.

Third, the multiplicity of micro objectives may create a split effect of language learning. That is why we must always have in mind that they are examples to measure the achievements which can be observed in a more complete act of communication, or one particular skill in an exchange which includes interaction between two skills. It is a snapshot, at a certain time on a certain part of the whole achievement which is programmed.

Another problem was the moment they could assert the level was achieved. If they commonly agreed to three successful tasks or circumstances, practice is necessary to keep that level and they can observe more occurrences in tasks whose purpose is not to check that particular capacity.
On the same topic, some students *stayed on the same level* for quite a long period, which is not surprising, when reaching Level A2 for some or B1 for many, even with the detailed progression described in the Language biography.

*The second difficulty which remains is with self-assessment.*

Self assessment, when well explained, encourages reflection and a decision for the next step to achieve progress, but it is a challenge to make students at ease with that notion.

Here I quote D. Little’s work published in Language Testing (2005):

> “It is central to the Portfolio because it is the key to the development of learner autonomy insofar as it shapes and directs the reflective processes on which such development depends.”

The Passport records the learner’s assessment of his/her proficiency (a summative role).
The Language Biography provides goals for the learner to assess a starting point and achievement (a formative role).
The Dossier includes samples of the material used for self assessment as a proof of progress (the proof).

To clarify that notion of self assessment, it is very important to note that the Council of Europe reference levels, which are used as descriptors, present language objectives directly related to communicative language use. They develop mainly the behavioural dimension of L2 proficiency, but include the qualitative aspects of spoken language (range, accuracy, fluency, interaction, and coherence) and linguistic criteria such as vocabulary range, vocabulary control, grammatical accuracy, phonological control …

The main difficulty for learners is that in a teacher-centred approach, they are not expected to assess themselves and teachers are not yet familiar enough with the CEFRL requirements to include all these criteria in their traditional form of assessment.

The first risk at the beginning is that teachers who gradually train their students to self assess give them tools which rely on subjective criteria and the second risk is that in formal tasks or exams, they refer to external criteria which rely on a norm different from the one applied in self assessment.

The tendency is to assimilate *a norm referenced assessment* to a summative assessment and *criterion assessment* as a formative assessment. This is wrong. Both should be used on the same principle, because both deal with the complex of knowledge, skills and reflection. This change of focus from external and norm-referenced marking to criterion and behavioural proficiency is indeed a great change for both teachers and learners and it is a source of progress for learners. But to effect real change and develop a reflective approach, both summative and normative assessment criteria should be the same as the criteria of formative assessment, the part played by self assessment. Learners who are more proficient
in summative assessment are those who have practised self assessment on the same criteria.

A lot of research work is well on the way to make both forms of assessment meet and it is essential because teaching methods can change but if the main pedagogical efforts are distorted to meet the requirements of exam constraints, part of this progress is brought to nothing.

The chance for language learning is that the descriptors of the Common Reference Level provide a basis for elaborating tests and curricula because they are open. It was a drawback as we mentioned above, saying they were too general, but it also offers a valuable advantage. Indeed they contain insufficient information to generate test contents and get adapted to curricula corresponding to the different European states who decide to adopt them as the principles of their language learning educational policy.

Self assessment, as a key notion to the Portfolio, interferes on three levels:

First during learning:
Learners should be able to assess how well they are progressing, how well they are learning at a particular stage, how successful they are in their tasks and reaching their goal. This is part of the reflective process included in the Language biography.

The second level is when they check their results with the descriptors of the Common Reference programme. They can adjust if they under rate their performance or on the contrary they must demonstrate their proficiency if they over rate their level.

The third level is to assess their linguistic proficiency – the words they use, the structures they can deploy, and the sounds they can articulate. Here we are more on a norm-referenced type, but with the descriptors they are graded levels of “linguistic requirements” such as “making mistakes”, “being able to self-correct mistakes”, “using simple words, simple sentences” to “more complex sentences, to detailed descriptions of specialised subjects.”

It is very difficult to self assess such a proficiency, and that is why D. Little recommends self-correcting exercises, when it is possible or practising pair-work on assessment, and of course, help and comment from the teacher. Yet, such a linguistic assessment is necessary to make them understand better the requirements of exams and as self assessment does not replace assessment on boards or exams, the learner’s awareness to reflect on his own knowledge and skill through achievements is a most useful tool for a formative but also summative assessment.

If discussions and cooperation are very productive for reflection and using the target language the E.L.P. is judged as a time-consuming instrument, at least in the introductory phase. Teachers and learners worry about additional work. But the
initial investment largely pays off in the long run. A long term view, however, does not easily convince teachers and learners during their endeavour to get through a programme and to prepare and pass the next exam. The more coherence that is established between those Common Reference Programme descriptors and objectives in the curricula, the quicker the E.L.P. will be felt as an agent of change to gradually suppress the tension between innovation and existing practice.

As a conclusion
What we discovered through this experience is that people who were ready to start with the E.L.P. were: “the autonomous teachers”, people who already had the will of teaching in a learner-centered approach and who were familiar with project work. Indeed, this approach does not take the place of other methods, as we are well aware that a variety of methods is necessary to meet the different learning styles. It can alternate with other teaching styles, as project work does, but the aim is to integrate the E.L.P. strategies as a basic reflection on learning in general.

Teachers all said that it helped them to be more precise and rigorous in the preparation of work and it was easier for them to encourage learners take initiatives and be autonomous thanks to the clarification of objectives once they had become familiar to them. Motivation was not due only to the Portfolio but mainly to the gradual development of the learner’s responsibility in the different approach to learning it implied. With more reluctant teachers, motivation and progress in achievements were the best way to convince them to try.

As to the transfer of this experience to different learning fields, we can say that the creation of such a tool is feasible, not necessarily on international terms, but with making students understand in their own terms what learning such a subject means, to point out the objectives defined in a curriculum and illustrate them through tasks they can easily understand and transform into goals ahead of them.

I am sure such tools already exist, but what is more difficult is to convince the teacher to trust the capacity of learners to do it without constantly interfering in planning, monitoring and assessing. Sometimes they are needed just for help, advice and training when necessary. The teacher’s achievement, in the last stage, would be to assist learners who have thus gradually developed their initiative to get organized and be able to build their own strategies to find information and use their knowledge to solve new problems. In one word to make them REFLECTIVE learners!

The European Language Portfolio is an open tool which can be used or adapted to help individuals to reach that goal whether they be learners or trainers. Its success lies in our conviction and the way we use it.

Internet sites to find information:
http://culture.coe.int/portfolio
http://www.ecm1.at
http://www.alte.org
Suggestions for further reading
Dam, L., *From Theory to Classroom Practice*, Dublin: Authentik

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In one of the workshops during the Learning teacher conference in Prague (May 2005) a randomly formed group of conference members worked as a Problem Based Learning group. Guided by the procedure of ‘the seven steps’ they actually worked like a group of students. In this short article you will find information on PBL, the procedure of the seven steps, the case used in Prague and some conclusions, coming from the workshop participants.

**Ingredients in problem based learning**

In pbl the following ingredients play an important part:

a) A problem, which may be theoretical or practical, which requires more serious study

b) Prior knowledge, which is activated by the process of thinking through the problem

c) Questions raised by the problem and the need or motivation to look for a ‘solution’ from other sources,

When students share the process of active thinking with each other in a small group, and this takes place under the guidance of a tutor, the foundations of problem based learning are in place.

The ‘problem’ is used as a starting point for the learning process, even before students are presented with any course material. Students are expected to analyse the problem, usually as part of a group (the tutorial group), under guidance of a tutor. Initially the group will make a provisional analysis on the basis of their prior knowledge. This analysis raises questions about a number of issues that cannot be
understood, clarified or explained initially. These questions will form the basis for formulating learning objectives for self-study. Students will work towards these learning objectives, individually or in small groups, during the period that elapses before the next tutorial, usually a few days. They may do this by reading articles, watching video tapes, consulting teaching staff or other experts etc. Following this self-study phase, students will report back to each other in the tutorial, explaining what they have learned and evaluating the extent to which they have reached a better understanding of the problem.

The ‘problem’ can be presented in various ways: it may be a written case, or a video, or statistical information, or a newspaper article etcetera. The problem is always linked to real life, mostly related to the professional context in which the students are being educated.

Problem based learning is usually organised within a module (or course unit), in which a particular theme is dealt with for a number of weeks. Various disciplines are involved in this module. It is the task of the teachers responsible for the module to compile a module book to be used by students as a guide to negotiating their way through the study material. The module book consists of a number of problems or assignments (tasks) which offer the students a way of unravelling the module’s main theme, time tables, a list of learning resources, as well as a summary of supplementary study activities such as practical work, lectures, excursions etc.

The seven steps
One of the working procedures used by students to arrive at results is the seven steps procedure. At the CHN University (Leeuwarden, the Netherlands) all faculties use this procedure during the first few years of the professional training of students, both in the field of management (leisure, hospitality and retail), as well as in the teacher training and social worker training.

**Step 1: Clarify unclear terms and concepts:**
- Ensure that everyone understands the terminology
- Ensure everyone sees the situation in the same way (no ambiguity)
- Ensure that everyone agrees on aspects beyond the remit of the problem

**Step 2: Define the central issue**
- Use the core problem as a bridge between prior and new knowledge

**Step 3: Analysing the central issue**
- Activate prior knowledge
- Find out what the group members know or think about the problem

**Step 4: Take inventory and organize analysis**
- Order the ideas from step 3
- Summarize and form hierarchy
Step 5: Formulate learning objectives
- Study assignments a group formulates for themselves
- Not to solve the problem, but to acquire further knowledge
- Indicate how to achieve the goals

Step 6: Self directed study: seek information outside the group from various resources
- Work individually
- Careful selection of resources
- Summarise in your own words
- Make clear notes

Step 7: Synthesize and test the new information
- Exchange the new information
- Evaluate, criticise and check

By using these seven steps, students get used to thinking in a formalized and analytical way about the problems. In a short time, people who started from: 'I don’t know anything about this subject' have moved to: I would like to know more about these specific aspects of the subject'. Indeed during the workshop this procedure appeared to be useful because our would-be PBL group were able to go home and study about their case with guided learning objectives after only 30 minutes!

What’s for dinner?

Problem task used in PBL workshop in Prague

Kerstin from Denmark and Farid, her Moroccan boyfriend, are making a shopping list for a dinner they are planning next weekend. They have been living together now for one year exactly, although they do not do so officially. It is a good reason to have a party. They have decided to prepare a dinner that caters to all the guests needs; however, they seem to be running into some problems. Each guest has his or her own tastes and wishes. Farid’s father has high blood pressure and so is not allowed to eat any fats. Also, Kerstin’s grandmother is a diabetic. Caroline, Kerstin’s sister has a relationship with an Indonesian student, although that could be over by the end of the week, because of all those cultural differences.
Conclusions and questions from the workshop

- **The procedure is motivating**: randomly chosen people, who did not know each other became involved in the problem, and really wanted to find things out
- **The procedure is effective**: the group formulated learning objectives about hygiene, cultural differences, food and health etcetera
- **The procedure is efficient**: it took this group only thirty minutes to come up with a whole list of ideas, hypothesis and questions about a subject they never thought about before
- Is the procedure equally effective in secondary education as it appears to be in higher education?
- Can one train pupils and students to use this procedure for other purposes than problem based learning?
- What about the role of the teacher?

These questions can be a base for further research and training in the Learning Teacher Network. The future role of the teacher will be one of coaching and guiding students to develop an active attitude and take more responsibility for their own learning process. Problem based learning can certainly play a part in this development!

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Chapter 21: The learning experience guided by online broadcast

Introduction

Nowadays, the importance of web-based resources has been growing in what concerns the number of users and their age span. This article’s main focus will be the sharing of pedagogical contents, through ICT resources.

The willingness to explore new challenges is a common characteristic of our younger population. And it is worth mentioning that their learning ability of the so called “new” technologies walks with and even surpasses that willingness. The motivation for these young users starts, most of the times, through the interaction made available in these contents. This interaction with visually enriched contents motivates them to learn.

It is known that computer games help the learning development and mental agility of the player. This idea should be a pre-requisite when creating contents for students, by trying not to make them dull or repetitive.

As such, the term broadcast used in the title of this paper is not supposed to be taken only in its traditional concept, like the broadcast of television or radio information, but also in a more generalised way, that is, in all the forms to make

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32 This paper was written thanks to personal experience only. There was no research on books or internet. The studies that we refer to along this work were heard on TV documentaries and common knowledge.
the contents available, either by text, multimedia or sound. These contents will be, obviously, related to the new technologies, e.g. web, video projection, computers, etc.

This article will also focus on some study cases that used ICT and were well received by both students and teachers.

**“Traditional” method versus “ICT” method**

All methods and concepts referred in this paper should not be considered as absolute or substitutes of the actual teaching methods, the so called “traditional” methods. These methods / concepts should be faced as an alternative and as a tool to our everyday classes, to motivate the interaction between students/teachers and students/subject.

Let us bear in mind, though, that what might be considered ideal to one teacher, might not be for another. Each one will have to adapt, change or re-create them according to their pupils. The teacher will have to make sure if he is willing to start a project such as this or even if he has the necessary tools to apply it, because if the resources are not available or even if the teacher is not willing to take the risk, the time spent in the analyses and implementation of such a digital pedagogical solution will be in vain. The teacher’s refusal to change is also one of the factors that stop the application of new technologies in the classroom environment. It is, however, more than time, to overcome this attitude. The implementation of these tools may even become a connecting link between student and teacher, being both learning and evolving.

**ICT tools**

There is a considerable number of options that can be adapted and used when making available pedagogical contents. In this article we will only mention some of them, already used in the classroom environment, so that we can make our subject clear.

Most teachers feel lost when creating contents and adapting them to the available tools. But what they need to understand is that, nowadays, we have a wide range of options and information that can easily help them to implement their ideas in an easy and user-friendly way.

**Websites**

One of the most common solutions is the implementation of websites. This type of structure allows a great variety of contents, either in the way they are displayed, either in the variety of the actual content.

There are several sites that make available didactic resources, helping, thus, the teachers twenty-four hours a day. From multimedia content to online quizzes/tests or even videos and music, the teachers have everything they need to create their own site. However, there are some requisites to acknowledge before using such resources. The site must be well structured, with a good balance between information and visual contents. The website must be “attractive” and, at the same
time, it must motivate the student to go back there to research the information he needs. The teacher must always bear in mind the target group of his site, not overloading it with too much or too less information.

**Forums and Blogs**

As an individual asset or as complementary one, a forum or a blog can be an advantage in what concerns the interaction between students and students and teachers.

The forum allows users to share and express their ideas. This type of interaction may contribute to the development of the communicative abilities of the student, even if it is in a “virtual” environment. The control over the forum is done by a moderator, who will create new activities inside the forum, such as quizzes and opinion gathering. On the other hand, the blog is some sort of “informal forum” that allows the sharing of ideas in a more open way. There is no moderator, being the contents’ subject to the users common sense.

Note: the usage of blogs in education is relatively recent and studies are still being made about its results.

**Multimedia resources**

Tools such as the Powerpoint, Macromedia Flash or Macromedia Director allow the creation of interactive contents, e.g. the creation of stories, where is the student that dictates its development, interacting with his own decisions. This type of content is similar to that of cartoons and animated films.

Many sites use this type of contents as recreational or even formative elements. Didactic games are vastly used in this type of resource.

**Hypertext**

Another way to present didactic information is by using the hypertext. Its schematic form of presenting information, in **trees**, allows the student to analyse it and understand it easily. The hypertext can be built using not only the textual form but also images or even videos. It can also be used in all types of subjects, from Languages, to History or even Maths.

**Case Study – “PORTUGUÊS A BRINCAR”**

The site “Português a Brincar”, which means “Playing with Portuguese” was built by bearing some of the above ideas in mind.

This site is supposed to be a resource for all 9-12 year-old Portuguese students. In it, it is available the subject’s contents that the student needs to know by the end of the year. A character has been introduced, called “Borrachas” (“Eraser”), to whom the students can e-mail to “erase” all their doubts, at any time they want. The students can also practice what they have learnt by answering the online tests available.
Students can also send their written essays to “Borrachas”, who, in fact, is one of the Portuguese teachers. They feel motivated and very proud and they see their works online, mostly because they feel they are not just writing for the “correcting teacher”, they are writing for the school community and even for their family, who will have the opportunity to read it.

“Português a Brincar” is far from being complete. Our next task is to include, for the next school year, a blog in it, to create more interaction between our students.

http://pisa.planetaclix.pt/portuguesabrincar

Case Study – “INTERMET-TE”
A similar project, in using websites, is “Internet-te”. This project, done in our Project Area subject, had the collaboration of several institutions, both national and international.

It is basically the creation of a tourist-guide of some countries, chosen by the students. The class was divided into several groups and each one of them was in charge of gathering the necessary information concerning its own country. Besides using the internet, they also had the help of foreign schools and even of relatives that lived abroad and e-mailed them with ideas and information.

The teacher’s role is very important in this type of work, not only to guide the students in their “quest” for information but also to help them preparing it. It must be pinpointed though that the main objective of this type of project is to motivate
students to work alone and to feel autonomous in what they are doing, allowing thus self-assessment and group work.

Case Studies - Results
It is easy to see the satisfaction and enthusiasm students take from working with the internet and the computers. There is also a growing need of seeing their contents published and to actively participate with their projects. These case studies were, in fact, useful and active resources in the students learning process.

In the case study “Português a Brincar”, we could see immediate results because both students and parents thanked us for it. Most children study with the help of their family, who is most of the time unaware of what they are studying. If parents know that the site has everything their kids need to know it is easier for them to help them to study and practice. We actually had both students and parents writing emails to “Borrachas” with doubts that were immediately solved.

In the case study “Internet-te”, we had good and positive results mostly because we saw our students grow in what group work and autonomy is concerned. They learnt to work in groups and divide tasks, they learnt how to browse in the internet and find what they wanted and they learnt how to build a webpage (not only built it but also what kind of things to put in it, which pictures, fonts, etc to use).
Conclusions
Summing up, this article’s main objective was to pinpoint some methods and tools that allow a better interaction between students and ICT.

It was not our aim to overcast the traditional method, on the contrary, what we meant to show was that by using the new technologies we can create new resources and tools to contribute to the success of our students, the “New Age” students.

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In our opinion the project leads us to a better inclusion of pupils and offers new possibilities of social learning. Pupils can actively participate in discourse and in solving different dilemmas; this way their self-esteem improves.

Goals which we as a school have in our work with pupils, teachers and parents can be achieved with qualitative and systematic organization of life in the school. We are aware that for qualitative relationships continuity of work is very important. Mutual relations are firstly shaped inside a class department, which is the basic school social system, and this can be qualitative only if we cooperate and are closely connected with parents.

The path which we have started is difficult, long lasting, made of small steps which should be continuously examined and enlarged.

**Introduction**
Quickly changing society brings along intolerant, unequal mutual relationships and lack of social power, which affects the school space more and more. Due to these facts we have started to think about what we can do as a school - in the given social situation and within a certain system in order to raise the quality of life.

We have prepared a long-term prevention plan with the objective to improve mutual relationships in class, teaching staff's room and in the school in general. In this way we could establish a positive climate, which is very important for work and co-operation of all who are connected with our school.
The project is called “We among us”. All of us are included in the project. It is organised on different levels:

- teachers through their training,
- pupils and teachers in the frame of lessons, hours in class departments and activities outside school,
- pupils among them in the frame of class and the School Parliament,
- parents together with teachers during parents' meetings, Parents' Council and during different activities at school.

For this purpose we have formed a project group. In this group work together the chiefs of the school working groups, the school management, the advisory board, and the librarian.

**What did we do?**

*Hours in class departments*

We think that it is important to teach pupils how to solve conflicts more effectively. This can help them to have a better self-esteem and so less problems in socialization with coevals. This kind of learning starts in class departments. Because of this we have given strong emphasis to activities in classes. One of the possibilities to improve these skills is during hours in class departments. The contents have to deal with coeval relations, accepting of differences, amplifying of the social inclusion of those who have difficulties with socialization. Pupils and teachers talk about communication, prejudices, reduction of conflicts … Most class teachers have in the frame of the project carried out three hours in class departments, planned according to current topics. The teachers have their plans and impressions collected in a brochure. All hours were very interesting, each with a different message.

When reading this brochure we have again come to a conclusion that teachers learn from pupils too, and because of this it would be a pity to neglect such and similar lessons.

*School rules*

Within the project school rules have been established – first by teachers at a pedagogical conference, then by pupils in the frame of hours in class departments and at the end by parents.

The final formulation of the school rules was accepted by the School Parliament and by the Parents’ Council.

Class teachers have devoted many hours in class departments to establishing of the rules. Pupils have thought about the importance of rules and that respecting of rules makes the climate better for all those who live and work in the school.

Most teachers have eagerly participated in the establishing of the rules, and the same it is true for pupils who have once more made clear that they want unambiguous frames, because in this way they feel more safety.
Project week
We have the so called project week, which has been taking place for the past three years under the title »We among us«. During this week class teachers emphasize social skills and mutual relationships. Pupils have had a chance to learn the importance of dialogue, tolerance, respect of different views on people and things in the close environment. How important it is to know not only to talk, but also to listen. At the end they gathered their thoughts and made posters, brochures …

Seminars for teachers
Seminars for teachers outside the school environment have been organized in the past three years. We take care of pleasant atmosphere in nature and choose interesting and competent lecturers. For all of us, who work with people, it is of great importance to be aware of the energy that keep us going when trying to accomplish our needs, why certain behaviors are used, what we can influence and how to live a qualitative life.

Parents' Council
We are very much aware of the fact that cooperation with parents is of great importance. In order to have good and effective parents' meetings we pay a lot of attention to this matter. We organize different lectures and workshops for parents. All parents' decisions are passed by Parents' Council.

Workshop for teachers - relationships
As you noticed, our goal is to improve relationships among all participants in the process of education. In our school there are many teachers who are very different in many ways. They have to cooperate all the time. To improve relationships between them, we work in groups, especially in the area of teamwork and relations. For quality teamwork good relationships are very important.

William Glasser, the author of the Theory of Choice, mentions basic human needs:
- for love respectively cooperation;
- for freedom respectively independency;
- for amusement respectively relaxation;
- for power respectively value.

If somebody tries to control our behaviour and we do not know how to avoid it, or if somebody does not allow us to control his behaviour, "he does not obey", we loose our self-esteem. Because of the common conviction that we have to control other people's behaviour otherwise they will control ours, it is logical that we believe that this is also possible. So we continuously increase our efforts to control others and in this way we are deeper and deeper in crossways. Crossways are gaining the strength because each one is convinced that he is right, and that the other one is wrong. We always know what is the best for us, and we are sure to know what is the best for others too. This conviction destroys relationships between people. Although the need for value is written in our genes and we cannot erase it, the attempts to control other people's behaviour are learned. They show in
disastrous habits: REPEATED ACCUSATIONS, PUNISHING, CRITICIZING, BRIBERY (read: rewarding with intention to control a person) TREATING, COMPLAINING, GRUMBLING. These disastrous habits can be substituted by binding habits: STIMULATION, CONFIDENCE, SUPPORT, RESPECT, ACCESSION, MAKING AGREEMENTS, LISTENING.

If we abandon at least some of the disastrous habits and we enter respect towards others, we soon feel connection with others and improvement of relationships.

*Table 1  Self-evaluation table of habits which we use in our relations*

<table>
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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>PUPILS</th>
<th>PARENTS</th>
<th>CO-WORKERS</th>
<th>FRIENDS</th>
<th>MY CHILDREN</th>
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<td>MAKING AGREEMENTS</td>
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Each of habits is evaluated on the scale 1-10 regarding to how often we use it in the relation with each person. If we do not use a certain habit, we evaluate it by 1, if we use it most frequently, we evaluate it by 10. At the end (horizontally) we
sum up habits and (vertically) persons with whom we use these habits. We believe you will get interesting results.

*Table 2 Self-evaluation table of habits which harm our relations*

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<th></th>
<th>PUPILS</th>
<th>PARENTS</th>
<th>CO-WORKERS</th>
<th>FRIENDS</th>
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<tbody>
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<td><strong>REPEATED ACCUSATIONS</strong></td>
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<td><strong>PUNISHING</strong></td>
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<td><strong>CRITICIZING</strong></td>
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<td><strong>BRIBERY</strong></td>
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<td><strong>THREATENING</strong></td>
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<td><strong>COMPLAINING</strong></td>
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<td><strong>GRUMBLING</strong></td>
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**Self-esteem**
The key question is: How to create a climate that reduces violence and develops children we are proud of?

At a time when we are seeking to reduce or eliminate bullying, anti-social behaviour and violence, administrators need to incorporate the elements of self-esteem as a critical element of any prevention program. A close relationship has been documented between low self-esteem and such problems as violence, alcoholism, drug abuse, eating disorders, school dropouts, suicide, and low academic achievement. However, it has been difficult to isolate it as a primary
cause using traditional experimental research methods, for it is usually only one of several contributing factors. What needs to be stressed is that self-esteem is a critical component of any program aimed at self-improvement or any rehabilitation program, for it is one of the few solutions that offers hope to correcting these problems.

What is self-esteem?
Self-esteem is related to your self worth and your value. Building self esteem is a first step towards your happiness and a better life.
Factors affecting children's self esteem:

- How much the child feels wanted, appreciated and loved
- How your child sees himself, often built from what parents and those close say
- His or her sense of achievement
- How the child relates to others

Self esteem is the opinion you have of yourself. It is based on your attitude to the following: your value as a person, your achievements, how you think others see you, your purpose in life, your place in the world, your potential for success, your strengths and weaknesses, your social status and how you relate to others, your independence or ability to stand on your own feet…

Self-esteem can also be defined as the combination of feelings of capability with feelings of being loved. A child who is happy with her achievements but does not feel loved may eventually experience low self-esteem. Likewise, a child who feels loved but is hesitant about her own abilities can also end up feeling poorly about herself. Healthy self-esteem results when the right balance is attained.

Good self-esteem is important because it helps you to hold your head high and feel proud of yourself and what you can do. It gives you the courage to try new things and the power to believe in yourself. It lets you respect yourself, even when you make mistakes. And when you respect yourself, adults and other kids usually respect you, too.

We have tried to find a programme which to raises self-esteem. We found Bob Reasoner. He has been deeply involved with the self-esteem movement for over 20 years. He formed the California Centre for Self-Esteem in 1982 and served as one of the founders of the National Association for Self-Esteem in 1986.

About the programme
The programme focuses on three target groups:
1. The primary target group are students.
2. The second target group are teachers that will be trained as mentors for implementing the programme with students.
3. The third target group are parents.
Project activities
This school year (2004/2005) we started to introduce a preventive programme »Improving one's positive self-esteem«, which had been introduced by dr. Robert W. Reasoner in the USA. The bearer of the copy rights in Slovenia is the Institute for Personal Growth Quality. The programme is intended to stimulate responsibility, self-confidence and cooperation of children. It is founded on the presumption that through the building of personal strength we enable young people to more efficiently encounter everyday challenges, which they are faced with at school and in the society. The programme also helps us to find out how to live more responsibly and productively as adults.

The main point of the programme:
- Awareness Training for school staff
- Staff Self-Esteem Inventory
- Mentor Training for teachers
- Presentation for parents
- Workshops for parents
- Pupils Self-Esteem Inventory
- Workshops for pupils

About the programme
The programme gives us techniques and material. This is very helpful when we try to improve pupil's relationships towards him- or herself. It has been proved that working according to this programme has a positive impact on pupils and also on general school climate.

- Pupils Self-Esteem Inventory
After training mentors and presentation for parents we have devised a questionnaire (self-esteem inventory for pupils) to find out what kind of self esteem has each class. On the basis of these results every mentor has made an action plan for one school year.

- Workshops for pupils
The programme is based on the stimulation of such elements as:

1. sense of security
2. sense of identity
3. sense of belonging
4. sense of purpose
5. sense of competence

Those who feel insecure tend to test the limits authority act in deviant and discrepant manner, have difficulty. We try to help them see choices, give them responsibilities, help deal with fears or anxieties.

Those who lack strong identity tend to seek to be the centre of attention, feel unloved or like nobody cares. We try to appreciate their uniqueness, build a
positive self-image, love them unconditionally and build realisation self-awareness.

Those who lack feeling of belonging tend to have few friends, be rejected or isolated from peers. We try to include them in group, activities, hand them with the group, build social skills, encourage service to others, plan and work together,

Those who lack purpose tend to lack motivation, waste time. We try to convey expectations, create positive view of the future, express confidence and faith, strengthen values to live by, help them set goals for themselves.

Those who lack personal competence tend to make poor decisions, depend upon others for directions. We try to point out options and resources, foster a positive outlook.

We use material (worksheet) in a different way 1-3 hour per week (with the class or with members of the group):
- by answering the questions,
- by discussing the answers,
- by doing something (art..).

The first important step in improving self-esteem is to begin to challenge the negative messages of the critical inner voice, to begin to treat yourself as a worthwhile person.

Getting help from others is often the most important step a person can take to improve his or her self-esteem, but it can also be the most difficult. People with low self-esteem often do not ask for help because they feel they do not deserve it.

**Instead of conclusion**
The project is in development, so, we can not have a discussion about the results yet. This is actually a long term research.

The students will devise a questionnaire when the programme has been running for two years. It will be interesting to find out what impact this has on children. We expect improvement in all aspects of school activities: the raising of students’ interest in school and after school activities, less discipline and social problems, improving school climate…

"What is the most important thing for a person starting out on the road to success?" "I would tell them the most important thing is to work on your self esteem, that's the best advice I can give" (Richard Wagner, CNN interview with Larry King 2002)

“In my opinion this is one of the best programmes of this kind” (prof. Barica Marentič Požarnik, Ph.D.)
“Government Drugs Agency supports this programme. We believe that in Slovenia we need programmes like this not just to prevent drug abuse but primarily to follow the growth and development of our youth. It is vital that we give young people as many tools as possible to achieve more satisfaction and success in the next millennium” (Milan Krek, Ph.D., Director of the Government Drugs Agency).

References

*Vesna Žagar Gabrovšek and Damjana Potočnik are Deputy headteachers and Marjeta Zabukovec is Primary school teacher, all at Osnovna šola Valentina Vodnika, Ljubljana, Slovenia*
Come Together
Seeing and Preventing Abusive Treatment in Advance

Christina Johansson, Birgitta Andersson, Caroline Säfström, Irene Andersson, Lars Engström

This article describes a method called “Together”, originating from a project at Hultsbergsskolan, Sweden, and involving pre-school, primary and secondary school – in other words children from 1 to 16 years of age.
Every autumn we have a kick-off week called “Together” where we focus on social interaction between the teachers and the learners. This important issue is always on our agenda, but it is necessary occasionally to dive deeper. We all know that bullying and abusive treatment is a big problem with disastrous consequences for all involved. But what can we do about it?

“One thing is sure: In order to be successful in the struggle against bullying we must have the ability to see the problems in time and also have a choice of measures to break patterns and behaviours.

So it is all about us!

It is every adult’s responsibility to see, to forestall and to stop all forms of abusive treatment.

It is utterly important that we as adults set a good example and show each other respect. Children do as we do, not necessarily as we tell them to.” (Sara Damber)

The “Come Together” project is a method which focuses on these issues and makes all teachers and learners reflect on important questions of respect, tolerance and empathy.

Before the work begins the teachers of one school level discuss and plan the activities which will start with some sort of inspiration task. At the end of the kick-off week, the work is evaluated through discussions, questionnaires and SWOT analyses.

The project
Knowledge, learning and ethics are irrevocably linked together. The contents, the forms and the outcome of teaching as well as other actions in school depend on the relations between teachers and pupils, and they are always affected by the social climate.
We want to show that our work with moral values is not a separate “chapter” in the syllabus, but a permanent issue of discussion permeating all learning situations.

Social interaction starts at an early age and should be stimulated and trained. Social capability is a competence gained through social interaction and learning.

The focus will be on teachers’ and learners’ working co-operatively to provide and ensure a holistic view of the learner’s progress in order to improve the feedback and learning support that the teacher gives to the learner.

The team has the task of discussing, reflecting, and establishing common ground and evaluation. We want to show how we, by using different pedagogical methods, how we, through the choice of contents and models of teaching, can influence group-dynamic processes and the identity-progress of individuals.
Aims
The three main aims with this project are
• to change the role of the teacher, to promote teachers’ learning
• to make pupils part of their own learning
• to develop new methods/models of teaching/work

Why
There are three major questions we must ask ourselves as to clarify the need of this work.

First of all,
• *Do we teach according to the demands of today’s society?*

Living in a time where questions of values have an increasing importance, we must ask ourselves what qualities we want our learners to possess as they leave compulsory school.
If we take a look at the job advertisements in a newspaper, we will see that qualities like flexibility, co-operation, and creativity are asked for before knowledge in the particular subject.

Secondly,
* What is the role of the teacher today and in the future?

In today’s society there is a difference in opinion between schools and parents on how children should be brought up, if you compare with the situation years ago.
Today children come to school with different values, rules and behavioural patterns, due to many circumstances.
Parents, teachers and media are all sources of knowledge for children today. As teachers we have to state our mission clearly and make sure that the pupils become aware of their learning process.

And thirdly,
• *How can we create a school for today and for the future?*

Just as much as the development of the society rules the school, the school is equally responsible for preparing the pupils for the future. To prepare children for a society where social interaction is a fact, it is of paramount importance that the school will create opportunities for the pupils to develop their own personality. A safe environment is a requirement for good results for the learners. Today the pupil’s social learning is more important than ever.

The process
We have elaborated a model for this specific work, which involves all learners and all staff from pre-school to year nine in secondary school. To help us, we have one key question for each school year, questions that are adapted to the age of the learners.
Key questions

Pre-school: Who am I?
Year F-1: Don’t they understand how it feels?
Year 2-3: How can I get along with myself so that I can be friends with others?
Year 4: What kind of a friend are you?
Year 5: What do you think?
Year 6: How would you like to get/ to show respect?
Year 7: Can I/we have any opinion? Am I allowed to think what I want?
Year 8: How does it feel to be bullied?
Year 9: What do I/we do to prevent bullying?

Every school year starts with the “Together” project to set the good example for the work throughout the year. We focus on social interaction between the teachers and the learners. We call the model “Come Together” and it involves as mentioned above, all learners and teachers from pre-school to secondary school.

Before the start of the kick-off week the mentors of one specific stage come together to discuss and plan the activities that will take place. The plans are written down in a form. The team’s task is to discuss, reflect and establish a joint ground and, later, evaluate the work together.

The plans are written down in a form
ACTION PLAN

Planning the work

Class: ________________________________________

Mentor: _____________________________________

Key question: ______________________________________________________________

Inspiration:
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

What and how to do the work (ideas):
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

Evaluation - this is how we will do it.
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

At the end of this kick-off week the work is evaluated by teachers as well as learners in discussions, interviews and through questionnaires of different kinds. The focus will be on teachers’ and learners’ co-operation as to provide and ensure a holistic view of the learner’s progress in order to improve the feedback and the learning support that the teacher gives to the learner.

At Pre-school
Pre-school is the foundation of lifelong learning and therefore it is important to create a good, trusting relation between learner and teacher, which will also provide a good communication. If the relation does not work, every attempt of communicating will fail.

“The pre-school should lay the foundations for lifelong learning. The pre-school should be enjoyable, secure and rich in learning for all children. The pre-school should provide children with good pedagogical activities, where care, nurturing and learning together form a coherent whole.
Children’s development into responsible persons and members of society should be promoted in partnership with the home.”

(The Lpfö98 Curriculum for pre-schools, p.8)

A good relation is built upon care, openness, honesty, respect and consideration towards each other. In a good relation person and action are two different things; thus none will feel threatened or depreciated and put in defensive position. It is important to accept that people are different and that we all have experienced different things. Good communication implies equal thinking and equal acting. It is all about seeing the children, acknowledging them and knowing how they feel. It is basically about the small meeting. It could just be a tap on the shoulder from, the teacher, or the children wakening each other after the rest with a stroke on the cheek or a soft whisper.

Whether you are aware of it or not, the way you look upon people and learning (as a teacher) will affect the interaction between individuals. If you want to be successful in the interaction you have to be committed, you have to be aware and convinced that children can learn. The big challenge is often the changing of a deep-rooted, unreflected way of being. In our roles as pedagogues we should be good guides for the child and help and assist it in its progress.

“The foundation on which these values are based expresses the ethical attitude which shall characterise all pre-school activity. Care and consideration towards other persons, as well as justice and equality, in addition to the rights of each individual shall be emphasised and made explicit in all pre-school activity. Children assimilate ethical values and norms primarily through their concrete experiences. The attitudes of adults influence the child’s understanding and respect for the rights and obligations that apply in a democratic society. For this reason adults serve an important role as models.”

(The Lpfö98 Curriculum for pre-schools, p.6)

To emphasise the importance of this we start the school year with the “Together-week” as a kick off for our work with the fundamental values. So let us take a look at the activities in some of our groups.

The pre-school teachers of one section/department meet to plan the work for one week. They discuss what kind of activities will be arranged, who will be in charge, what the inspiration will be and what sort of evaluation there will be. They also try to find solutions for problems that might arise.

This year we decided that “Lady Autumn” should be one of the inspirational figures. The main task for this lady is to make sure that all the children have been confirmed.
Every year we let the parents fill in a questionnaire about the quality of our pre-school. Our parents are very satisfied with our work according to the result of the evaluation. As a follow up, we let our five- and six year-old children take part in an interview with a specially designed questionnaire. If they are satisfied, they draw a smiling mouth in an empty face or a sad mouth if they not are so pleased. We have found that the children are happy to go to pre-school. Another conclusion is that the children might have a smiling face but inside they feel sad. This questionnaire is a good foundation for next year’s work in pre-school and primary school.

**At Primary school**

*Don’t they understand how it feels?*

Here we see three teachers from three different classes, performing for their pupils to inspire them. The story is about jealousy. The teachers have a lot of fun, but there is no time for practice, so the performance comes directly from their hearts.

After this performance the practical work with different kinds of exercises, both indoors and outdoors, starts and the activities go on during the whole week. If you look carefully you can see a red feather above the children.
At Secondary school
The secondary school mentors follow the same pattern as the pre-school teachers in planning the work, with one important difference. With the increasing age, the learners are expected to take an important part of the planning as well as the acting and the evaluation. So, when the mentors have given their inspiration, the learners discuss, suggest and act, under the guidance of the teachers when needed.

School year 6, the key question: *How would you like to get/to show respect?*
The work in year 6 is based on material from “Save the Children Sweden”, a booklet about the Children’s convention and preferably the four basic articles:

*Article 2*
All children have equal rights and equal value.  
No one must be discriminated against.

*Article 3*
The child’s best interest must always come first.

*Article 6*
Every child has the right to survive and grow.

*Article 12*
The child has the right to express his/her opinion in all issues concerning him/her.

The 12-year-olds discuss problems and have practical exercises, study news articles, watch films about young people in other countries and so on. Under the guidance of adults, they are made aware of their own responsibility for making the world around them a good place for everyone. We try to make them show respect for others and to allow people to be different.

The key question of school year 8, “*How does it feel to be bullied?*” has its follow-up in year 9, where we try to find answers to the question “*What can I do to prevent bullying?*”

The 15-year-olds are inspired by a scene on the theme of the key question, acted by the teachers. It will hopefully open the pupils’ eyes and get them started. Then there is a general discussion where everyone gets a chance to say his/her opinion and the discussion leads the work on to group activities such as power point presentations, newspaper articles, plays, videos, all with the intention of trying to give an answer to the key question.
All class activities are then evaluated by learners and teachers and there is also a discussion about the problems they met with and how to solve them and have an even better project next year.

As a follow-up we let some of our classes answer a questionnaire on values and emotional skills, with keywords like equality, respect, responsibility and freedom. We have no intention of being scientific in our research, but we thought it would be interesting to see if our learners “learn” by their work and also to get ideas for the future work with values and emotional skills.

**What conclusions could be drawn, if any?**

These are some of the thoughts among our learners:

The importance of responsibility increases with the age of the pupils, courage is more important when you are 12, care and consideration have great importance to all ages as well as good manners and behaviour. It’s important to be honest but social acceptance is not so highly rated.

The general feeling among the learners is that respect, good friendship, equality and safety are actually part of the basic values in their classes.

However important all these matters are, there is one quality/knowledge that is crucial for growing in these aspects and that’s the ability of reflection. If we succeed in making our young learners stop and reflect on issues like these we are at least halfway in our aims!

> “The school has the task of imparting fundamental values and promoting pupils’ learning in order to prepare to live and work in society”

(The Lpo94 Curriculum for the compulsory school system, the pre-class and the leisure-time centre).

For this reason the adults serve an important role as models for life long learning. Therefore we are satisfied with our model “Come Together”, and for the next school year we will develop the work and involve our pupils even more in the action plan.

The authors are pre-school, primary and secondary school teachers at Hultsbergsskolan, Karlstad, Sweden
By András Tarnóc

The term, “challenge” appears to be a ubiquitous code-word of the 21st century. The onset of the new millennium not only altered the macroeconomic and macro social environments, but it forced a re-evaluation of personal and professional perspectives as well. The dynamic and continuous technological developments and the attendant social and epistemological revolution exerted an especially dramatic impact on the teaching profession ushering in a clash between two types of teaching models or educational paradigms.

The erstwhile dominant pattern described by DuFour and Eaker as the factory model of teaching was a derivative of the industrial society. As the industrial era advanced the idea of mass production and assembly line manufacturing, learning was also seen as a product oriented effort taking place in a virtual factory. Having reached school age, the child as a “raw material” would enter the gates of the knowledge factory, and the end-product was a graduated student possessing finite knowledge. Accordingly, the instructor occupied a principal position in the educational process and was considered the sole possessor and dispenser of knowledge. In this result oriented system, primarily tangible or printed materials and texts functioned as the source of information. The educational establishment delineated the boundaries of knowledge and students were relegated to the role of passive receivers of information. Consequently, learner and teacher did not...
operate within a harmonious framework, their very position within the system separated them from each other.

The decline of the Gutenberg Galaxy, the onset of the information society, and the subsequent commodification of knowledge accompanied with relevant technological improvements brought on the post-industrial age, in which the previous authoritarian and hierarchical educational model would appear obsolete. The resulting new paradigm places the learner in the centre and the teacher is not regarded a sole repository of knowledge, rather he is one of the bewilderingly numerous sources of information including libraries, the Internet, learning communities, and society itself. Learning is not a finite process, as graduation day does not mean the completion of self-improvement, in fact it becomes a life-long effort. Consequently, while the old system ranked the learner as inferior and the teacher as the dominant component of the knowledge acquisition process, the new paradigm makes learning not only necessary, but a desirable quality at all levels.

Research has proven that learning is more effective in a stress-free environment and it can hardly be disputed that no educational model or innovation has realised this objective. In the traditional learning approach, knowledge was acquired via one channel, the teacher. The new model displaying a variety of information sources causes stress by the very diversity of the means of knowledge acquisition. The drive for the establishment of a knowledge-based Europe, the resulting restructuring of societies, and the subsequent increase in learning requirements, force schools to change their operating profile and evolve into a so-called guiding, or directing institution, in which the learning process is not dominated, but monitored by the teacher (N. Deen qtd. In Roeders 28). Consequently teachers are not removed from the students, but continuously and synergically function with them within one system. As the emphasis from competition shifts to cooperation, team-teaching appears to be an ideal method to increase the efficiency of the instruction process.

Team-teaching itself is a concept with several meanings According to Shafer team-teaching occurs when two or more instructors are performing educational services in the same course. While the idea of team-teaching is certainly not new as the Socratic method and “public medieval disputations” (Shafer) functioned as its forerunners, Maroney identifies five forms in which team-teaching can take place.

Traditional Team-teaching means that two teachers are involved in the educational process, offering content delivery and skill improvement at the same intensity level. The Complimentary or Supportive Instruction Model gives priority to one teacher as the principal deliverer of educational content, and the other member of the team provides educational support services and skill development. In the Parallel Instruction format the class is divided into two groups and each teacher is entrusted with the same responsibilities in the respective group. The Differentiated Split Class Team-teaching concept leads to the grouping of class members according to educational need. Consequently, teachers deliver their services in groups specified according to academic achievement or educational standing. The
fifth form of team-teaching involves the Monitoring Teacher concept, in which while one teacher delivers content material, the other circulates in the class checking the level of comprehension and related skill development.

According to Maroney, successful and effective team-teaching depends on several factors. Naturally, a willingness to participate in a team or the subordination of one’s professional interests or individual perspective to team objectives appears essential. Positive thinking and the resultant psychological and personal integrity help teachers to cope with the fluctuating internal dynamics of team-teaching. Flexibility allows the instructor to adjust his or her methodology or teaching approach to the ever-changing demands of the educational environment, and reliability facilitates the development of trust, an indispensable component of successful teams. Empathy is also crucial as the member of the teaching team must be sympathetic to the educational and human needs of his peers and students as well. Good communication skills allow for a better flow of information within the given educational context and finally, a resourceful and open-minded teacher with a broad-range methodological arsenal can be an invaluable member of successful teaching teams.

Shafer took a closer look at the benefits and potential disadvantages of the team-teaching process. She asserts that due to its pluralistic approach highlighting the lack of absolute truths or the unfeasibility of “infallible solutions” team-teaching develops students’ critical thinking skills. Team-teaching itself carries the possibility of choice, be it teaching methodology, or individual perspective. By the “temporary blurring of disciplinary boundaries” team-teaching contributes to the development of interdisciplinary cooperation. The respective open-minded teaching attitudes facilitate tolerance and empathy. Furthermore, by compelling students to choose from various alternatives instead of one set solution, team-teaching promotes creativity. Shafer also argues that due to its self-correcting nature team-teaching ensures professional motivation as well: “team-teaching permits compensation for personal shortcomings by adjusting responsibility to match capabilities. The presence of professional peers serves as subtle reinforcement to keep lecture notes current, grade conscientiously, and resist the temptation to get by with a minimum of effort.”

The sharing of educational and content-based resources along with the teaching load leads to the reduction of work-related stress. The provision of peer-feedback promotes professional integrity and facilitates psychological reinforcement. Moreover, team-teaching is entertaining for the student because instead of one approach he or she can access more than one knowledge provider. Another potential benefit is that two or more teachers can more effectively respond to the educational and psychological needs of students. Whereas one student might not be receptive to a certain teaching style, or a given teacher would be repelled by the learning habits of a respective student, the team-teaching format can decrease such intra-class friction. Finally, the interdependence of team members enhances the internal cohesion of the respective educational organisation.
Whereas team-teaching appears to be an ideal solution, it should not be treated as a panacea. According to its opponents it undermines the role of the teacher as an authority figure. Also, it is not suitable for all students, as some students might take advantage of the potential division of the teachers’ attention. The very weakening of disciplinary boundaries can lead to the decline of the prestige and integrity of a given subject, and finally the students’ varying levels of academic achievement can decrease its efficiency.

Shafer also outlines certain guidelines for successful team-teaching. As a specialized educational effort it should be based on careful planning and the selection of staff. Students have to be thoroughly informed of the goals of the process and reminded that the purpose of team-teaching is not promoting accommodation to the needs of a respective teacher, and in return teachers should not treat team-teaching as a popularity contest for student approval. Moreover, as team-teaching presupposes a careful selection of staff and a thoughtful composition of student groups, school management must provide adequate administrative, financial, organisational, and moral support.

Whereas team-teaching cannot be considered a cure-all for the ailments of 21st century education, it appears as an ideal instructional method for the new educational paradigm. It promotes a more democratic view of the classroom environment as one teacher’s sole control of the learning process is eliminated. It is also beneficial that students can get information and relevant feedback from more than one instructor. Team-teaching also contributes to the development of synergy between learners and teachers and this model also promotes life-long learning, not only for students, but for teachers themselves. However educational reform should not be considered as a zero sum game in which one paradigm fully eliminates the other. Although the educational process has to be re-formulated in order to make it suitable to the demands of the new millennium, timely proven established features of the previous model should not be ignored either. Despite all of its shortcomings, the factory model placed a significant emphasis on academic achievement and knowledge acquisition. Consequently, I believe that the best form of team-teaching is the Complimentary or Supportive Instruction model, in which the two approaches are blended, as the central position of the teacher is augmented by a colleague facilitating the reinforcement of knowledge. Above all, however, team-teaching reiterates that the learning process is not a solitary effort, but a communal activity in which both learner and teacher form a harmonious and interactive framework promoting each other’s professional development and personal growth.

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Team work and team teaching in primary school

By Nevenka Lamut

People who work together as a group can achieve the results that an individual can only hope to achieve.

Franklin Delano Roosevelt

Contemporary pedagogical work is outgrowing the individual pedagogical approach to teaching. The necessity of connecting the knowledge and interdisciplinary problem treatment, of individualizing education and training, and the necessity of teaching staff's growing awareness that it is important to systematically form the culture of cooperation in Slovenian schools creates the need for systematic introduction and development of team work in schools. Professional and empirical findings prove that teachers' team work raises the quality of pupils' knowledge, stimulates their cognitive and social development, contributes to the teachers' personal and professional growth, as well as positively influencing interpersonal relationships in the work environment.

The individuals entering the team are different. The teachers have different pedagogical and psychological expertise, different levels of professional qualification, abilities and personal characteristics, team work motivation, and also different work habits and desires for personal and professional growth. They are also confined to the school system, organization of lessons, material and work conditions at school. However, it is important to be open to changes inside the collective, to be encouraged by school management, and to feel that such work is needed and accepted. The psychological aspects of team work and team teaching coincide with each other; didactically, however, team teaching opens more opportunities for common professional growth of team members.

Team work:

- stimulates the awareness that it is possible to use each individual team member's knowledge, responsibility, care, skills and understanding to achieve collective and individual goals, to overcome problems or obstacles, and to develop new work methods;
- develops new skills, experiences and ideas that improve work relationships;
- enables the awareness that individuals - team members are different, as well as their level of professional and personal development;
• stimulates the perception of individual's and team's achievements and success;
• stimulates sharing of responsibility in the team and accustoms the members to expressing support;
• encourages the members to test themselves in challenges, demands or conflicts in a certain situation;
• is a continuous process that is stimulated by organizing activities that need the individuals' cooperation for the achievement of collective goals;
• creates a good atmosphere, mostly by developing teachers' mutual support which is reflected in activities and relationships. Teachers encourage and support each other, share and exchange teaching materials and teaching aids, help each other with organization of class work, exchange opinions and experiences related to teaching, plan activities together and assume responsibility for their realization, observe each other's lessons;
• makes team members feel strong professionally because they are responsible for the goals set by themselves. Team members contribute to the joint success with their skills and knowledge;
• develops the feeling of trust. It stimulates free expression of ideas, opinions, disagreements, feelings, questions and dilemmas;
• develops open and honest communication. Team members try to understand each other's views and arguments;
• stimulates team members to encourage and support each other when developing various skills and approaches. For team members, conflicts are merely one of the aspects of human interaction, thus they perceive conflict situations as opportunities to verify new ideas, their own flexibility and tolerance;
• forms team members, personality and expertise wise, mainly with the atmosphere, work conditions and demands, presented by their joint assignment. (Summarized according to A. Polak, 1994, 1997).

In addition to the above mentioned advantages of team work, team teaching has some even more didactical characteristics that allow more efficient and more varied lessons. The didactic peculiarity of team teaching is shown in the way that pupils benefit from such lessons.

• Team members complement each other in knowledge, abilities, skills and personal characteristics. Thus the pupils can benefit from different teaching styles and approaches. The lessons are therefore more individualized and differentiated.
• A lot of different ideas and methods of teaching spring up in a team. Therefore, it is easier to plan lessons, which are better and more interesting. More teachers in a class contribute to dynamic lessons and enable flexible methodical, spatial and time organization of lessons.
• It is also easier to introduce computer technology and didactic programmes if there are more experts. A computer as a workplace - a space in the classroom can be used at all stages of the teaching process (acquiring new knowledge, consolidating it, creating, individualized assignments, etc.) since a teacher or a childcare worker is always
available to a child who needs explanations. It is also possible to divide pupils in two groups, one of which works in the computer classroom and the other in their own classroom.

- More teachers can plan and systematically observe and monitor pupils' work better than only one teacher. Pupils receive feedback on their work faster.
- It is also easier to take care of pupils' safety in and out of classroom.
- It is, however, necessary that team members in team teaching (as well as in team work in general) feel mutual support and have positive attitude towards team goals.
- Team teaching enables the implementation of a different evaluation form - descriptive evaluation.
- Common critical work analysis or evaluation is also important.
- There are two possible directions of team teaching depending largely on the organization and chosen arrangement of second person's integration into classes - cooperation and assistance or cooperation and supplementation in knowledge and skills.

Team work has already been introduced to the Slovenian schools (science days, cultural days, sports days, open days, projects, etc.), however it has not been systematically encouraged, supported and positively assessed, at least not enough. In the past, teachers or childcare workers team work started with gathering ideas, planning pedagogical work, collecting and making teaching aids. It was never present in team teaching as the next, higher level of pedagogical work.

By establishing the nine-year primary school education, the manner of cooperation between teachers has changed, since the basis of their work is now cooperation and working in the team.

A special form of work - team teaching has appeared in the first grade, where at all times during lessons the teacher and childcare worker work together. This has proved to be an excellent way of work since the childcare worker brings some amusement and relaxation into work.

The teachers of Mathematics, English and Slovene work in teams as well. At these subjects the pupils of 7th, 8th and 9th grade are divided into three level groups. In the same lesson (English, for example), three different teachers teach one class on three different levels - lower, basic, and higher. Each teacher works in their own classroom with one level group. A great advantage of such work is that the groups are homogeneous regarding the knowledge. Pupils learn about the same content. However, the methods and types of work the teacher uses with a particular group are different. The teachers plan their work together. This is why they have one simultaneous hour in their timetable for planning their work. They also prepare written tests together. All pupils write the same test, which comprises 60% of minimum, 30% of basic and 10% of higher standards of knowledge. When assessing the knowledge, they have to draw up extremely precise criteria which are the same for all three levels. The difference in working with lower and higher
level is therefore in the manner of work. In the lower level the teacher leads the pupils step by step. In the basic level the work is organized in the manner to achieve the basic standards of knowledge. The pupils in the higher level are autonomous and the teacher is merely a work coordinator. Such organization of work demands very good cooperation among teachers.

Therefore, the teams have been organized in primary schools which are divided according to the subjects:
- Science team,
- Social studies teams,
- Team of lower grade teachers,
- Team of teachers working with children in after-school day care.

Each team has started with the renewal of their course syllabus and planning how to link the subjects.

The emphasis still remains on the preparation of education and training. It is essential to organize course preparations with emphasis on team planning of work in the light of goals, to plan daily teaching content in team with emphasis on individual work with particular pupils (groups of pupils) in the class, to make teaching aids, games, worksheets and to correct and assess pupils' work in team. Without these purpose-oriented times to plan, analyse, and evaluate what has been done, team work is less efficient, or it is even a mere formality.

There are also some obstacles when it comes to team teaching in primary school:
- organizational (space, staff, time, work division, lesson structure),
- the problem of indistinctly defined roles (who is who, the feeling of belonging to the team),
- obstacles concerning the status (how members experience status and professional competences of themselves and of others),
- communication obstacles (wrongly oriented or understood verbal or non-verbal message),
- interpersonal obstacles (distrust, personal reticence, lack of empathy, etc.),
- feeling of anxiety, fear and personal threat of individuals in the team (destructive team),
- distinction according to knowledge, skills and area of interest (assigning different levels of importance),
- uneven division of work, time pressure, work overload, proficiency, dominance, extroversion, introversion,
- team members' discrepancies in demands on pupils (homework, being consistent in assessing and evaluating, class order, etc.),
- ascribing different levels of importance to different activities or subjects, the process of team members' mutual adjustments (A. Polak, 1997).

The dilemma: team work - yes or no, should not exist in the future school. Today's society and time have set the team work as a condition for modern man's existence. A man as a single person has not been able to exist for a long time now.
and has not been able to act alone. And if school is a preparation for life, it has to
not only consider this fact, but also systematically educate and train to surpass it.
(Razdevšek-Pučko, 1996).

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Team teaching: Examples of good practice in secondary school
By Polona Oblak

Is there a good or bad team or is it simply a thing called chemistry?

Each team should be structured according to the characteristics of a good team as
written above (in the previous two articles), but there is not always the possibility
to form ‘dream teams’. I would like to pose a question here, what happens if the
members of the team do not start of as people who are equally important, do not
have the same teaching qualifications and/ or do not have respect for each other?
In the following article I will describe my experience in team teaching of the
previous year – the year where I have learnt the most. Was it a good or a bad
experience? I do not know – decide for yourself!

In Slovenia, European Classes have been set in September for the first time. This
is a pilot project where 14 schools in Slovenia have more English lessons and a
native speaker of either English, German, French or Spanish language is allocated
to each school. The native speakers are asked to team teach in the classes, which
means that the classes have two teachers in the classroom at the same time; e.g.
one is a teacher of English language and the other is the native speaker of the
English language. There are four lessons of English per week. I teach three of
them and my colleague one. We share the native speaker between us as well as
with other teacher in the stuff room.
Native speakers in this project should have the same responsibilities as the Slovenian Subject teachers, but the teachers coming do not always have the necessary qualifications and work experience. Furthermore, there is a chance that the school system is different that they are used to and a culture shock they experience on a personal level when they arrive. All these external factors contribute to the atmosphere in the classroom. Another factor is of internal nature. This is character. It is perfectly possible that the two people teaching together will not have compatible characters.

My profession is an English and German teacher. I have been teaching for 10 years at different language schools. I have been using the method of two teachers in the class at the same time for 3 years now in different context (different age groups). It is my third year at the Secondary Grammar School, II. gimnazija Maribor, and the first year of team teaching.

The person teaching with me and I both knew how different we are from each other in every respect. Because of this we have spent hours, discussing and working on character questionnaires, methodology and didactic approaches. Regular meetings have been set for every Tuesday to plan for the coming week. We soon realised that we both need time to reflect, this is why we organised another meeting on Wednesdays. By the end of the school year we have managed to share responsibilities, split the roles equally and participate actively in the teaching process. The ‘grand final’ was the last lesson where a perfect match with a native speaker’s idea and my addition of the language component was integrated into teaching practice. We have decided to spend it outside. A big parachute in colours was brought in by the native speaker and throughout different social games students were learning different idiomatic expressions in connection to feelings and colours (e.g. I feel blue today. He is green with envy, etc.). And most importantly, the students loved it and so did we.

Now that the school year is over and after a week away from school, I look back in joy. If there were only a few lessons planned and carried out the way methodologists would call ‘a perfect lesson’ this year it shows the progress. If there is chemistry between the partners in a team, the team is considered lucky, but if there is no chemistry between the people working together they should put more effort in persistence, constant negotiation, persuasion and most importantly hours spent planning and structuring the lessons. According to my experience, without this one would not have managed throughout the school year and also the chemistry would not work. However, I wish that chemistry would be used for other purposes, such as endless professional discussions, exchanging ideas or constructive and justified criticism. Would I go through the same experience again? Well, I am a great believer and I still do not give up hoping that all this might be feasible next year.

Polona Oblak is secondary school teacher at II. Gimnazija Maribor, Maribor, Slovenia
My own experience with working in a tandem team in pre-school (kindergarten)

By Mateja Štih

I have been working as a pre-school teacher in kindergarten/Vrtec Šentvid for ten years and I am going to present my experience of tandem working (a two-member 'team'). My first work experience was working in a preparatory group for primary school (for children who are 6 years of age), where I worked with another pre-school teacher. There was no hierarchical difference between us; we shared the same responsibilities, and we were equal from the beginning. A relationship based on equality is, in my opinion, a very important condition for a team (tandem) to function well. It was precisely for that reason that we were able to do the work without any problems. We planned and carried out the work together, we evaluated/assessed it, we co-operated with the parents, and we both assumed the responsibility.

The work involved continuous communication between us, joint/common problem solving, adjusting to new situations, considering and paying attention to the other individual and their strong and weak points. An extremely important factor in team/tandem work is tackling the problems as they occur. Demonstrating predominance, however, should be avoided.

Working in tandem with another pre-school teacher did not pose a problem for me. On the contrary, I enjoyed it. I gained a great deal as a person; I learned a lot and improved my professional skills. During the process I was actively working on my personal growth and my weak points by trying to overcome them with the help of my colleague. I am aware of the fact that for being able to work in tandem successfully, one has to work on oneself and not try to change the other.

I believe that team work is the future of education, and that it has many advantages, some of which are:

- The members of the team complement each other, i.e., one may make up a deficiency in the area where the other member is weak (in terms of knowledge, abilities, skills, personal characteristics, didactic and methodical approaches, ways of working)
- The quality of work is higher and the work itself is more interesting (a greater number of ideas when planning, the work is more dynamic, more activities can take place at the same time, more individual as well as differential work with the children)
- More security (mental and physical)
- Sharing responsibility
- Mutual support, acceptance, positive affirmation, forming a professional identity
- Common evaluation and critical analysis of work enable the team to tackle the problems that may arise and the members of the team are consequently more self-confident when planning new assignments.
There are, however, many open questions and problems regarding tandem team work in kindergartens.

I have been working in a team with an assistant pre-school teacher for three years now, and the way of working and co-operating is somewhat different. The pre-school teacher is in charge of preparing, planning and implementing educational activities, while the assistant pre-school teacher merely participates in the process. Nevertheless, we have realised that we are dependent on each other. We are also aware that personal and team goals are more easily achieved with mutual help. We both have to try to establish a relationship based on equality and positive communication. Neither should feel threatened and power should be equally divided. This, however is not easily achieved. The two-member work relation goes through various phases. The process goes on continuously and enables the members to grow professionally as well as personally. In the process we are forced to look into ourselves and admit our imperfections and weak points. It is very important that the members are dedicated, willing to work in a team and deal with the possible problems. The personality of the individual is also very important in teamwork. We all have our weak points and flaws, as well as positive characteristics. The question is how to deal with all of them in practice. From the very beginning the relationship requires a lot of open and honest communication, mutual trust, respect, tolerance and acceptance. In order to achieve this, we need certain skills, such as: constructive criticism, support, ability to make compromises, and being an active member of the team.

It is important to know how to advocate and argument one's own viewpoint, actively monitor the events that take place, express one's observations, ideas, read literature on the subject … In order to improve teamwork, I attended a seminar on 'supervision'. It helped me to understand the human nature better and to be more empathetic to other people's thoughts and emotions. I also learnt to look at a problem from a more objective point of view.

When different problems and different viewpoints arise, the people involved need to talk to each other and be aware of the fact that a conflict is a normal phenomenon in human relations. Bearing a grudge is highly ineffective in teamwork. In order for a team to function well, the members must be aware of the importance of the 'I messages', which are used to express our thoughts, feelings and opinions. Active listening and reconciliation of verbal and non-verbal communication are very important as well. I have attended several seminars on training work efficiency, and have come to a conclusion that this is, along with work experience, absolutely necessary for successful teamwork. If the teachers function well as a team and are able to tackle different problems and obstacles, the children sense that, and are thus able to transfer the positive experience into play, co-operation, and other forms of activities with other individuals. I believe that adults should set an example when it comes to relationships as well.

Mateja Štih is pre-school teacher at Vrtec Šentvid, Ljubljana, Slovenia
The Lauwers College in the Netherlands decided three years ago to work in six educational teams. The reason for this was to make room for educational developments. In my article I’ll give a description of two. One team teaches 14-16 year-old students in mostly vocational subjects. They decided to introduce what is called a “Learning and Working Home”. The other team which is described works with 12-14 year-old students. This group has just left Primary school. They are working in six weeks’ periods now like they were doing in the old system with 15 different subjects. After each period teachers and student work together in one project in which several subjects contribute.

Introduction
Ten years ago five schools in the north of the Netherlands decided to merge and to become one large school organisation. With respect to administration, many things had to be geared to one another. Methods, school timetables and standards to move up could not remain the same within this amalgamation. The primary process – education itself – was hardly discussed. Three years ago there was a change of course. Teaching had to occupy the centre stage again. The organisation was profoundly altered, particularly with respect to managerial control. The large school was subdivided into six educational teams. These teams were given ample opportunity to develop their own educational visions within the larger framework.
About the school
Lauwers College is a secondary school organisation with approximately 2,100 students aged between 12 and 18. The school has five separate school buildings, situated in four villages: Buitenpost, Kollum, Grijpskerk and Surhuisterveen. The schools in Kollum, Grijpskerk and Surhuisterveen each form one educational team and the school in Buitenpost has three such teams.

Lauwers College offers three different types of education:
1) Technical and Vocational Training for 12-16 year-olds (called VMBO in Dutch);
2) Higher General Secondary Education for 12-17 year-olds (HAVO);
3) Pre-university Education for 12-18 year-olds (VWO).

Technical and Vocational Training educates students for jobs in either the construction industry, the metallurgical industry or for the service industry. However, it is also possible for a student to choose only theoretical main subjects.

Four of the six educational teams mentioned above are primarily concerned with Technical and Vocational Training (VMBO). In each of these teams there are educational developments. However, in this article I will confine myself to the Lower School-Team in Buitenpost and the VMBO-Team in Kollum.

Lower School-Team Buitenpost
Pupils in our area go through great changes when they leave primary school and go to secondary school:
- In most cases the primary school is situated in their own village. Now they have to go to another village or town.
- Public transport is not abundant in our region. Many students used to walk to primary school, but now they have to take quite a long bicycle trip to get to school.
- At primary school they were taught by one or two teachers during a school year. Now they have approximately fifteen teachers.
- These fifteen teachers teach fifteen different subjects. There is not a lot of communication between them. Each teaches his or her own subject and it seems as if there is no connection between the subjects.

Many schools in the Netherlands are in the process of renewal. It is even said that there is a ‘morbid passion for renewal’. Lauwers College adopts a critical attitude towards change. Obviously, modernization is necessary, since society is constantly changing. However, we need to find a form and a pace that are suitable for our students and our region. At Lauwers College theoretical concepts about educational renewal are being studied, but only moderately. These concepts are only implemented when they are fitting for the school.

In the autumn of 2003 the team leader of Lower School-Team Buitenpost talked with a couple of his teachers about a different form of teaching. Together they visited other schools to learn from their experiences with renewal. Then they
analysed their own school; what was the present situation and what did they wish for the future? Their findings can be summarised in two main points:

1) There are fifteen subjects that lack coherence. The question is whether it is possible to reduce the number of subjects and / or to make combinations.

2) All of the students follow the same programme in the same way. That is not in keeping with the different styles of learning that students have. Would it be possible to make use of other competencies of students?

In 2004-2005 a pilot project was started. For a period of five weeks students attend classes in the traditional form. In these lessons teachers make more and more use of new ways of teaching, but admittedly there is still a lot of ‘chalk ‘n talk’. Each period is rounded off with a special week for tests and projects. In these projects, several departments work together and incorporate ways of working that are usually not found in the traditional lessons. For example, students go outside the school to do research, to interview people and to visit other institutions. The project weeks are part of the total teaching programme, but they have a different character. Incidentally, the team holds the opinion that separate subjects and examinations are still needed.

What are the consequences?

- For the project weeks special teaching programmes need to be developed. This means that teachers of different departments have to work together. An interesting side issue is that this co-operation of teachers has a very positive effect on the students.

- In this process of developing teaching programmes, teachers learn a lot from each other. They acquire knowledge of other disciplines. That is why the coherence between the subjects is also made more manifest in the five ‘normal’ weeks.

- It is important to evaluate and to make adjustments. Furthermore, the renewal should be supported by the team. For a teacher this means that he or she needs to join the conversation and needs to attend consultative meetings. “The train is on its way. Where it is going and at what speed is for the team to decide”.

- The introduction is essential; not only for the students, but also for the parents, who are a vital link. Make sure that as a team you agree on things. It is important to act as a unity towards the students and their parents.

- Not all of the teachers have the same urge for innovation. As a team leader you have to take the difference of pace into account. You should also take into consideration that some teachers will pull out. That is why it is important to invest time in personal talks.

- As a team leader you should to be able to delegate. In a team the members have different roles and because of this they also have different responsibilities within the whole.

- The team leader especially needs to be able to organize tasks and to kindle enthusiasm in other people. He or she needs to know when to take control and when to let go. Moreover, the team leader should give compliments and highlight milestones.
A team has to be critical of itself and of the developments it goes through. Team members need to be accountable to each other.

This summer there will be a profound evaluation of the first year. So far, we have primarily heard notes of optimism. But there have also been critical notes and warnings with respect to the limitations of the building, the availability of personnel, the difficulty of gearing different time tables to one another and the amount of time that goes into the process of development.

VMBO-Team Kollum
The team in Kollum teaches approximately 350 students. Some of them go to Kollum for only two days a week. On the other days they have classes in either Grijpskerk or Surhuisterveen, which is their home base. The reason why these students go to Kollum is that the practical lessons in metallurgical and construction techniques are only given there. These lessons are taught in a very modern way. In former times all of the students had to make the same pieces of metalwork or woodwork. Nowadays the classrooms resemble workplaces in a large company. In what we call a ‘Learning and Working Home’ the teachers let the students gain knowledge in an autonomous way in a place that is set up like a company. You could call it a simulation of an industrial organization. This in itself is not very exceptional, since many schools in the Netherlands are experimenting with this concept. However, a distinguishing feature is that we did not limit ourselves to workplaces, but that we introduced the concept of a Learning and Working Home, i.e. a place to learn, to work and to feel at home. Moreover, we did not restrict ourselves to one department (Construction Industry), but the other vocational departments (Metallurgical Industry and Service Industry) follow the same concept.
The Learning and Working Home is new and innovative. In this place a student develops his or her abilities in a challenging and stimulating learning environment. Students discover what they can do. This does not only apply to technical skills and professional knowledge. Industrial companies also require other skills from their employees, such as: knowing where and how to find specific information, making a good planning, doing things efficiently so that one saves time and money, and knowing how to work in a team. Many other competencies can be added to this range of skills. One’s competencies determine one’s chances on the labour market. More and more, companies ask for certain skills in addition to know-how.

In the Learning and Working Home the lecturing teacher belongs to the past. It is a well-known fact that everyone who works at a school is rather conceited and knows things better than other people. If you want an educational renewal to be successful, you need teachers who
- believe in a different way of teaching;
- are willing to co-operate with colleagues;
- want to learn things themselves;
- want to teach each other;
- want to help and stimulate each other.

Right now, all vocational subjects are working in accordance with this new organizational set-up.
When something is successful it possesses a certain charisma. More than sixty schools from all across the Netherlands have visited the vocational department in Kollum. That does not mean that everything is running smoothly. Here are some of the pressure points:

- A well-equipped learning environment is a prerequisite. The departments of Metallurgical and Construction Industry have managed to realise this. However, the department of Service Industries has not managed to do this yet. So right now they just have to make do.

- Students have to be prepared well for this new way of learning and working. The curriculum of the first two years should be attuned to this.

- The integration of general and vocational subjects is problematic. Students live in two separate educational worlds: two days a week they have a teacher ‘in the classroom’ (vocational education) and three days a week they have a teacher at the front of the classroom (general education)

- The teachers need time for consultation and development.

If such a form of education is to be successful, communication within a team is a prerequisite. Teachers need to be able to take over certain activities from each other. As a teacher you no longer teach a class on your own, but you co-operate with other colleagues in a classroom. To realise all of this, the role of the team leader is of vital importance. He or she monitors the process and the ways of communication. For the near future there is the challenge to re-form the first two years into a good preparation for the last two classes of secondary education. Moreover, it is necessary to realise a better integration of the vocational and general subjects.
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"Scenario’s voor een Herontwerp van de Basisvorming? (June 2003)

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Minding the Minders
Investing in Headteachers and School Leaders

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Key words: Role of Headship; degree of control and autonomy; management of change; stress; development of Headteachers.

My perspective: My interest in the training and development of Headteachers and the way they are trained, mentored and ‘looked after’ in the years following their appointment to maximise their potential and their contribution and development of their staff, has evolved over the past 10 years. It originated with my role as an LEA advisor working closely with Secondary phase schools on Assessment and monitoring pupil performance and has become more focused with my involvement in two key National College of School Leadership (NCSL) programmes. I have been involved in the National Professional Qualification for Headteachers (NPQH) since 1995, as a ‘final assessor’ and more recently since 2004 as a mentor in the Headteacher Induction Programme (HIP). The NPQH where once optional, has since April 2004, become a mandatory award, required of all Deputy Headteachers wishing to progress to Headship and in many cases required of newly appointed Headteachers without the award, as part of their professional development and for some, as a condition of their appointment. I have been a senior governor of a successful secondary phase school where I was directly involved in the appointment of the most recent Headteacher, and as the Programme Leader of a large Masters programme, and Doctoral supervisor, (School of Education and Training, University of Greenwich), I have many Deputy Heads and Headteachers who have progressed through the programme or are currently students. It is with this background and experience that I have come
to recognise the gaps in the provision in terms of poor ‘after care and support’, the need for high level intellectual and professional development and the enormity of the job of being a Headteacher of an effective school in the current educational and political climate.

**Methodology:** A purposive sample of 20 Headteachers were asked the question ‘If part of your role as a Head is to mind your staff; who minds you? Who minds the minder? The themes that emerged from these discussions have been used to structure the format of this paper. Purposive sampling was used as this allows the selection of individuals who have specific knowledge of the area being investigated, (Denscombe, 2003. Further, the selection was opportunistic and took place during the period January and May 2005. The sample data was gathered during the course of my work and meetings with Headteachers on the Masters and Doctoral Programmes, visits to schools and in the course of focused discussions with School Leader colleagues who attended the Prague Learningteacher network conference in Prague in May 2005.

**Theoretical Context:** Gray (1990) in Sammons et al. (1995) has argued that ‘the importance of the headteacher’s leadership is one of the clearest of the messages from school effectiveness research’. He draws attention to the fact that no evidence of effective schools with weak leadership has emerged in reviews of effectiveness research. Reviews by Purkey & Smith (1983) and the United States Department of Education (1997) conclude that leadership is necessary to initiate and maintain school improvement. Without a doubt, the Headteacher is key to the effective functioning of the school. Their philosophy, vision, personality, behaviour, the quality of their interaction with staff, pupils, parents and governors and understanding of what education and learning is all about, impacts directly on the effectiveness of the school and the quality of the learning experience that the school provides. The National College of School Leadership (NCSL) (Leadership in Schools, 2004:1), reports that, ‘In successive annual reports Ofsted has sent out clear messages about leadership in our schools. First, that effective leadership is of crucial importance to the quality of education and standards of achievement in our schools. Secondly, we still do not have enough good leaders and have too many weak ones’.

As a leader, the Headteacher is expected to motivate, inspire, be according to Flintham (2003), a ‘reservoir of hope’, model good practise, and provide direction, intellectual guidance and emotional support in times of stress such as during inspection. As a manager, the Headteacher has a range of specific responsibilities including the management of the curriculum; ensuring that the school complies with legislation; that targets are met to raise standards and pupil achievement, and the recruitment and retention of staff. This however, does not take place in a stable environment, since education in today’s climate is characterised by change. The Headteacher’s ability to manage change, especially mandated change in comparison to self-initiated change, is critical since it impacts on the morale and stress of the staff and effects the school’s ability to evolve and improve. The challenge, for Headteachers and Principals according to Hargreaves (2004:307), is to counter large-scale, management driven educational change aimed at bringing
about quick change, which does not take into account professional purpose and consideration of the realities of teachers’ working lives. He observed that, ‘sustainable improvement now calls for leaders who can build and defend improvement that lasts by drawing on and developing commitment and community among those teachers’. The successful management of change requires vision, collegiality, integrity and the ability to empower one’s staff. Change has not only impacted on staff, but since 1988 and the Education Reform Act, on the role and responsibility of the Headteacher themselves with educational accountability and financial responsibility as two key aspects.

One critical difference for Headteachers in England, in comparison to other countries in Europe, and which impacts directly on their ability to manage change, staffing, and finances and to create a school that reflects their vision, is their autonomy and their relationship with their School’s Governing Body. This body comprises elected parents, members of the local community, representatives of the local authority, teacher representatives and for some schools, representatives of the school’s Foundation or Diocese. The Governing Body of each school is responsible for the recruitment and appointment of all staff. Headteachers in the public sector in England are appointed by the Governing Body and they are accountable to them. Although schools normally have a working partnership with local authorities, because schools operate in a decentralised system, neither the local authority nor indeed the government have any say in the running or organisation of the school. In countries such as France, Germany, Greece, Italy and Spain the Headteacher is accountable to the Ministry of Education, and in countries such as Denmark, the Netherlands and Sweden the Head reports to Local Education Authority, since the appointment of Headteachers is made at this level. It is useful to examine the recruitment of Headteachers in Europe since they will impact directly on the degree of autonomy that the Headteacher has and ultimately, whom they serve.

Recruitment procedures
Two basic systems are used to recruit Headteachers within Europe:

i. recruitment following a public announcement for a specific post and appointment made on the basis of interviews and review of the applicant’s curriculum vitae. Examples include those organised by the local education authority as in Denmark, Finland and Sweden; by the school governing body as in Britain; by the bevoegd gezag in the Netherlands; through democratic elections by the consejo escolar del centro or conselho de escola (composed primarily of teachers) in Portugal and Spain.

ii. recruitment without reference to a specific post and selection made by a governmental body by the Ministry of Education from a qualifying list as the as is the case in France at secondary level; by the inspecteur d’academie for primary phase positions, by the Ministry of Education as in Italy; or, in the case of Greece, selection based on aptitudes, qualifications and service records and a professional report by the regional council.

In general, the same authority that is responsible for recruiting the Headteacher will make the appointment, whether is it is the Ministry of Education, the local
authority or the school governing body as in Britain. Exceptions include Spain where Headteachers are selected by the consejo escolar but appointed by the school administration and in Greece where the regional council submits a proposal to the Prefect who then appoints the Headteacher. Normally Headteachers are appointed for an indefinite period, with the exception of Greece, Spain and Portugal where appointments are made for a four year period, though renewable as in the case of Spain and Portugal, www.eurydice.org (2005).

School boards exist in many of these countries, but they do not have the statutatory powers or the degree of responsibility invested in the Governing Bodies in England. As a consequence Headteachers in England are accountable to the Governing Body and are able to work in partnership with them to make strategic plans for development and improvement which serve the needs of the school, rather than the needs of the Local Authority or government of the time.

The drive in England currently is to work towards creating an autonomous, accountable school, at the centre of which lie strategic planning (Fiddler 1996), and School Self Review. The new Ofsted Framework for Inspecting Schools in England (2003:41) records that inspectors must evaluate and report on the extent to which, ‘the school undertakes rigorous self-evaluation and uses the findings effectively’. This represents a shift with the onus now on schools carrying out a critical examination and impact of practice with inspection validating that process and practice. Accountability is high on the agenda of all Headteachers. The Headteacher is accountable to the governing body, to parents and the local education authority both in terms of the financial management of the school and the quality of the educational experience that it provides for its students. A unique feature of the British system, and one that Headteachers have had to accommodate, is the detailed post Ofsted report, with its judgement of the quality and leadership readily available on the Internet, within the public domain.

Headteachers and schools in Britain are not alone in being subject to professional scrutiny. Ofsted in ‘Leadership in Schools’ (NCSL, 2004:3) reports that, ‘Our work with other European inspectorates has shown the devolution of responsibility to individual schools and Heads is increasing across the whole of Europe. More responsibility is being given to Headteachers to lead and manage their schools, and they have become more responsive to the needs and aspirations of parents. As in England, with this devolved responsibility comes the need for increased accountability. Other countries are developing performance data and inspection systems to provide that accountability. Countries such as France, Portugal, Austria and the Netherlands are moving to systems of whole-school inspection or evaluation with the evaluation of leadership and management as a central part of the process’.

The Framework for Inspecting Schools (2003:41) section 8: ‘How well is the school led and managed?’ requires inspectors to evaluate and report on the quality of leadership of the school, particularly by the Headteacher, senior team and other staff with responsibilities. What is judged is the extent to which, ‘leadership
shows clear vision, a sense of purpose and high aspirations for the school, with a relentless focus on pupils’ achievement; leaders inspire, motivate and influence staff and pupils’. Section 8 is prefaced with a clear direction that ‘inspectors should consider the extent to which leadership is embedded throughout the school and not vested solely in the most senior staff. They should explore how well the leadership team creates a climate for learning and whether the school is an effective learning organisation’.

The Ofsted report ‘Leadership and Management –What Inspection tells us’, (2003:8) cites an earlier report Improving City Schools (2000), observing that, ‘the story of schools visited begins and ends with the quality of their leadership and management. The personalities, the management structures and the school context are different, but some common issues emerge strongly. Predictably, the most effective schools are distinguished by leadership that is inspirational, with a strong commitment to the school, its pupils and the community’. The message is clear, distributed leadership is the order of the day, however in spite of that, the staff, governing body and the Headteacher acknowledge that the final responsibility for a wide range of decisions lies with this individual who leads the school.

A phrase commonly used is ‘the buck stops here’, denoting that even where there is extensive discussion, consultation, collective group input and advice, at the end of the day, one person has to make that final decision. The responsibility is enormous. Other than when one becomes a Headteacher for the first time, when reality hits, this aspect is not normally admitted to oneself or publicly acknowledged. The pace and length of the working day and the range and complexity of tasks that have to be carried out, usually do not leave time for reflection. This is not a job that can be carried out by the inexperienced, since the wellbeing of a school, the staff and students, lie with this individual. It has been the case in the past in Britain, and still is in many European countries, for an individual to be appointed to Headship with only a theoretical understanding of the role and responsibility and limited practical experience, and so having to learn whilst on the job. Harris et al (2003:3) in ‘Deputy and Assistant Heads: Building leadership potential’, recognise that ‘the experience of being a deputy or assistant head is not always helpful preparation for headship because of the lack of direct leadership experience some deputy or assistant heads encounter in this role (Ribbins, 1997)’.

This is a difficult issue. It is clear that one cannot understand the job without doing it, and understanding it theoretically will only partially prepare one for the task. This responsibility is recognised in part in Britain, not only with a mandatory training programme and qualification but also through the improved salary, but it does not alleviate the stress potential of the job. There is no leeway for making errors of judgement or mistakes because of their potential impact on the school, staff and pupils and critically, the reputation of the Headteacher and the trust in which the Headteacher is held by the staff. Even where serious errors of judgement are contained within the school, because of their impact, they cannot be hidden within the course of inspection.
Exactly where does one learn or acquire the critical attributes which experienced practitioners within the field such as Tim Brighouse (ASPA 2001) maintain are prerequisite to effective leadership? He recommends that the Headteacher should be an active learner; be able to ‘accept crisis as the ‘norm’ and complexity as fun; have unwarranted optimism; a complete absence of paranoia and self pity and an absolute well of intelligent curiosity’. He identifies the tasks of leadership as ‘creating energy; building capacity; meeting and minimizing crisis; extending the vision; securing the environment and seeking and charting improvement.’ He concludes that, ‘if you haven’t got enthusiasm, energy and hope, you’re in real trouble.’ A tall order, if one finds oneself the Headteacher of a school which is vulnerable, in which teachers have lost confidence in themselves, are dependant and the emotional climate either cold or ‘all one way’ where one is constantly giving, but getting very little back. Situations such as these are emotionally draining, and hopes of being an authoritative, affiliative, democratic leader who sees themselves as a mentor or coach developing staff, suddenly seem far off.

If emotional support and care for one’s wellbeing is not forthcoming from within the school, where will the Headteacher find it? Family, friends, former colleagues, the chair of the Governing Body and networks of peer Headteachers are obvious examples, and these sources of support were confirmed by the 20 Headteachers surveyed in the course of this research; however these only work if they exist. Local Education Authorities and Diocesan Boards arrange for peer mentoring to take place and cluster groups of new Headteachers to meet and talk through issues that arise. The Headteachers surveyed, acknowledged the ‘luck of the draw’ quality of these support mechanisms. Of the group, 4 observed that although a mentor was assigned, the relationship did not evolve beyond the superficial because they and the assigned mentor did not ‘gel’. Additionally Headteachers felt that there were boundaries that could not be crossed where mentors were themselves a member of the local authority or where the cluster group came from the same local authority. The issue here was related to maintaining confidentiality, trust and the preservation of one’s reputation whilst an inexperienced Headteacher. It was generally felt that discussion of general things was permissible, but not ‘washing dirty linen in public’.

Programmes arising from the National College of School Leadership such as the ‘New Visions’ and the Headteacher Induction Programme (HIP) provide both mentorship and focused courses that address issues of financial management, assessment and raising pupil performance and issues related to church schools. These do not however, address the need for on-going emotional support other than via relationships and friendships within the cohorts that may arise naturally from shared experience.

Key findings from ‘Issues of Early Headship’ (Hobson et al 2003), identified factors such as ‘professional isolation and loneliness; dealing with the legacy, practice and style of the previous Headteacher; dealing with multiple tasks, managing time and prioritising; managing the school budget; dealing with (eg. supporting, warning, dismissing) ineffective staff; implementing new government initiatives, notably new curricula or school improvement projects; problems with
school buildings and site management’, as common problems that gave rise to stress. One new primary Headteacher (Sutton, 2005) reported in her research that ‘many situations recorded as critical incidents appeared without warning or reference to anything that had gone before’ and critically, that ‘ninety nine percent of my job would seem to be involved in complex interpersonal interactions, with, dealing with difficult staffing issues is probably the most challenging of all’.

Training School Leaders
A key question must be addressed: Does the system drive the model of Headship or, is the Headteacher themselves able to drive the model of Headship? What kind of leaders are we looking for to creative effective learning institutions for the 21st century? Is one model more effective in supporting Headteachers in their task, and as a consequence is that model more likely to ensure that Heads will give long service to the profession? Is one model more likely to create a School Leader who feels empowered in their job, able to exercise the flexibility and autonomy needed to adapt to changes in society and schools today?

MacBeath (2004) in his keynote speech to the NCSL quoted Thomson et al., (2003:129), observing ‘we believe that rather than systems trying to recruit people into what is seemingly both an unattractive job and a heroic mission, perhaps some work needs to done on thinking the work of principals... now is the time to engage in fundamental thinking of the principalship’.

In exploring this, it is useful to reflect on current models of Headship training. An underlying issue related to these models is that they tend to foster reproductive thought, the aim of which is compliance, and maintenance and improvement of existing models of schools, leadership and management. They do not encourage re-thinking what schools are about, the purpose of education, deep understanding of learning and teaching and the role the leader in creating a learning organisation. These models consist of:

1. Apprenticeship
2. Induction and Training once appointed
3. Competency based preparation for Headship

Apprenticeship Models
This is essentially the traditional model where Deputy Headteachers are inducted into the role of Headship by the Headteacher of their school. Though potentially promising, the model has always been somewhat ‘ad hoc’ because of the lack of a structure, consistency or accountability. Where the model exists, it tends to be only as good as the person delivering the training. If one has had the luck to work for an enlightened Head who recognises their role and responsibility in training the next generation of School leaders equipping them with the breadth and depth of skills, insights and sharing experience and knowledge in an open manner (Hayes, 2005), then the Deputy develops in confidence and approaches Headship with one’s eyes wide open. The quality of the apprenticeship is also dependent on the quality of the relationship between the mentor and apprentice and in the mentor’s altruism and willingness to share their ‘hard earned knowledge and experience’. It must be recognised that the mentoring relationship is potentially
fraught with problems, in that although the mentor aims to model good practice, they must accept that the apprentice has do it their way, and not become a clone of the mentor (Hall and Kinchington, 1995:65). Some mentors understand that their task is to train their apprentice for ‘independence’ and to be their own person, whilst others, perceiving the apprentice as a potential rival, find this aspect very difficult to deal with.

Induction and training once appointed
Many European countries including Sweden, the Netherlands and England have induction and training programmes for new and experienced Headteachers running over a period of years. Some are locally devised, at municipal level, whereas others are organised nationally and locally delivered. One group of Headteachers of Special Schools from the Netherlands, had started on a one year induction programme together, but had found the experience so valuable that they have maintained the network over three years and have as a group of approximately 15 visited England to examine and reflect on practice in schools and the comparative education systems. Sweden has a 30 day certificated programme running over 3 years covering key aspects such as finance, staffing, legal and local issues. The National College of school Leadership (NCSL) is responsible for the Headteacher Induction Programme (HIP) and New Visions programme in England which is available as part of the entitlement for all new Headteachers, and the LPSH (Leadership Programme for Serving Heads) aimed at experienced Headteachers. These programmes not only provide set courses, but also mentorship and coaching.

Competency Based preparation for Headship models

**Britain:** The National Professional Qualification for Headteachers (NPQH) is a national model that originated in 1995, and has since April 2004, become mandatory for all new Headteachers. It is rated at Masters (graduate level) and as such can give accreditation of up to 30 ECTs into a 90 ECTs Masters award.

**USA:** The USA has a range of competency based models delivered by individual States, or in conjunction with University graduate (Masters) awards, both built around a common core which has evolved over the past nine years. At least 35 States in the USA have adopted the (Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) Standards (1996), which are used as a framework for structuring Principal preparation programmes and training. In 2002, the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education aligned its educational leadership training programme accreditation standards with the ISLLC Standards to create a unified set of standards (the Educational Leadership Constituent Council (ELCC) which now form the basis of the review and accreditation of ‘administrator preparation programmes. However in a survey carried out by Farkas et al (2001) in Hale and Moorman (2003), 69% of Principals interviewed claimed that traditional leadership preparations are ‘out of touch with the realities of what it takes to run today’s schools.’ Hale and Moorman (2003), report that according to the Institute for Educational Leadership (2000), ‘schools in the 21st century require a new kind of principal, who fulfils a variety of roles:'
**Instructional leader** – focused on strengthening teaching and learning, professional development, data-driven decision making and accountability;

**Community leader** – imbued with a big picture awareness of the school’s role in society; shared leadership amongst educators, community partners and residents; close relations with parents and others; and advocacy for school capacity building and resources;

**Visionary leader** – has a demonstrated commitment to the conviction that all children will learn at high levels and able to inspire other inside and outside the school building with this vision.’

The requirements of effective leadership to meet the challenges of today’s schools, is very precise. Success is contingent on intelligence, flexibility, creativity, excellent communication and people management skills, passion and commitment to education, stamina, a sense of humour and the ability to inspire. The key question then is, ‘Having got the ‘right sort’ of Headteacher, what are we doing to look after them, to ensure that we get long, effective service?’

**Managing the stress of leadership – What can we do?**

What results in one person’s debilitating stress can be the source of another person’s excitement inspiring them into creative problem solving. One of the Headteachers in the survey actively sought out ‘schools in challenging circumstance’ because of this very aspect. The positive creative response and sense of purpose it inspired, effectively counterbalanced the degree of difficulty and challenge of a school with major staffing difficulties and de-motivated students. Even under favourable circumstances, it must be acknowledged that school leadership is a job that comes packaged with a set of stress inducing characteristics. John MacBeath (2004) in a key note speech to the National College of School Leadership (NCSL), challenged, whether anyone would want to be a leader, where the job was characterised by unrelenting change; stress; enormous workload, having to deal with social factors, accountability; bureaucracy; the vagaries of teacher supply; a salary that was rarely matched with that of other professionals with they same responsibility; the impact on one’s lifestyle balance and the intensification of the job itself. On a personal level, decision making is more stressful, since as Headteacher, there is no one to share the responsibility should things go wrong. Even where one works closely with a Deputy Head and decisions have come about through open consultation and devolved leadership; the final responsibility lies with the Headteacher themselves.

Headteachers at the outset of their career have spoken about ‘crises of confidence’, and ‘mental battles’ with challenging staff who see the job and position as fair game, and fail to see the person carrying it out, (Sutton, 2005). Working with staff over a long period of time to bring about a shift to where staff see the individual with the title, rather than the title which has an individual attached to it, takes a great deal of effort. The confidence to interact and manage staff effectively is a critical aspect of Headship. Schratz (2003:399) writing about school leadership in German speaking countries undergoing change, cites the experience of a newly appointed Head who thought initially that it would be administrative tasks that would present the greatest difficulty. ‘However’, he
writes, ‘administration proved to be no problem at all. The main difficulty is dealing with people – with 30 people! The situation was fully the reverse to what I had expected.’ This is daunting task, especially when as a new Head one wants to create a collegiate ethos where individuals matter and the school is characterised by mutual support and trust, but is wary of being manipulated by experienced and possibly older staff with hidden agendas.

Hobson et al (2003) reported that ‘whilst headteachers differ in terms of their background, the schools they work in and their experience as a new headteacher, the problems they encounter, are largely the same’. These included ‘feelings of professional isolation and loneliness; dealing with the legacy of the last headteacher; dealing with multiple tasks, managing time and priorities; dealing with staffing’. Sieber (2002), identified the lack of critical feedback a real issue, adding that ‘unfortunately for most new heads feedback is in very short supply’. His research revealed that many new headteachers, on reflecting on their first 12 months in post, found it difficult to identify a single mistake, with one third being unable to do so. This, he felt, ‘is surely a result of a lack of feedback, rather than infallibility’.

Ackerman and Maslin-Ostrowski (2004:311; 326), examining how ‘leaders cope with the endemic and chronic conditions of leadership: vulnerability, isolation, fear and power’, observe that, ‘ultimately there is no simple formula for leadership survival’ adding that ‘the leader doesn’t have to have all the answers, doesn’t have to be ruled by fear and driven by displays of power’. They conclude that ‘the deepest obligation a leader has is to engage continually in a reflective process of making sense of his leadership, and trusting his influence on other and the school’.

Flintham (2003) explored the concept of leadership survival in his interviews with Heads who left the profession early. He entitled his report ‘When Reservoirs Run Dry’, in which he identified three categories of Heads whose approach to headship and their resilience in coping with ‘critical incidents’, defined their ability to manage the role of Headship. These were characterised as follows:

- ‘Strider heads – who moved on after successful experience, in accordance with a clear career plan with a proactive exit strategy, and found the new context re-energising’. They were ‘able to compartmentalise their feelings and be proactive in their response so that their sustaining reservoir did not run dry’.
- ‘Stroller heads – who walked away from headship in a controlled manner as a result of concerns over work-life balance, change pressures or philosophical issues’. They were ‘able to recognise the continued draining of their emotional reservoir and its potential for eventual failure’.
- ‘Stumbler heads – who suffered from burn out through the failure of their sustainability strategies to cope, resulting in stress-related or ill-health retirement’. They had ‘non-existent or inadequate sustainability strategies to
replenish their reservoir, particularly in the face of repeated waves of change’.

Hobson et al (2003) note that the various problems experienced by headteachers are attributable, (Bolam et al., 2000), to three factors, namely ‘the complexity of the headteacher’s role and its tasks; external pressures and demands and poor access to training and support, both before and after appointment’. Although they go on to list a range of support strategies, they concede that there is very little evidence on the effectiveness of such support strategies, other than peer support networks or mutual support groups and the mentoring of new headteachers by experienced practitioners. Even here, it should be acknowledged that, ‘it may also be a mistake to assume that serving heads necessarily have the skills in mentoring’, Sieber (2002).

Hobson (2003:iii) in her review of mentoring and coaching, cites the success of formal mentoring programmes, identifying the reported benefits as:
- Reduced feelings of isolation
- Reduced stress and frustration
- Increased confidence and self esteem
- An opportunity to reflect on the new role
- An accelerated rate of learning
- Improved personal skills, including communication/political skills
- Improved technical expertise, problem analysis
- Friendship

Critically, the research identifies a range of factors that impacts on the quality and success of mentoring. These include:
- The availability of time in which to undertake mentoring
- The matching/pairing of mentors and mentees
- The qualities’ attributes of mentors
- Whether or not the mentors are trained, and the nature of such training.

**Recommendations**
Headteachers as a group, though well paid in England, need public acknowledgement for the job they do and the responsibility they have. Without a doubt the job is complex and both physically and emotionally challenging. The most successful Heads have the support of the staff, governors and parents, operating in an ethos of shared responsibility and importantly, have access to a ‘professional listening partner’ (Fintham, 2003). The least successful, feel isolated, have few sustainable strategies for dealing with the problems of the school and often resort to a range of ‘defense’ strategies in order to feel in control and not overwhelmed by the tasks that they are faced with daily. They lack strategic vision, good communication skills and interpersonal skills, and as a consequence are unable to create a positive, motivated workforce. The impact of poor leadership is profound.
Preparation and support is necessary both prior to appointment and post appointment as part of a continuum of professional development. In the UK professional training is available prior to appointment in the form of NPQH, but there is still concern that potential Headteachers are not getting that essential management experience that will prepare them for headship. Hayes (2005) in his paper ‘Rising Stars and Sitting Tenants’ advocates a model that realistically prepares Deputies for Headship, giving them real leadership development opportunities. His own experience and that of the Headteachers in his survey have identified the lack of a coherent model of school based development for Deputies, resulting in them being poorly prepared for the reality of Headship.

Professional training is available in most European countries, post appointment, in the form of a wide range of courses aimed at developing skills, knowledge and understanding of finances, educational legislation, staffing and so on. Even where it is offered, within a formal mentoring /coaching structure, it is still too hit and miss, with Headteachers having to make their own arrangements for professional and personal support through personal networks, friends and family. Access to a wide range of professional mentoring and support networks are still crucial both to the newly appointed and the experienced Headteacher. Each require different things, have a different experience and see things from different perspectives, but both require critically, the opportunity to reflect. There are however, limited opportunities for Headteachers to engage in ‘professional reflective practice’ with an experienced practitioner.

Engaging in postgraduate research at Masters and Doctoral level which offer the skills and opportunity to look at the relationship between theory and practice, to critique and analyse education and to carry out empirical research in which one is able to create knowledge, rather than be the recipient of it, creates opportunities for high level personal and professional development. Headteachers engaged in these types of programmes affirm that they have been able to gain academic acknowledgement for the learning that has taken place during their time as Head, that they are able to connect theory to practice and importantly, that they have been able to ‘stretch themselves intellectually’. The National College of School Leadership offers a Research Associate Programme which offers an opportunity for school leaders to contribute towards the College’s research and development agenda. NCSL provides bursaries and access to resources, enabling school leaders to engage in research that examines impact on practice. The research is made available to all schools nationally and published on the NCSL website. This dissemination is invaluable, since it both publicly acknowledges the expertise of the profession and the individual themselves in terms of their professional reputation. In addition to this programme, NCSL also offer opportunities for study visits, team research and University project attachments, all aimed at widening professional experience.

Moving out of one’s local or national context to take a wider perspective is invaluable for recharging batteries. This can take the form of Headteachers working as consultants in partnership with initial teacher training institutions and universities, where they are able to share their expertise with both trainees and
new teachers, or being seconded into positions where they work for the local authority or municipality, acting as a consultant, advisor or involved in a specific project for a designated period of time. This can be invigorating for all concerned, bringing ‘grass roots’ expertise that is in touch with current issues to the local authority, gaining the university credibility of ‘being in touch’, while in turn enabling the Head to gain an overview and a wider perspective of education.

A number of experienced Headteachers in the lead up to early retirement in England have over the past five years become increasing involved in programmes such as NPQH, acting as trainers and assessors to those starting towards Headship or as mentors and coaches on the Headteacher Induction Programme for newly appointed Heads. This type of involvement provides a path for professional development, a route in consultancy once retired, enables the sharing of experience, contributing to the development of the profession, and even as one Headteacher reported ‘a way of bringing in extra resources into the school whilst getting professional development for my self’.

Involvement in a short European or International experience where one is able to meet, share and compare practice with colleagues has been described by many teachers involved in these programmes and networks, as invaluable for enabling one to take stock and re-appraise situations. Headteachers cite that this type of professional development and collaboration has given them ‘a wider perspective’; the opportunity to ‘stand back and reflect’; and through debating issues with colleagues from other institutions, phases and other countries, ‘issues are seen with new eyes’.

The examples given here and the types of experience they represent are empowering, supporting the concept of the Headteacher as a reflective practitioner and the Headteacher as a researcher. They provide the opportunity for high level personal and professional development, offer opportunities for disseminating good practice whilst contributing to improving schools. Local authorities and Universities need to acknowledge the resource they have in their hand and use it to the advantage of all.

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School-Based Preparation for Headship

How some schools are preparing their deputies for headship in one London Borough and an international perspective

Tony Hayes

This article is based on a report I wrote for the National College for School Leadership in Nottingham UK called ‘Rising Stars and Sitting Tenants’ (Hayes, 2005). The full article can be downloaded from the NCSL website at www.ncsl.org.uk. I was able to add an international perspective to this work following the Learning Teacher Network Conference in Prague.

In England, teachers are becoming deputy headteachers in schools and then deciding not to go on to become headteachers. This is a double problem for the profession. Firstly, potential headteachers are being lost to that role, and secondly, these deputies become ‘sitting tenants’ blocking the route to headship and preventing ambitious teachers, future ‘rising stars’, from getting that essential management experience that will effectively prepare them for headship.

In Bromley, South East London, where this study was carried out, some deputies are getting good advice and support from their headteachers, are given real leadership development opportunities and are going on to become effective

33 In England, the term ‘headteacher’ refers to a school leader, often referred to as a ‘headmaster’ in some countries of Europe.
headteachers. However, some deputies are given low grade tasks and do not receive the support and encouragement from their headteachers that will lead them towards headship. Finally, there are some deputies who, although in a supportive environment, have decided that headship is not for them.

My view is that as a profession, we must ensure that ‘rising stars’ are encouraged to become headteachers. In particular deputy headteachers must be given the leadership opportunities and the support that will enable them to fulfil the role of the headteacher. Many headteachers do realise the importance that the development of their deputy has to the profession and support their deputies into headship. I suggest that deputies have an entitlement to good support within the school.

Across Europe, experiences differ widely as each education systems has their own, different approach to the employment of headteachers and therefore the way that aspiring deputies are prepared for headship.

In order to establish the situation in this small part of England, I initially, a short survey of all primary schools in Bromley was conducted to gain an overall picture of deputy headship in Bromley. All schools were contacted to find out whether the deputy at the school was interested in becoming a headteacher at some stage in the future.

During a period of twelve weeks, eleven primary headteachers were interviewed together with a senior Local Authority adviser. Following the interviews, two short case studies were constructed describing more fully two unusual but innovative approaches to deputy headship recruitment and training.

The aim of the work was to gain a picture of the state of deputy headship in one London Borough and establish what activities were occurring in primary schools in Bromley to prepare deputy headteachers for headship. Headteachers may like to compare the results of this study in Bromley to the situation they are familiar with in their own Local Authority.

The results of the small survey were enlightening. Of the 76 primary schools in Bromley, only 22 deputies and assistant heads were actively considering headship out of a total of 87 (25%). A further 8 said they may be interested at some time in the future. Five schools had no deputy at the time of the survey. If this pattern is repeated throughout the country, this must have significant implications for the future development of our school leaders. Not only has a large proportion of our deputy headteachers decided that headship is not for them, but this also means that career deputies acting as ‘sitting tenants’ impede the route to headship for others.

The 25% of deputies and assistant heads looking to headship in Bromley contrasts with other research. In a recent national study, for example, only a third of deputies (37%) said they have no plans to take up headship (MORI, 2005).
In my survey, I found many capable and effective deputies who had decided not to go onto headship. There were a variety of reasons why they chose not to become headteachers including impending retirement, family commitments, illness, and a negative perception of headship. In-depth interviews of new and experienced headteachers investigated how they were prepared for headship and how they, in turn, are training their own deputy for headship.

From in-depth interviews of eleven head teachers, I found some excellent practice in terms of preparation for headship. However, not every deputy receives a positive experience.

- The majority of deputies in Bromley do not want to be headteachers. In a survey of primary schools in Bromley, I found only 22 deputy headteachers or assistant headteachers out of a total of 87 who were interested in headship (25%).
- In a time of headteacher shortage, career deputies are not only a loss to headship but as ‘sitting tenants’ they block the route to headship.
- A successful deputy headship that effectively prepares a deputy for headship is dependent on:
  - the relationship between the head and the deputy;
  - the experiences and opportunities given to the deputy and
  - an ambitious and proactive deputy, a ‘rising star’, who will take advantage of the above.

An International Perspective

The shortage of school leaders is not a phenomenon restricted to the United Kingdom. In the United States, this is also becoming a concern. Teachers there consider that ‘the job is just too big’ (Hopkins, 2003)

Education officials and policymakers across the United States have come to a staggering conclusion: the shortage of school administrators to lead the nation's schools is real and is reaching crisis proportion. (Quinn, 2002)

Australia sees ‘a principal shortage looming’, finding that ‘schools are re-advertising positions that once attracted dozens of applicants.’ (Bond, 2002). Over 40% of vice principals in Ontario, Canada, are planning to retire by 2007 causing concern about filling principal vacancies in the near future. (Williams, 2003)

In Sweden, by contrast, a national training programme for school leaders and a support programme for headteachers, has led to an increase in the numbers of applicants. (Korp, 2005)

The UK has been slow to recognise the need to prepare its headteachers; to give them the training they need to begin their new role effectively. America can trace university programmes for the preparation of school principles and superintendents back to the 19th Century. Brundett is able to cite evidence of a
training programme for Superintendents devised in 1866. (Brundett, 2001) In England, however, training for senior staff in schools only began to develop in the 1960s, almost a century later. Local authorities began to run short courses for headteachers from the 80s but it was not until the introduction of Headlamp in the late 1990s that a national programme for the training of headteachers began to be established.

The Prague conference 2005 offered the opportunity to discuss preparation for headship with headteachers from other countries. These discussions can only provide a flavour of headship preparation in these countries because it soon became clear that, as in the UK, effective preparation varied in different parts of each country and even from school to school.

Headteachers from Portugal, Slovenia and the Czech Republic reported that they had been selected from amongst the teaching staff of the school and nominated to become the headteacher of the school without any training at all. The Portuguese system of electing the headteacher from the staff group is apparently under review by the Government who wish to move to a training model. The colleague from the Czech Republic offered that her selection had been because when chosen fifteen years ago, she was the only member of the staff who was not Communist. I am not sure of the current selection procedure. A deputy headteacher from Italy, keen to become a school leader, added that she had to study privately for the qualification to become a headteacher and had to pay for the course herself.

By contrast, a provider of headteacher training from Sweden was able to demonstrate a detailed training programme for headteachers initially aimed at teachers rather than just deputy headteachers. This training, coupled with a comprehensive support programme for headteachers in post has lead to a large number of applications for available headteacher posts. Although another colleague from Sweden noted that the situation was more difficult in city centres, it is clear that the success of the Swedish system indicates a model to be studied.

A headteacher from a secondary school in England also added that in his school they identify potential school leaders in the first five years of their teaching career and then put the support in place that will prepare them for headship. He added that although his policy meant that he lost senior teachers to deputy headship and headship in other schools, ambitious teachers had heard about the excellent support offered by his system and were attracted into his school.

A Model

The ideal model for the school-based development of any deputy headteacher is a symbiotic one where the deputy and the headteacher draw on each other’s strengths and each uses their own individual assets to augment the skills of the other.

The headteacher and the school will particularly benefit from an ambitious deputy who will be anxious to learn all aspects of the job. A successful deputy headship
with a record of effectively implementing management initiatives is invaluable to take into headship interview and on into first headship.

This relationship will be one in which the headteacher sees his deputy as an equal in the school, has the courage to share the leadership of the school and presents his deputy to the governors and staff as a parallel professional who carries his full support and confidence.

Head teachers should give their deputy real responsibility, involving them in all decision making, large and small. Rather than minor management tasks such as organising rotas or arranging courses, for example, an ambitious deputy should be allowed to run staff meetings and INSET sessions, possibly given the responsibility for implementing certain Government initiatives. They will, of course, need the time to complete those tasks but a head will find considerable strength in having someone who shares and actively supports his vision for the school.

Headteacher’s time, though valuable, should be freely given to discuss issues and solutions with the deputy as they are mentored from appointment to headship and beyond, even to advising the deputy when and where to apply for headship. Deputies will need to be funded and supported through the NPQH programme, given release time as necessary and the head should engineer opportunities for the deputy to manage the whole school from time to time.

In return a headteacher can expect an ambitious deputy to be enthusiastic and willing to take on tasks from the head. In sharing leadership they will help shape and manage the curriculum together, working in partnership to manage staff and deal with discipline and parental problems. Class observation, scrutiny of work, and monitoring planning are all high-level tasks that can be shared with the deputy.

Finally, enjoy the experience of seeing your ‘rising star’ mature into headship. You will not only get considerable pleasure from the development of your deputy but also you will be supporting the profession as a whole by ensuring that a new, effective and competent headteacher emerges from your school.

**Recommendations**

Although this was a small study, restricted to just one area of England, it does suggest that:

- Headteachers should be offered guidance on how to prepare deputies for headship.
- Deputy headship could be considered a training position. Ideally, it should be a temporary post – after five years a deputy with no interest in headship could become ‘Senior Teacher’ with no loss of pay or status. This would prevent deputy head teachers from becoming ‘sitting tenants’ freeing up the deputy head’s position for an ambitious teacher to move through to headship.
• Local authorities need to monitor the development of deputy headteachers from their appointment to their move into headship. Authorities should interview deputies who decide not to move into headship to determine whether a different school or a course could re-establish their ambition.
• Local Authorities might facilitate the movement of ambitious deputies between schools to develop their skills.
• The Government and NCSL must continue to raise the positive profile of headteachers within the profession, and within society more generally, in order to increase the numbers of teachers wanting to move into school leadership.

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As the 2\textsuperscript{nd} network conference heading says, \textit{Learning for the future} is really a challenge for our professions.

Learning does not only take place in the immediate time, here and now. To learn, you have to reflect on the past and consider the future. Let me reflect on our history before looking at the present situation.
An early education consultant

Many years ago, Sweden was eager to conquer large parts of Europe to show the world that it was powerful. In the middle of the 17th century, the present day Prague was invaded by the Swedes. They caused a lot of trouble but never succeeded in conquering the country. Perhaps we are a richer world because of our national differences.

However, on their raids to these parts of Europe the Swedes realised that there were people who had ideas on education - ideas that were relevant to Sweden. Johann Amos Komensky, or Comenius as he later called himself, was one of them. He was an unusual man of his time. He loved peace although he lived in one of the most war torn times in Europe. He pleaded for creating peace, which the Swedes and his contemporaries did not heed. He also argued for creating better education for children. In 1642 the Swedes asked Comenius to come to Sweden to produce learning materials for school children, which he did. Christina the Swedish queen, also ordered Comenius to create an organisation plan for a new school system. Sitting mainly in Elbing (the Swedes controlled Germany) but also in Finspång a small cold place in Sweden, Comenius wrote the plan.

Before he left Sweden in 1648 he proposed that a new school system should be constructed to the Queen. The first stage of education he called the infant school, running from birth to the age of six. The responsible teacher would be the mother. The next stage he called the mother tongue school. Each municipality should arrange this school for six to twelve year olds. From twelve to eighteen young people should join the adolescent school, arranged by the cities. While from eighteen to twenty four young people in all provinces or regions of the country, should be able to go to an academy. Comenius made a proposal to the Queen that all children should go to the mother tongue school including girls!

It took Sweden about three hundred years to make Comenius´ school plan become a reality. From this we learnt: When you instigate learning, you need to have visions and ideas that you are prepared to fight for over a very long time. Today my home country Sweden has a school system that largely follows the thoughts that Comenius had three hundred and fifty years ago.

The development of the school system in Sweden

The Swedish school system of today is based on a nine year long comprehensive school for all children (‘grund school’), followed by a three year long upper secondary school (‘gymnasie school’) where almost every young person aged 16-19 participates. Compulsory school starts at seven years and continues until sixteen years. Most children go to preschool from the age of three or four. Almost every child participates in pre-school by five. At six years the kommun 34 have to offer you a place in a so called pre-school class, which is a kind of transition

34 Sweden has 290 municipalities, so-called ‘kommuner’ - communes. These are geographical areas with certain political and administrative autonomy in relation to the state. The largest ‘kommun’ is Stockholm with about 800 000 inhabitants. Bjurholm is one of the smallest with 2 500 inhabitants.
between the compulsory school and pre-school. The transformation of the school system, from a complicated multi-structured system where talented students were offered study by selective methods into a rather more simply structured comprehensive school system, happened in the 1950’s and the 1960’s.

Education of the young is an entitlement of Swedish society of today. When the folk school was introduced in 1842 it was not. The ‘folk school’ was a six year long school for all boys and girls in the country. It was the first time that the ideas of Comenius were put into practice. As Sweden went through industrialisation, urbanisation and modernisation through the later part of 1800 and the earlier part of 1900, education grew in the minds of most people as something important and useful. The ‘folk school’ got its first modern “läroplan” (national curriculum) in 1919. Here national aims were presented for the schools. The selection of content and substance for the students in 1919 broke with the old where Christian religion had played a dominant role. Instead knowledge about nature and society got a more important place. Since then Swedish schools have been directed by national curricula.

During the fifties and the sixties Sweden reformed not only the structure of the school system, but also the content. More learning about modern society was requested and civics was emphasized as well as citizenship. Social development of the young ones was put forward, so that they were expected to become independent, develop a high self esteem and become capable of co-operating with others through their work at school. The students were also requested to develop good knowledge about nature and master at least one second language. The reformation of the school system had as its overall target education for all, getting rid of injustice between students from different parts of the country as well as creating equal opportunities for boys and girls.

Today, forty-five years after the major change to the school system it is obvious that the previous inequalities in the educational patterns that existed between boys and girls have been wiped out. There are still many differences between the sexes in their choices within the educational system, but today girls consume more education than boys, which was not the case before the reforms were made. Differences between young people from different regions are very small today compared to yesterday, but the differences between young people from different social classes have been preserved during the years. Although many more young people from working class get more education in Sweden today compared to earlier years, their counterparts from higher social classes get even more.

In the beginning of the 21st century Sweden is a highly industrial state, where old industrial areas based on wood and iron still are strong together with high technology and chemical industries that create the economic base of the country. Education is seen as a tool to get the society to stay stable and at the same time develop in a high speed, to be able to compete on the world market. The overarching aims of the school are decided on by the government. The national curriculum is sent out to all the schools directly by the government. The schools follow the same guidelines for learning in different subjects. The government
decides on the content of these guidelines for the ‘grund school’ and its staff organisation. The national agency of education decides on the content of the national guidelines for all the subjects of the ‘gymnasie school’.

Since the early years of 1990 the relation between the state and the municipalities (i.e. ‘kommuner’; Sweden has 290 ‘kommuner’) is such that the state decides upon the aims and the ‘kommuner’ have to find practical solutions to really reach the aims. The Swedish system of taxation lies mainly with the municipalities (‘kommuner’). The responsibility to reach the national objectives lies on the local level, which is made possible due to the fact that the municipality also decides on the use and distribution of the taxes. Therefore, the schools in Sweden have a high degree of autonomy, but they are also highly responsible for their results. Each year the state requires that each ‘kommun’ and each school assesses the quality of the inner work and evaluate the outcomes of the school work. The quality reviews are openly presented to the municipality and to other schools on the web, so that everyone can be informed.

In Sweden public schools are dominant in most municipalities during the comprehensive school years. The ‘kommuner’ offer schooling for 96% of young people aged seven to sixteen and only 4% of young people of these ages go to a non-public school. In the three most urbanised areas in Sweden, Stockholm, Göteborg and Malmö, the frequency of young people that go to non-public schools is much higher. More than one out of ten parents chooses to send their children to a non-public school in theses cities. In many parts of the country, non-public schools do not exist. The non-public schools get their money from the public sector after that the National Agency of Education has given them permission to work as a school.

The teachers
As I pointed out the compulsory school (‘grund school’) is running from grade 1 to grade 9. All young people in Sweden in the age of seven to sixteen attend the ‘grund school’, despite their different situations and their abilities to learn. In an ordinary Swedish classroom you therefore may find students that in other countries would be placed in special classes or in special schools. For instance children with Down’s syndrome appear in the ‘grund school’ to learn in that environment. At the same time as they learn, their classmates learn about their reality to be able to show respect and tolerance later in life. Teachers are educated to follow the students for rather longer periods of their schooling. To become a teacher you go to the university for a period of three and a half years or four and a half years. You make a choice during your training the ages of the students on which you will focus. As a teacher in the ‘grund school’ you will follow them not for only one year, but usually you follow the students for three to five years. The teachers also specialise in subject areas during their training, where they take a more specialised role as a subject area teacher as the students become older.

During the early school years, the students are surrounded by few teachers. In the later years they meet a larger number of teachers during the working week. The teacher-student ratio in the ‘grund school’ in Sweden is one teacher per twelve-
thirteen students. The students usually start their ‘grund school’ years in a smaller school that has its localities close to the living area of the students. In grade six or seven you sometimes must change to another school, to get access to more specialised localities for experiments in physics, chemistry etc. There are about 20 to 30 students in a class. The classes are kept as a unit the first five /six years and sometimes even nine years. But when you reach grade seven and eventually change to another school you might have to enter a new class. But to keep the study units together over long time has been seen as one of the cornerstones of the ‘grund school’. By sharing school life with the same students and with teachers over long periods, Swedish youth are expected to be able to keep long relationships alive through good times as well as bad times.

Differentiation is not accepted in the overall policy for ‘grund schools’. It was the big issue when the step was taken over to a comprehensive grund school in the fifties and in the debate a lot of warnings were raised that all the talented students would be wasted by the use of a grund school. The ‘grund school’ is based on ideas about individualisation, where all students can get their individual support to achieve the best they can. Fortyfive years experience with the Swedish ‘grund school’ show that the worries were not true. In different international achievement tests Swedish students score well. The top ten percent of the students are competing well with their counterparts in other countries.

**The means of teacher leadership**

The teachers are the leaders of learning in our schools. To cope with the demand that each student will learn in their personal way and develop in harmony with the national guidelines, the teachers together with the student and his or her parents construct a personal development plan for each student. The students of the grund school receive a more serious feed back on their achievement from the teachers than the day-to-day interaction, through “development talks” that are held between the teacher, the student and the parents once every half year. The personal development plan forms the basis of these talks. In Sweden the students do not receive marks not until they have reached the eighth grade, when they become fifteen years old. The marks they get in grade nine are used for selection to the
‘gymnasie school’. More than 80% of the students of the grund school are accepted in the gymnasie school get their first hand choice.

Schools are asked by the central authorities to use centrally produced knowledge tests in grade five and grade nine of the ‘grund school’, to make the quality of the teaching as well as the quality of the knowledge of the students visible. Teachers mark the achievement of the students in grade eight and grade nine, but are asked to use the results of the central knowledge tests as instruments of calibration. The ‘kommun’ shall monitor the quality of education of its ‘grund schools’, through its internal structure. In larger ‘kommuner’ there is a central arrangement where experts are employed to work specifically on evaluation and development of the schools. In Sweden there are many ‘kommuner’ that are small and cover large geographic areas where this kind of central expertise does not exist, as the local economy is not strong enough. 90 of the Swedish communes have less than 10 000 inhabitants and cover two thirds of the geographical area of the country. In these ‘kommuner’ there are seldom possibilities to solve the task to evaluate the schools by using such expertise. In these ‘kommuner’ the schools evaluate themselves or work together with other schools to solve their tasks.

The upper secondary school, the ‘gymnasie school’, is free for the student to attend. More than 90% of the youngsters attend the ‘gymnasie school’ between the age of 16 to 19, which makes this step of the educational system almost compulsory for the individual of that age. It is difficult to find a job in Sweden if you have not passed the ‘gymnasie school’. The length of the ‘gymnasie school’ is three years. There are 17 different national programmes running in the ‘gymnasie school’. Most of the programmes are preparing the students for working life. The ambition of the system is that all students will become qualified for participation in education at the tertiary level. To be qualified for this level you need to have good knowledge in Swedish, Mathematics and in English. Today about two thirds of the students of the gymnasie school succeeds to pass these qualifications. About two thirds of this group go to the universities before they are twenty five years old.

Independent and responsible schools
Sweden has learnt a lot about the way schools can act during the last century. We changed our national structure from being highly centralistic to give the power to the schools and the ‘kommuner’. At the school level the school leader together with her staff has much power over the distribution of money. The school leader is responsible for hiring new staff. The school leader is also responsible for the decision of the salary for each teacher. We work with individual salaries for teachers in my country. School leaders and teachers decide to a large degree together on the time that is used for learning. We do not use the old time structure in our schools, where you work with 45 minute lessons. Schools are free to find the time rhythm that suits the needs of its students. Therefore students in Swedish schools work for longer or shorter periods than 45 minutes with important issues.

For more than fifty years we have served one free hot meal to the students in the middle of the day, to make it possible for them to learn for the whole day. In Sweden a thirteen year old spends the time between eight in the morning until three or four o’clock in the afternoon in the school.
To make such an independent and at the same time responsible school possible we have chosen to train our teachers and school leaders continuously to make them good leaders of learning processes. When we made our school reform in the sixties teachers came together five days per year to learn more about how they could manage the new situation in the schools. We saw that this was too little time to raise the quality of the teachers so since the early 1990’s teachers in Sweden spend 13 days a year concentrated on their own continuing professional development. They use time to reflect on evaluations that have been done in the school as well as to learn more about how they can cope with different learning situations and different groups of teachers.

**Educational programme for school leaders**

The education programme made for school leaders has changed several times since the first edition was presented. The design of the complete school leader education is built up of four levels with a shared responsibility between the state and the municipality.

**The school leader**

The programme usually starts when a teacher participates in a “recruitment programme”, where the participants learn about the work of school leaders to be able to make up their minds if they want to choose to work as a school leader.

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**Education of school leaders**

- “Tasting” the role of a school leader before the job starts
- Introduction period during the early phase
- Deepening education after some years
- In service training, for ever

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When appointed a school leader, the kommun is responsible for arranging an introduction programme for the newly appointed school leader, so that she or he gets acquainted with for example the budget system, administration/management, legal school issues and other local demands that are put on the school and the school leader.

You could say that the school heads nowadays have a totally new role. Managing schools has become more complicated, more demanding and more challenging. The decentralisation and delegation on local level have caused some dilemmas and problems for the school leaders. For instance the school leaders through the 90’s have got less possibilities to act as a pedagogical leader as the administrative and economic matters have taken a greater part of the daily work of the school leaders.

In 1999 there was a critical report from the National Agency for Education on the role of the school leader (Skolverket, 1999). The report pointed out problems in the local school organisation on the municipality level and said that these problems needed to be analysed in relation to the role of the school leader. In January, 2000, the Minister of Education appointed a group of experts to analyse the role. The report from that group was published in August, 2001. In this report the expert group tries to describe what they think is the characteristics of leadership for the schools of today and tomorrow. The report of the expert group with its ideas and reflections on the school leadership has become an important document regarding the development of the national training programme.

The concept of the programme is based on the ideas that the experience of the school leaders should be one of the cornerstones in the education programme. Another cornerstone is the focus on procedures.

It has over the years become a training programme with a reputation as a programme of a very good quality. Both the municipalities and the school leaders have been very anxious to attain the programme. All our 290 ‘kommuner’ take part and we have school leaders queuing for attaining the programme.

Leaders of schools and of learning
I am the leader of one of the eight regional teams that are responsible for this educational programme in Sweden. When we educate the school leaders we have seen that it is important to develop a learning situation also for the leaders of school where they feel secure and where they can trust their educators.

As I see it the main task of the school leader is to represent the ideas that lie behind the demands that are directed towards the school. The school leader needs to be able to assertain the central guidelines at the local school in relation to all groups that act there, like teachers, students and parents. The school

- Clear visions
- Internal democracy
- High professionalism
leader fulfils these tasks by organising the school and by leading the teachers. He also clarifies what learning outcomes there are for the students. When you participate in the school leader education you deepen your understanding of school leadership together with colleagues. You meet different ways to approach the problems that the profession faces. Early in the school leader education we use the same strategy that the teachers of Swedish schools are expected to use – to identify individual needs for each school leader and to identify different steps in an individual learning plan.

School leaders need to be well versed in all the policies that place expectations on the school. We help the school leaders to interpret these policies and discuss with them how they will be able to put demands on teachers to follow the guidelines and to communicate the expectations with the students. The new school leaders often suffer in their role at the school, as their new career steps may mean that they leave old peer relationships with some of the teachers. Their new job may include putting demands on people that some time ago they were part of, but who today need to be seen in a new light. To be able to take this leader role, the school leader needs to have learnt about their own motives and thought deeply as to why they have chosen to become school leaders. We work together with groups of school leaders so that they can develop these qualities among themselves.

Swedish schools receive strong expectations to work as good models for how a local democracy may function. In Sweden it is written into the law that students have the right to influence their own education. Teachers have to lead the learning in such a way that the voice of the students are heard and respected. We help school leaders to find different ways to stimulate their teachers to live up to this difficult expectation. We base our education of school leaders on three important principles e.g. democracy, learning and communication.
What do we really mean by these three aspects?
Democratic leadership means that the leader him-/herself is leading the school in accordance with democratic ideas and understanding that school democracy is for all who are working in the school. The democratic reflective school leader understands that it is not sufficient that education imparts knowledge of fundamental democratic values. It must also be carried out using democratic working methods and prepare pupils for active participation in civic life. By participating in planning and evaluation of their daily education, and exercising choices over courses, subjects, themes and activities, pupils will develop their ability to exercise influence and take responsibility.

The democratic leadership also means that the school leader has to put limits on those ideas that are in conflict with the fundamental values of the curricula. To quote the curriculum:
All who work in the school should uphold the fundamental values that are stated in the Education Act and in this curriculum, and should very clearly disassociate themselves from anything that conflicts with these values.

For this it’s neccessary that the school head during the education develops a personal base of values in which the school leader can feel safe and secure. This personal base of values must of course correspond to the goals of the curricula. The education also has to encourage the school leaders so they get the capacity for arguing in favour of the fundamental values and thereby strengthening the courage to stand up towards anything that conflicts with these values.

What about the learning aspect?
All leadership is about constant learning and that is especially the case for school heads. They are leaders for highly educated people with intellectual work. To be able to lead such a group, the leader him/herself must be a learner. But the school leader also needs to be a learner in relation to the goals of the curriculum.
The school leader should be able to promote the learning culture within the organisation to improve goal attainment and thereby provide a learning focus both for pupils and staff. For this to take place schools need to focus on learning about their pupils and experimenting to find the best ways of organising their activities to suit the diversity of the pupils. An important aspect is the school head as a model for the teachers and the teachers leading of the pupils learning in order to promote the development and learning of the pupils.

And finally the communicative aspect
The school leader has to communicate the task and the goals of the activities for which the school leader is responsible. The school leader should be able to communicate his/her own vision of developing the school and of course also the personal base of values. To communicate in this context means that the school leader initiates and maintains discussions and dialogue, formed as mutual talks, about the goals of the activities and also try to create good conditions for these talks. The communication of the school leader must include all levels, the school board, the pupils, the parents, the staff and even those outside the world of education.
The training programme comprises a minimum of 30 training days and takes place over a period of three years. They make studies in their own schools and test different management ideas there too. They meet other participants in seminars between the course periods and read literature. Those school leaders that want to, register their participation as university studies and thereby get examined by university staff. The board of the school in the municipalities undertakes to ensure that each participant in the training programme will be granted sufficient time off for self tuition and receives financial support. Participants will receive a certificate on successful completion of the training programme.

**Ideas behind an education**

School leaders are in charge of their schools. I see them in their efforts to learn to conquer the competencies that are needed to succeed in the job. When they themselves learn about the school as an institution in the society, about the organisation theories that can be used to understand the school, about different ways to lead people that learn, about school improvement and about leadership among adult people, I am fascinated by the engagement that people that are thirty five to fifty years old show to the task. We base the learning activities on direct experiences of the concepts that the learning is about. We strongly emphasise the use of processes that are present as a basis for learning. Among these we see the relations among the participants and the relations between them as school leaders and their staff as the most important processes to use for learning, together with reflections on the personal learning itself that the participants can use when coming back to their school. We use a lot of research based theories in the educational programme both as reading material and for simulations with and without the computer. We are happy to see that many of the participating school leaders use these ideas back at the school together with their staff to help the teachers to understand what is going on in their school by the use of research proven knowledge.

The programme for school leader education in Sweden has been evaluated several times during the thirty years that is has existed. We know that the school leaders have become well prepared to act as leaders in a school characterised by large independence and large responsibility. But we also know that many school leaders do not use parts of what they have learned during their participation. To be able to do so they have to share the understanding that they have reached about the inner life of their school with their teachers. We know that one of the strongest contributions that the educational programme gives to the development of the Swedish schools is that it influences the norms among the school leaders. One reason for this is of course that school leaders meet so closely during the programme and spend a good deal of time with colleagues facing the same kind of problems as they do themselves and they can discuss solutions with. But it is also so that half of the educators and sometimes more of them are well-experienced school leaders themselves that use part of their time to educate the new ones. The school leader programme is one of the most important norm-sending ‘instances’ for school leaders in our country.
Let us learn together

In Sweden we have learnt that we need to get our school leaders to learn together. When they do so the chance is much larger that they share the interest of us rallied at conferences – to concentrate our minds on the healthy activity of learning and how to act as leaders to stimulate and facilitate learning among students as well as teachers. To be able to lead learners and learning you need to know about learning as a human activity. We are far from knowing all about this healthy activity. I think that school leaders in all our countries need to go together to help the teaching professions to learn more about learning. The researchers serve us with some new knowledge, but I think that they are too few and work too slow.

I believe that it is important that many people come together to discuss what areas we need to highlight to make our minds more clear of what we know and what we don’t know in the field of learning. I think that it is especially important that we use our different resources to help each other to make better diagnosis of how students do when they learn, so that we can use that kind of knowledge when schools individualise the learning of the students. I also consider it important that we concentrate on finding more reliable knowledge about leadership for learning, both such knowledge that teachers can use and such knowledge that school leaders need.

These challenges need to be taken up in our different countries so that we can give each other some help in our strivings to create schools that will be respected in our countries for the high quality of learning.

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The Swedish school system – a short background
The Swedish school system is a goal based system with a high degree of local responsibility. The main responsibility lies with the municipalities. The goals are set out by the Swedish Parliament and Government. The school is compulsory from 7-16 years. From 16-19 years it is a non-compulsory upper secondary school. The professionals at school work with a 1-12 perspective in their everyday work.

Democracy forms the basis of the national school system. In accordance with the ethics borne by Christian tradition and Western humanism, this is achieved by fostering in the individual a sense of justice, generosity of spirit, tolerance and responsibility. Education in school must be non-denominational. In the national curriculum there are goals set out to strive for.

The task of the school in Sweden is to promote learning by stimulating the individual into acquiring knowledge in a good environment for developing and learning. The learner is in focus, with access to modern technique and new ways of learning. In partnership with the homes the school should promote the development of students into responsible persons and members of society. The most vital task at school is to raise the lowest level of knowledge in order to prepare the students for the complicated society of today.
The teacher should take as a starting point that the students are able and willing to take personal responsibility for their own learning and work in school but, of course, you have to teach responsibility. As professionals you must have a plan how to develop this. It takes time. You have to work continuously together with the home about the well-being and acquisition of knowledge in a personal development dialogue. This is a talk between the student, the parents and the teacher. The student has “the leading part” in order to understand his or her learning in the best way.

Every subject has goals to strive for and goals to attain in the national curriculum. The teacher and the student will decide together the way of attaining the goals because the students must practise influence in planning, the process itself and evaluation in order to be ready for our society. To learn democracy means to work in a democratic way in school.

The teachers’ task is to give special support to those who have difficulties in learning. You have to help in every way using your imagination to inspire the student. You have to write a development programme that describes the problems and what must be done to solve them. Especially in English, Maths and Swedish you have to write programmes as the students have to attain the goals in these subjects before leaving the ninth form. Often you make this programme in the personal development dialogue together with the student and the parents. They are all responsible for different parts of the programme. You decide when to meet again to evaluate.

The issue of grading is diffused in Swedish schools. Grades are awarded for each term in year 8, at the end of the autumn term in year 9 (term report) and when compulsory school attendance ends (final grade or “leaving certificate”). Grades are set by the teacher, but the teachers have discussions about the students’ results and make assessments together. The discussions about how the criteria of the grades are to be understood are important. The grades awarded are G (to pass), VG (to pass with distinction) and MVG (to pass with special distinction).

In year 2 there are national tests in Swedish and Maths. In years 5 and 9 there are national tests in Swedish, Maths and English. Of course there are other tests too, but today there is more focus on learning and self-assessment than tests. In the classroom the activities come in this order of preference: learning, teaching, assessment and tests. To develop knowledge is the most important task.

If you want to know more about the Swedish school system you can find information in English at www.skolverket.se.

How did the project “How do students learn” start?
During the late 90’s there had been frequent signals of problems arising for students when passing on from secondary to upper secondary school especially in maths and modern languages (French and German). There was an obvious gap between the two school levels. The school authorities wanted to do something about this and applied for money from the Swedish Board of Education to start this cooperation project in the Karlstad region.
Aim of the project
The aim of the project is to create knowledge and understanding for each other’s work at the different school levels. The object is to create an uninterrupted pedagogic line between secondary and upper secondary school and create conditions for life-long learning.

Other objects are…
• to create a common view on learning and knowledge in consideration of young people’s possibilities to influence the teaching and their own learning with respect to the curriculum
• to create a common view on assessment among the teachers in the region according to the curriculum
• to create continuity and progression within the subjects (English, German, French, Spanish, Swedish, Mathematics) and to make the transition between the two levels easier and to reach all students at their own level
• to create knowledge and understanding for the teachers’ work and demands according to the curriculum
• to increase the participation of the students in the project

Organisation
There are 15 secondary schools and 6 upper secondary schools involved in the project, which is organized in this way:
• 2 main project leaders from the school administration
• 2 project leaders (teachers) + 2 head teachers in mathematics
• 2 project leaders (teachers) + 2 head teachers in Swedish
• 4 project leaders (teachers) + 2 head teachers in English and Modern Languages (French, German and Spanish)

The project leaders (teachers) work in service with the project one day per week, 20% of their duty.

There is a reference group in each subject with at least one representative from each school in the region. Big schools sometimes have two representatives. These groups have about 20 - 25 representatives each. We meet two or three times every term in each subject. By using this system of reference groups of representatives from all the schools in the region, information on the project activities is easily spread among the schools.

The project has been financed by both the central and local school authorities. It was a three-year-project from 2000-2003, but in June 2003 the local authorities decided to prolong the project another year, because there is a great need for these discussions to continue and the project so far has been very successful. From 2004 it is no longer a project but part of the ordinary activities.
Activities in English and Modern Languages
Our first task in the project was to create a network between the teachers at different levels. The teachers wanted more information and knowledge about the situation at different levels. During the first year an exchange started, where the teachers visited each other’s classes at the schools involved. They concentrated on the last class in secondary school and the first class in upper secondary school and discussed what expectations the students at secondary school had and what experiences the students at upper secondary school had during their first year there. They also tried to find out what problems the students met when changing schools both by talking to the students and also by talking to the teachers. They studied different ways of working, the curriculum, the assessment, textbooks and different tests.

In the Modern Languages reference group we also arranged visits to each other’s schools as well as discussing the content of the new curriculum and how to assess the students accordingly. We have also read a lot of pedagogic literature and discussed it at our meetings. At the same time we have also been trying to spread current information as well as good ideas among the teachers in the group and we have been discussing present teaching problems. The task of the representatives in the reference group has been to spread information about the work done and continue the discussions at their local school. They are also supposed to bring up questions from their local school in the reference group. At every meeting the teachers were supposed to report how the work at their local school proceeded. Some schools never had any time on the conference agenda for this kind of work so the representatives had great problems with implementing the intentions of the project at their local school.

We started the working process by forming two development groups within the reference group. One group worked with assessment and the other one with different ways of working in the classroom. The development groups met about three times every term in between the meetings in the reference group. In the assessment group we discussed student texts and assessed them using the grading criteria. Which mistakes are destroying the whole meaning and which mistakes are only disturbing? Interpreting the curriculum in the same way and using the grading criteria accordingly is also very important if you want to try new ways of teaching, letting your students take more responsibility for their own language learning.

In the working method group we discussed different methods of teaching and read some pedagogic literature. We also tried out some new things and shared each other’s experiences.

When the second year of our project started, the project leaders in English and Modern Languages decided to work together. We realised that we had so many questions in common that it would be easier to work in one group. Our intentions for the second year were the following:
• to increase the competence of grading and assessment
• to develop ways of working for heterogeneous groups
• to develop the joy of learning languages
• to increase the teachers’ competence by in-service training
• to support the teachers by visiting their schools and stimulate the language development
• to contribute to forming networks between schools and developing the existing networks
• to invite students to take part in the project

At our first meeting with the reference group we decided to go on visiting each other’s schools and to form a developing group that was going to work with “English as language choice”, a subject chosen by those students who do not study French, German or Spanish. These groups are very difficult to handle since there are both students who are dyslexic and need a lot of support therefore, and other students who are just tired of school and do not want to study. We identified the different problems and we also invited the remedial teachers to this group. The group met three times during 2001/2002 and the teachers were very pleased with the result. We also worked out a language policy that the schools could use at their local schools.

The third year of the project we continued planning our work considering the goals of the project as well as the teachers’ evaluation. We started the term with a seminar on the European Language Portfolio led by Eric Kinrade from Uppsala. In the reference groups we later followed up the seminar on the ELP and some of the teachers described how they work with portfolio in their classes. We also invited a teacher who told us how he works with student planning in heterogeneous groups.

During the year we kept discussing the lack of reading comprehension among some of our students. This seems to be a problem shared with Swedish as well, probably due to less and less reading. How can we talk about texts? It is important that the students learn to create pictures inside and can reflect on what they read.

In the development group in modern languages we worked out an assessment material for writing and speaking at level 1 in French, German and Spanish. We recorded oral tests, listened together and graded them and made a collection of examples of both speaking and writing. Our discussions about grading, assessment, tests or other ways of showing your knowledge continued. Thoughts about the students’ influence, participation and responsibility were developed.

Another important problem we have been working with is that fewer and fewer students choose to continue their second foreign language studies at upper secondary level. We have interviewed students about the reason for this and we have tried to inform the school authorities about this problem. This has also been a good reason for discussions about the students’ possibilities of taking responsibility for their own planning and evaluation.
Why do the teachers think that “learning languages is fun” but not the students? The crisis of the modern languages has taken up much of our time in both groups. Attitudes are difficult to change but we decided on some actions:

- let the students succeed in their studies
- increase the students’ awareness of how they learn languages
- give priority to speaking activities
- use funny tasks and competitions
- variation
- use authentic materials (like TV-programmes)
- dramatizing
- exchange with other countries
- use music much more
- organize different groups – language for your future or for your spare time

Before the end of the autumn term 2002 we decided to ask the students what they thought about the study of modern languages. We distributed an inquiry among more than 400 students at secondary and upper secondary schools in our region. It took a lot of time putting together the results. The only thing you could make out of the inquiry was that the students like variation best. They like working with a little bit of everything, not the same thing all the time. In 2003 two big studies on attitudes towards the study of modern languages have been published, one from the national school authorities (www.skolutveckling.se) and one from the teachers’ training college in Gothenburg (www.ufl.gu.se). They both show that there is a tendency in modern society that most people think that it is enough with English.

The project leaders have also visited all the schools in the region and met all the language teachers. This has given us a good chance to reach everybody and the reactions among the teachers have been very positive. We have had a lot of good and interesting discussions in the groups where we had mixed secondary and upper secondary schools.

**In-service training**

One of the most important steps to reach all the teachers in the region has been the teachers’ seminars. Here we have had lectures on the new curriculum and how to transform it into classroom reality, grammar, assessment, cultural knowledge and awareness, learner responsibility, the European Language Portfolio and learning styles. These seminars have been most appreciated by all the teachers and hopefully they have led to more discussions and actions at the different schools.

**Learning Talks**

In March 2004 the project leaders were invited to participate in a two-day seminar. The discussions were led by Hans Åke Scherp – Doctor of Pedagogy at the University of Karlstad, Sweden. We studied his ideas and theories, collected in a book called: Scherp, H Å, 2003, *Att leda lärande samtal (How to Lead Learning*
The aim of this in-service training was to prepare the project leaders for a partly new way of carrying on the project that had been going on for four years. The participants were trained how to initiate, organize and lead learning talks in groups of teachers.

This was planned to begin in September 2004 and to continue for two years. An introduction was organized, where the reference group teachers of English and Modern Languages were presented to learning talks in practice. The teachers then decided on topics they found difficult to deal with in their teaching situation.

We formed three learning groups in both English and Modern Languages. The English groups were:

- **Reading Activities** - How to develop students’ reading ability and their willingness to read
- **Intercultural Understanding** - A very important part of the curriculum in language learning in Sweden
- **Low Achievers** - How to help students who have difficulties to attain the curriculum goals.

During the past year the teachers have met in their learning groups about six times. After their learning talks they agreed on some pedagogical tasks they would like to test in their classrooms. At the next meeting they evaluated all the ideas, methods and results they had tested. The groups came up with a bank of good working ideas that they presented to the other learning groups. Our intention is that this will enable all the participating teachers of the project to have some in-service training with their colleagues at their own school in order to better understand the national curriculum. One very vital word in connection with learning talks is experience. In a learning talk your starting point is a given topic, for example the question *What do you do to create an ideal learning environment for your students?* Based on your experience you reflect on the question and write down key words. To deepen your understanding of the other person’s key words you ask questions, take notes and regroup the key words on a map.
The Process of learning talks based on experience

Figure 1  The process of Learning Talks based on experience

Conclusions
We have started a fruitful cooperation between the different levels of education where a lot of ideas have been discussed and hopefully the students will benefit from this in the long run. We have partly increased a common view on learning, student influence and assessment even though there is still much to do in this area. There is a wider understanding for each other’s work among the teachers in the region which has been created by teachers visiting each other at the different schools in the project and also through our meetings every term.

Some problems have occurred, especially reaching our colleagues at the local schools with information about what we are doing in the project. The representatives at the different schools are lacking a forum for informing their colleagues and continuing the discussions at their own school. We think that there
has to be time reserved for those discussions and that the headmasters have to put this on the agenda. We have visited all the schools in the project and started a dialogue with the teachers. Hopefully this has increased the interest and the teachers will have noticed that they have an influence on what we do in the project.

Another problem we have had is the technical equipment at certain schools when the e-mail does not always work. The teachers sometimes have difficulty getting away from school for the meetings in the reference group during day time.

However we have now finished our fifth year in the project and we will go on developing new ways of working so that hopefully we can continue the developing process among all the teachers in the region. But it takes time to develop cooperation…

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Pedagogical Call Center and Support Community

Teemu Valtonen, Olli Hatakka, Esko Kuittinen, Jari Kukkonen, Jorma Enkenberg

Abstract
In this paper we describe a proposal for organizing support services for teachers working with ICT. The aim is to sketch out a pedagogical call center network that could provide instant support for teachers. The call centre is provided by a support community which consists of geographical area specific consultants and technical and pedagogical specialists. Together the local consultants and specialists will form a support grid for teachers, providing help, advice and opinions using different media and also guidance in the schools. The local consultants will also collect information from the field to further develop and promote teaching and learning with educational technology. The aim is that these kind of local or national networks could collaborate internationally also for shared projects.

Background
In this paper we will draw an outline of support services for teachers working with information and communication technologies (ICT) in education. We will take two perspectives on the needs of support in implementing ICT in education. Firstly, there are the practical needs experienced and felt by the teachers while designing and conducting online education. These needs are expressed particularly by novice online teachers who face some common problems in their initial web-based course designs. The challenges like incorporating technology, lack of equipment, time management, designing of student-centred learning and facilitation of online interaction have been reported frequently (e.g. Chou & Tsai 2002; Harasim 2000; Schofield et al. 2002; Taylor 2003). These are some of those
challenges that teachers have to overcome in order to “survive”. This seems to be one of the primary concerns of novices also in the virtual classroom at the beginning of their career as online teachers (cf. Bennett & Marsh 2002; Kuittinen 2003).

Secondly, there are needs for the further improvement and figuring out of alternative aspects of using ICT in education that are primarily recognized by researchers and students. These needs are typically related to the quality of online training and to poor use of an online environment for collaborative learning (Ilomäki, ed. 2001). In our own studies, we have noticed that teachers still have problems using educational technology meaningfully and efficiently. In one of the studies we analysed nine high school on-line courses and noticed that eight out of nine courses were based on learners’ self-study activities, which means that learners were working alone without collaborating with other students (Valtonen, Kukkonen, Wulff, Suonio 2005).

To tackle these problems we propose immediate support to help teachers to integrate and further develop their skills and knowledge to use ICT as a tool in their teaching. Support should be available for the current problems, for example while they are designing, creating, evaluating online their online courses. In-service training is usually organised for large groups of teachers and the individual’s specific problems may not be addressed properly. Also it is not unusual that the problems in ICT differ with local circumstances.

**Pedagogical call center and support community**

In order to solve the described problems, we are setting up a pedagogical call centre that will provide constant support for teachers who are working with educational technology. This service will also provide information and updates of the current situation of the use of educational technology in general. The service is provided by a support community, which consists of area-specific consultants, technical and pedagogical specialists. Together they will form a support grid for teachers. The aim is that this community would work locally, but also nationally and internationally.

The pedagogical call centre will consist of geographical areas (see figure 1) which contain several schools and teachers. For the gathering of practical knowledge about the local situation in each area and for instant support there are local consultants who collect data about the resolved cases and about the situation in general. They will know how teachers are using educational technology, what kind of problems they have etc. Local consultants can go to schools and help teachers whenever they need support. In addition to consultants there are pedagogical and technical specialists who work in the community in national and international levels. They will provide support for teachers and also for the local consultants whenever they need it.

The knowledge and experiences gained from different geographical areas will be entered onto the support service database as stories with appropriate metadata included. In addition to this, teachers questions and other survey material will be
recorded. This material is shared and commented upon with the other consultants and specialists of the community. The idea is that the teachers get answers and new ideas for their problems from the members of the community, and also the local consultants will get collegial support. The community is thereby a call centre for teachers and a collegial support network for the local consultants and specialists.

Analysis and interpretation of the knowledge from the schools and teachers’ earlier problems will give the consultants an opportunity to design and arrange in-service training for teachers, share ideas with other consultants from other areas, and find ways to improve the quality of for example on-line teaching and learning. These training and developmental needs are more authentic when collected this way. By combining the information gathered from different areas we can outline larger goals and new projects and also more responsive in-service training sessions for teachers from different areas.

In addition to collaborating via the Internet, the consultants and specialists are supposed to meet face to face – physically or through videoconferencing - for example once every two or three months so that they can share their experiences and ideas and make plans for the future.

**Computer supported collaborative work tools**
The work and interaction of the support community is actualized using a network collaborative work tools and databases for the specialists and consultants. On this platform consultants report the situations of their area, what they have done, what the situation is and what kind of support do the teachers need.

On this platform there is also a forum for teachers’ questions. Using this forum, the call centre, teachers can ask for advice and solutions for their problems. The questions are responded to by specialists and consultants, preferably during the same day. In this way the call center can provide immediate support and scaffold for teachers and also accumulate information about the situation in schools.
Conclusions
The first phase of setting up the Call centre is to organise the service at the local level, in three different areas in Finland. Thereafter the support community will be extended across national borders.

Through the collaboration area the Call centre provides a two-way support medium for teachers. Firstly, teachers will get the pedagogical and technological information needed for teaching with educational technology whenever they need it. They can ask advice etc. by email and discussion forums. Secondly, the local consultants and specialists will also observe the situations of the schools and make observations that teachers will not necessarily notice by themselves. These outside observers can make suggestions and provide hints on how to develop teaching and learning using educational technology. They can also provide larger scale training for teachers when needed and also help them for example in acquiring a computer, other equipment and software.

All the experiences and information gathered and all the teachers’ questions and answers will be saved in the database of the Call centre. In this way the database will make a useful basis for further development of the use of educational technology. The materials from the schools, teachers’ questions and feedback provide information from different areas, both nationally and internationally. There are cases from authentic problematic situations and how the problems were

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Figure 1. Structure of the support community.
solved. All the collected information will serve as a source for further development of the use of educational technology and also for research activities.

The accumulated information and cases will also serve as a repository of frequently asked questions, so that teachers can themselves become acquainted with earlier similar cases and problems. The main goal of this project is to enhance the sustainable development of the ICT in education.

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Multi-attribute Decision making Models and the System DEXi for Schools

Tomaž Murn and Vladislav Rajkovič

Abstract
The article deals with practical suggestions how to manage decision knowledge for the benefit schools. With the presentation of a multi-attribute decision-making model and the system DEXi (Decision Expert), we approached the possibility of using the DEXi program for administration and teaching purposes in schools. The approach is illustrated by decision case for selecting the best-qualified teacher for the job. We can use DEXi in many other decision making areas. In order to bring the knowledge and the use of decision-making to schools, it is necessary to start already at primary school, changing the way of employees as well as children. Primary school offers a number of opportunities to introduce computer based decision-making approach.

Key words
Knowledge Management, Knowledge Technology, Primary School, Decision Making Process, DEXi

Introduction
In their everyday work, primary school teachers are faced with situations of seeming chaos and many situations in which they must make experience-based
decisions; they constantly search for ways of obtaining *useful information* from such situations that would be *relevant* to decision-making, school administration and extra-curricular activities. Teachers often need to make some choices, either among students or with regard to other organisational problems, which requires informed consideration and well-grounded explanation. School administration is accompanied by many problems including the selection of the best material provider, staff selection, the selection of the most suitable locations and assistance to students in selecting suitable schools. Organisers of extra-curricular activities frequently face the problem of selecting the students who will make up the best team to represent the school in competitions. Due to insufficient information and the lack of time, many school employees cannot cope with the demands of management or they lack the expertise.

As employees in current schools experience a lack of quality time at all levels (overloaded teachers and management staff), it is very important that no major problems – such as loss of time, erroneous decisions or unclear interpretations of decisions – are encountered in decision-making. However, it is possible in the present computer age to alleviate some decision problems through the use of computers. All that is required is to be aware of the problem, know the available program and acquire the skills required for working with it. In this article, we will outline the use of the DEXi computer program (expert system shell) and some examples of its application.

Authors and Slovene state institutions have been convinced by the simplicity and efficiency of the program to introduce this type of teaching in the regular high-school education programs in information technology. Increased popularity and applicability of the DEXi program is the reason why we want to show the possibilities for its use in all work situations when school staff are engaged in decision-making.

**Decision making**

Decision-making is a process in which selection must be made among several variants, alternatives or options to find the one most suitable for the set objectives or requirements. In addition to selecting the best option, we sometimes also want to rank them from the best to the worst. The options in this case are objects, actions, scenarios or consequences of the same or comparable types.

Decision-making is usually part of general problem solving, and is an important mental activity in basically all spheres of human action. Decision problems are of very varied difficulty, ranging from simple personal decisions, which are mostly a matter of routine and made unconsciously, to more complex problems of joint decision-making, for instance in the administration, management and planning of companies, in staff selection, medicinal diagnostics as well as in educational diagnostics.

The most frequent problems accompanying complex decision-making include:
- A great number of factors that impact on the decision;
• Numerous or poorly defined or known variants;
• Complex and often insufficient knowledge of decision problem and aims of the decision;
• Several groups of decision-makers with contradictory aims;
• Limited time and other resources in the decision-making process.

Common decision making problems – such as
• Purchase of technology, sports and other articles
• Choosing interest activity
• Choosing education
• Choosing sport activity
• Election and evaluation class representative
• Teachers evaluation
• Choosing best job
• Medicine diagnosis
• Purchase of apartment/house
• Purchase of car

What is a DEXi?
A Program for Multi-Attribute Decision Making

Purpose
DEXi is an educational computer program for multi-attribute modelling. It is aimed at interactive development of qualitative multi-attribute decision models and the evaluation of options. This is useful for supporting complex decision-making tasks, where there is a need to select a particular option from a set of possible ones so as to satisfy the goals of the decision maker. A multi-attribute model is a hierarchical structure that represents the decomposition of the decision problem into sub-problems, which are smaller, less complex and possibly easier to solve than the complete model.

Description
DEXi supports two basic functions:
1. The development of qualitative multi-attribute models
2. The application of models for the evaluation and analysis of options.

The models are developed by defining:
• Attributes: qualitative variables that represent decision sub-problems,
• Tree of attributes: a hierarchical structure representing the decomposition of the decision problem.
• Utility functions: rules that define the aggregation of attributes from bottom to the top of the tree of attributes.

In the evaluation and analysis stage, DEXi facilitates:
• Description of options: defining the values of basic attributes (terminal nodes of the tree),
• Evaluation of options: a bottom up aggregation of option values based on utility functions,
• Analysis: what-if analysis and selective explanation of options,
• Reporting: graphical and textual presentation of models, options and evaluation results.

DEXi differs from other multi-attribute decision support systems (see, for example, Decision Analysis Software) in that it uses qualitative (symbolic) attributes instead of quantitative (numeric) ones. Also, aggregation (utility) functions in DEXi are defined by if-then decision rules rather numerically by weights or some other kind of formula.

In comparison with its predecessor DEX, DEXi has a more modern and more convenient user interface. Also, it has better graphical and reporting capabilities, and facilitates the use of weights to represent and assess qualitative utility functions. On the other hand, DEXi is somewhat less powerful than DEX in dealing with incomplete option descriptions: DEX employs probabilistic and fuzzy distribution of values, while DEXi facilitates only the use of crisp or unknown option values.

Development
DEXi has been developed in collaboration with the:
• Department of Knowledge Technologies, Jožef Stefan Institute, Ljubljana, Slovenia, and
• University of Maribor, Faculty of Organizational Sciences, Kranj, Slovenia.

The development was financially supported by the Ministry of Education, Science and Sport of the Republic of Slovenia within the Ro (Computer Literacy) Programme (1999-2000).

Availability
DEXi runs under MS Windows operating system. It is implemented in Borland Delphi.

DEXi is available free of charge for non-commercial applications. To obtain a fully functional Slovene version, download DEXi.zip, unpack it to your computer and run DEXi.EXE (this is the DEXi program itself - no installation is required). There is also a help file (in Slovene language) included in the package.

The DEXi User's Manual is available in Slovene language as:

An English version of DEXi is available in DEXi_ENG.zip. Currently, there are no help files or user manuals available for this version (sorry).
Related software
- **DEX** is the predecessor of DEXi.
- **JDEXi** is an open-source Java library implementing: the parsing of DEXi models and evaluation of options.

How to use Dexi?

**Case study – Selection of a teacher for a certain post**

**Problem identification**
Decisions taken by head teachers when selecting teachers are important for the further development and strategy of the educational institution. Staff selection is of paramount importance for head teachers and schools, as the efficient functioning of schools in all domains depends on them. Candidates must have the required expertise and satisfy ethnic and moral requirements as well as other conditions laid down by the legislation. They must also possess good organisational skills and must be able to work in a team. Today's society is constantly changing, and the modern teacher must be able to adapt promptly to changes. Another important feature is teachers' rhetoric and communication skills. Head teachers must also consider which subject the candidate teacher is to teach, since specific expertise is required for each subject. Head teachers must take into account all the criteria to be met by candidate teachers and then select the best-qualified candidate, which is often not an easy task. We therefore proposed to the head teacher of our nine-year primary school to use the DEXi expert system. We then compiled a new list of criteria based on the head teacher's experience and some already set criteria, which is structured and suitable for the application in the DEXi program.

**Attributes identification**
The headmistress, her assistant defined the bottom of the tree of attributes, *the qualification of a candidate*, and four complex attributes:

1. Personal profile
2. Education
3. Skills
4. Personal features

These attributes do not constitute a universal rule for employing teachers. Head teachers can adapt attributes to their specific needs and wishes.
**Figure 1  Tree of attributes for employing teachers in primary schools**

The tree of attributes shows all the factors relevant for the head teacher’s selection of the best-qualified teacher. According to the analysis of the relevance of attributes and the determination of mean weights, **Skills** and **Personal Features** account for 60% and **Personal Profile** and **Education** for 40% of the final evaluation (Figure 3). In this case, the head teacher is primarily interested in communication, social and ethic skills and personal features such as diligence, responsibility, innovative spirit and trust. While representing a formal aspect, education is not crucial for the selection. The only problem under the attribute **Education** is **Inappropriate Education**, which can be decisive in the selection process. The least weight in the selection consideration is attributed to the **Personal Profile** (13%), which above all corresponds to general conditions. If the head teacher wants to employ a newly qualified teacher, then certain rules must be changed and the weight of the **Personal Profile** segment increased.

We suggest that the transfer of data be facilitated by the inclusion of a table or a questionnaire in the model, which can be used during interviews.
### Option Values

**Scales**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attribute</th>
<th>Scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Compliance of candidate</td>
<td>Weak; Regular; Excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal profile</td>
<td>Not suitable; Suitable; Very suitable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>over 45; between 30 and 45; under 30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Female; Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working experience</td>
<td>None; Some; A lot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>Not suitable; Suitable; Very suitable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Additional knowledge</td>
<td>No; Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Required formal education</td>
<td>Normative; Higher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional certificate</td>
<td>No; Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proper education field</td>
<td>No; Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skills</td>
<td>Not suitable; Suitable; Very suitable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>Weak; Regular; Excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication with parents</td>
<td>Weak; Regular; Excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication amongst co-workers</td>
<td>Weak; Regular; Excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team communication</td>
<td>Weak; Regular; Excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication with superiors</td>
<td>Weak; Regular; Excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication with students/pupils</td>
<td>Weak; Regular; Excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social ethics skills</td>
<td>No; Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activity</td>
<td>Not suitable; Suitable; Very suitable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empathy</td>
<td>No; Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship</td>
<td>No; Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flexibility</td>
<td>Not suitable; Suitable; Very suitable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal features</td>
<td>No; Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working capability</td>
<td>Not suitable; Suitable; Very suitable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responsibility</td>
<td>No; Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initiative</td>
<td>No; Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Truthfulness</td>
<td>No; Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 2** Tree of attributes and option values for employing teachers at primary schools

Example of option values following the listing of attribute names and the structuring of the tree of attributes.
**Definition of decision rules – utility functions**

**Decision rules (table)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personal profile</th>
<th>Education</th>
<th>Skills</th>
<th>Personal features</th>
<th>Compliance of candidate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Not suitable</td>
<td>&lt;=Suitable</td>
<td>&lt;=Suitable</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Not suitable</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>Not suitable</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Not suitable</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>&lt;=Suitable</td>
<td>&lt;=Suitable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>Not suitable</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>&lt;=Suitable</td>
<td>Not suitable</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>&lt;=Suitable</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>Not suitable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>Not suitable</td>
<td>&lt;=Suitable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>&lt;=Suitable</td>
<td>Not suitable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>&gt;=Suitable</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>Not suitable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Very suitable</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>Not suitable</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Not suitable</td>
<td>&gt;=Suitable</td>
<td>Very suitable</td>
<td>&gt;=Suitable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>&lt;=Suitable</td>
<td>&gt;=Suitable</td>
<td>Very suitable</td>
<td>Suitable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Not suitable</td>
<td>Very suitable</td>
<td>&gt;=Suitable</td>
<td>Very suitable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>&lt;=Suitable</td>
<td>Very suitable</td>
<td>Suitable</td>
<td>Very suitable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Suitable</td>
<td>&gt;=Suitable</td>
<td>&gt;=Suitable</td>
<td>Suitable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>=&gt;Suitable</td>
<td>&gt;=Suitable</td>
<td>Suitable</td>
<td>Suitable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>=&gt;Suitable</td>
<td>Suitable</td>
<td>&gt;=Suitable</td>
<td>Very suitable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Very suitable</td>
<td>&gt;=Suitable</td>
<td>&gt;=Suitable</td>
<td>Very suitable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Very suitable</td>
<td>&gt;=Suitable</td>
<td>Very suitable</td>
<td>&gt;=Suitable</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 3 Utility function**

Utility functions define interaction between subordinate attributes and the option values of aggregate attributes. The aggregate attributes in our model are the above listed segments of personal profile, education, quality and personal features. Each rule incorporates combinations of attributes which are subordinated to the above four main ones. Figure 3 shows the percentage ratio between individual attribute segments.

**Description of variants**

This segment of the table contains the results of the head teacher-candidate interview. We entered hypothetic option values for four candidates, whom we designated as Candidate1, Candidate2, Candidate3 and Candidate4.

The value Female in the Gender attribute has no pejorative meaning, even though it is coloured red. Most of the employees at primary schools are females and therefore males have a slight advantage in the selection so that a better gender ratio would be established.
Figure 4  Description of variants for four candidates
Evaluation and analysis of variants

Figure 5  Results of the evaluation of management and quality in DEXi.

The evaluation of variants in the given case is clear and easily comparable. All the weak and positive sides of candidates are clearly shown, and thus it is easy to make conclusions. If there are no major differences between the candidates, a more detailed graphical analysis can be done, which can comparably display results of individual sub-segments of the tree of attributes.
Figure 6   Graph of candidate’s qualification

Figure 6 makes it very clear which candidate is the best qualified. A tree with graph arrangement options is displayed on the left side of the interface. The marked part will be transferred into an appropriate graph. DEXi has several graph layouts, depending on the users’ preferences. Some interesting graphical interpretations of results are shown below.

The perfect qualification of candidates 2 and 4 requires additional analysis as only one candidate can be chosen. An important factor to be considered in the selection of the candidate is the post to be taken by him/her. S/he can be employed either for teaching higher grade students, lower grade students, for directing after school activities or facultative classes, etc. Each post has its particular characteristics, which must be taken into account in the selection and the attributes and their relevance must be adapted accordingly.
Figure 7  Graphs of the four main characteristics of the candidates

Figure 8  Comparison of Personal Profile graphs

There is no difference in the area of the charted graphs for candidates 2 and 4 (Figure 8), and the details of the Personal Profile and Personal Features graphs must be examined before the decision on the best-qualified candidate can be taken. It is important that Candidate2 is a middle age male, who, however, has no working experience with children. Candidate4 is a female under 30 years of age,
with working experience with children. After the analysis of Personal Profile graph (20%), it would most probably be the female candidate to be selected; however, personal features must also be taken into account, which have stronger weights (30%).

Figure 9  Comparison of Personal Features graphs

The analysis of Personal Features graphs reveals new facts. Candidate2 is more initiative and more responsible than the younger counter-candidate. Candidate2 has had no working experience with children and it would therefore be difficult to employ him as a teacher in regular morning classes. If he were employed, he would be employed for a trial period at some less important post. He could also teach technical subjects. It may also be sensible to make the WHAT-IF analysis and, if necessary, change some decision rules.
The existing model is not necessarily the best solution, but it can always be upgraded and improved. In any case, it is a good indicator of certain features to be taken into account by the decision-maker.

Conclusion
It is becoming increasingly important to know how to make decisions. In this part, it is not the advantages but the necessities of the modern life that should be discussed. DEXi is a multi-attributive decision support computer program that should be mastered and used by any education institution. The program can be applied in practically all the segments of schooling, while it provides not only assistance, but also guidelines for quality and responsible decision-making. For instance, students are faced with a vital decision at the end of school – what to do next? DEXi can clarify their prospects, thus making it easier for them to take the right decision. It takes some time at the beginning to devise the model, however this time is certainly more than paid off later on. Fast decision-making in correlation with the importance of decisions is one of the most important characteristics of DEXi. The application of the program is simple, and it can be used with practically any PC. The program can also be used as a perfect decision-making teaching tool. It stimulates teamwork – expert teams, while also making quality graph and table supported analyses-interpretations possible. In addition, it is free of charge.

Developing decision models contributes to better understanding of problems. At the same time we must keep in mind that computer cannot decide instead of us. ICT can be very helpful in the decision making process but the final decision remains in the hands of the human being.

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The main task for teachers in the Czech Republic today and in the near future is to prepare and carry on the curriculum changes for the children education in kindergartens, primary schools and grammar schools.

The reason for these changes is, in the context of the whole-world development, to find the most efficient model of education in the Czech Republic, too. The skills young people will be better prepared for:

- mastering new technologies and technical findings
- fast job changes and more frequent retraining
- applying for jobs all over Europe
- facing risk in life
- the requirement to make oneself understood with people in other countries
- meaningful leisure-time utilization
- hobbies development
- taking charge of their own health, etc

The short history of simultaneous curriculum changes:
7. 4. 1999 the government of the Czech Republic approved the main aims of the educational policy.
13. 5. 1999 the Ministry of Education published „The Conception of the Education and Development of the Educational System in the Czech Republic“.

7. 2. 2001 the government of the Czech Republic approved „National Program of Development of the Education in the Czech Republic“ (so-called White Book). 2001 Ministry of Education approved The Framework Education Program for Pre-Primary Education (hereafter referred to as FEP-PPE). This program was not obligatory. But most of the headmasters in kindergartens tried to use it in their work.

The Educational Research Institute in Prague began to create The Framework Education Program for Primary Education (hereafter referred to as FEP-PE).

2002 the selected primary schools (pilot schools) began to create their own School Education Program (hereafter only SEP-PE) based on FEP-PE.

2004 the FEP-PPE was updated according to the experience from using it.

In 2005 the new Education Act came into operation. From that day on the primary schools are obliged to create their own SEP-PE. The period was started when the experience of the “pilot schools” was transferred and the main principles of the FEP-PE explained.

Chosen primary schools that have created their SEP-PE can start teaching based on the new curriculum documents in the 1st and the 6th classes from 1. 9. 2005. The other primary schools are obliged so do so in the 1st and the 6th classes and all kindergartens from 1. 9. 2007.

The Framework Education Program for Secondary Education (FEP-SE), especially for Grammar Schools, and the Framework Education Program for the Vocational Schools are currently being developed and checked.

The basic curriculum documents
The curriculum documents are created in two levels – a state level and a school level.

The National Program of Education (limiting the starting education as a complex) and the Framework Educational Programs (outlining the compulsory frameworks for particular periods of early education, namely pre-school, primary, secondary) represent the national policy while The School Education Program represents school level intervention. The other FEP especially The Framework Education Program for Primary Art Education and the Framework Education Program for Language Education will also be created.
The main principles of the curriculum documents
1) The Framework Education Programs
   - originate from of the new educational strategy that puts the stress on key competences, their relevance to education content and use of knowledge and skills in everyday life;
   - originate from of the concept of lifelong learning;
   - formulate basic education goals for all pupils at the end of different stages;
   - support the educational autonomy of schools and professional responsibility of teachers for educational outcomes.

2) The Framework Education Program for Primary Education:
   - this agrees with the FEP-PPE and is the starting point for the concept of the FEP SE;
   - outlines all that is common and essential in primary education including education in the corresponding classes of the grammar schools;
   - determines the standard of key competences that pupils should reach by the end of primary education;
   - limits the content of education with expected outputs and curriculum;
   - outlines the different subjects that are an obligatory part of the primary education.

The trends in education support and implementation by the FEP-PE:
- respond to the needs and abilities of the pupils;
- allow for differentiated teaching;
- create a wider range of compulsory faculty subjects;
• create the positive sociable, emotional and working climate that is based on effective motivation, cooperation and active teaching methods;
• leads to changes in pupil assessment including continuous educational diagnosis, individual pupil evaluation and the wider expansion of verbal evaluation;
• is for all groups of pupils to continue in education as long as possible;
• reduce the need for pupils to be placed in special classes and schools;
• stress the effective cooperation with pupils’ parents;
• support sharing educational ideas on a world wide scale;
• differentiate educational content for children with special educational needs;
• the FEP/PE is the obligatory document for all secondary schools which establishes the requirements of the entrance examinations.

The FEP/PE is an open document that will respond to the changing needs of society, to the teachers’ experience and to the changing needs and interests of pupils.

The FEP – PE establishes these main aims in primary education:
• to enable pupils to acquire strategies for learning and motivation for lifelong learning;
• to encourage creative thinking, logical reasoning and problem solving,
• to facilitate all-round, effective and open communication (in foreign languages as well as the mother tongue!);
• to develop pupils’ ability to cooperate and respect the work and success of both their own and the other people;
• to train pupils to live as an original, independent and responsible people who exercise their rights and perform their duties,
• to create the need to display positive feelings in behaviour, discussion and lifelong situations,
• develop sensibility and sensitive relations to other people, environment and nature;
• to teach pupils how to protect their intuitive, mental and social health and to be accountable for it,
• to respect other people, their culture and spiritual ideals:
• to teach pupils to live together with other people.

3) The School Education Program for Primary Education
is the basic and obligatory document for all primary schools. The SEP-PE starts from the specific educational aims of the school, from real school conditions, from the needs of the parents and local society.

The SEP-PE:
• is created according to FEP-PE for the whole period of primary education,
• supports equal access to basic education for all children with compulsory education,
• looks at children’s educational needs and possibilities,
• enables to teach both the handicapped pupils and the extremely talented pupils,
• determines the educational and pedagogical strategy in order to fulfill the aims of early education (see below)
• enables teachers to develop a creative style of work and to use effective methods of teaching

The preparation of the SEP-PE is an expression of pedagogical autonomy and responsibility of the whole school for the means and outcomes of education.

The differences between the present and the future concepts of primary education:

a) Learning is not the aim but only an instrument to develop pupil key competences (these are similar to that of the main aims of primary education).
I think many Czech teachers will have problems understanding and accepting change. The intransigence of the Czech educational system, its tradition and the views of the parents, grandparents, etc., will be the biggest obstacles.

b) The sequential integration of the present single teaching subjects into nine educational areas (with one or more educational branches). The previous single subjects will be grouped as follows:
• Language and language communication (Czech language and literature, foreign languages);
• Mathematics and its application;
• Information and communication technology;
• Man and his world (only at the first level of primary school);
• Man and the society (History, Civics);
• Man and nature (Physics, Chemistry, Natural Science, Geography);
• Art and culture (Music education, Art education);
• Man and health (Health education, Physical education);
• Man and working with his hands.
Cooperation of skilled teachers is a basic condition of functional integration. This may create a second problem because until now most teachers in the Czech Republic are not used to cooperating with others.

c) Evaluation of the expected specific outcomes
The FEP-PE determines the expected outcomes at the end of the 3rd and 5th classes. These are binding – like the orientation outcomes for the needs of teachers and head teachers. However at the end of the 9th class expected outcomes are obligatory. These outcomes are incorporated in daily life and certifiable. Some Czech schools have participated in the International Pupils Exams (TIMSS, RLS, SITES, PISA,…) but up to now they have not had any experience with self-evaluation following the expected outcomes.

d) The section topics in FEP-PE
represent the areas of difficulties encountered in the present world. They are an obligatory, significant and indivisible part of primary education. First of all they
help to prepare pupils in the areas of positions and values. The foundations for these ideas start in the period of early education, these section topics are determined:

- Personal and social education;
- Education of a democratic citizen;
- Thinking in European and global perspectives.
- Multicultural education.
- Environmental education.
- Media education.

The section topics are something quite new in Czech schools. Each teacher will have to think how to use these topics in his/her subject.

e) Education of pupils with specific educational needs

Their teachers will have to create suitable conditions both for extremely talented children and those with various kinds of health handicap. Children with a mental handicap will be educated according to the FEP-PE adopted to meet the needs of these children.

**Conclusion**

My view of a teacher in the future:

- S/he is a professional with great knowledge of pedagogy and psychology,
- S/he is able to communicate in two foreign languages,
- S/he is able to use ICT very well,
- S/he is a person with great M (communicative, creative, adaptable, optimistic, sensitive, ........)
- S/he is a guide to pupils’ educational journey who knows how, where and why s/he is leading his/her pupils.

*Good luck my colleagues!*

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Educating Students for the 21st Century
A discussion of changes and their consequences in the Swedish school system

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This paper will point at some of the changes that the Swedish educational system has gone through during the last 15 years. The more general picture will be discussed, but the specific examples are mostly taken from upper secondary school, since that is the level our working experience is from. We will also try to say something about the outcome of these changes, and how it may concern the future role of the teacher.

General background
During the previous decades Sweden, like many other nations, has undergone the transformation from an industrial society to an information and communication based one. Today ICT permeates both Swedish working life and the educational system, but also plays an increasing role in civic life.

Globalisation has had a huge impact on the Swedish job market. More and more unskilled jobs are outsourced and instead we try to compete internationally with high tech knowledge. As a result the level of competence required all over the job sector rises continuously, something which puts new demands on the educational system. Today upper secondary education includes 98-99% of young people and is constantly challenged to include all.
The most recent sign of the risen expectations is that the department of Education has stated that upper secondary level is, in many sectors, no longer enough to qualify for a job. Today 38% of students leaving upper secondary school enter university. The goal is that 50% of them will do so in a very near future\textsuperscript{35}.

Changes in the school system

In order to meet the demands on education, the Swedish school system was reformed in 1994. Both compulsory and upper secondary school got new curricula and syllabuses. The former rather extensive curricula were replaced by brief ones, Lpo94 and Lpf94, with more general goals to attain.

The most radical changes took place in upper secondary education. When leaving compulsory school a student can now choose from 16 national programmes – two academic and 14 vocational ones\textsuperscript{36}. There are also a large number of specially designed programmes arranged at a local level.

The previous system offered the students two major kinds of national programmes; academic and vocational. Before 1994 the academic programs included three years of upper secondary schooling, whereas the vocational programs included two years combined with some job training. The two types of programs had separate syllabuses in theoretical subjects.

As a result the vocational students where neither prepared nor qualified for further studies. For many students a consequence of the old system was that beyond the age of 15, they were not challenged to consider whether they wanted or were suited to keep on studying at an academic level. Thus, many gifted students never got round to applying for university.

To change this, the 1994 reform made all upper secondary programmes three year long. They all include eight subjects that every student has to study – the core subjects. Irrespective of programme, the core subjects have the same goals to attain and the same criteria for marking. Consequently all upper secondary students who have a complete degree also have basic eligibility for university – this to cater for equal opportunities and a better foundation for lifelong learning.

Another major change in upper secondary education was the introduction of a course system. Before 1994 the majority of the subjects included in a programme were studied for two or three years after which the student received a final grade. In the new system all subjects are divided into courses. Most of them last for a

\textsuperscript{35} See debate article in DN 2005 -01-18 "Pagrotsky vill skärpa ineffektiv lärarutbildning"………

\textsuperscript{36} Actually there is a 17th programme also – the individual program where students go who have not attained a pass grade in Swedish, English and Mathematics from compulsory school.
year, but some just for a term. Each year a student completes a third of the 25-30 courses that makes up the chosen programme.\footnote{The new system was copied from upper secondary education, where it had proved to be successful.}

**The core subjects**

At upper secondary level there was quite an intense discussion about which subjects that were to be the core subjects courses. The present list includes

- Swedish A + B (alternatively Swedish as a second language A and B)
- English A
- Mathematics A
- Science Studies A
- Civics A
- Religious studies A
- PE and health A
- Artistic activities A

The A symbolizes the first step in a subject at upper secondary level. The next step, the B-course and in some subjects C, D and E courses, are either part of the chosen study programme or in some cases offered as optional courses.

**Curriculum key words**

As mentioned above a significant feature of both the new curricula, Lpo94 and Lpf94, is that they are very brief and focus on general areas like study skills, literacy, critical thinking, problem solving and the ability to cooperate as well as work independently. Other key words are democratic values, and the fostering of independent and responsible citizens.

The excerpt below, from the curriculum for compulsory school, Lpo-94, will give you an idea:

...students shall learn to handle a complex reality characterized by a vast amount of information and rapid and frequent changes. Study skills and methods for acquiring and using new knowledge are therefore important....

...it is crucial for students to develop the ability to critically examine facts and circumstances, and to realize consequences of different alternatives. Students shall be given opportunities to take initiatives and show responsibility. They shall be given conditions which develop their ability to work independently and solve problems.

Teachers shall take for granted that all students want and are able to assume a personal responsibility for their school work as well as for their learning.

\footnote{From 2007 History course A will be included in the core subjects}
...language, learning and identity are closely related. Through numerous opportunities to discuss, read and write all students have a chance to develop communications skills and become confidently literate.

The syllabuses
In the same manner as the new curricula, the syllabuses from 1994 focus abilities and competences rather than specific areas of subject knowledge. Much of the content - what areas to study and which facts to be learnt - is delegated to the local schools where teachers and students are supposed to specify the content by writing more detailed work plans at the local level.

The open writing is illustrated below through some excerpts from the syllabuses for civics in compulsory and upper secondary school.

When the students leave compulsory school they should have
- developed a knowledge of conditions in other countries, and thus the ability to reflect over international relations and international cooperation,
- acquired knowledge to be able to discuss local and global issues, which are important for a sustainable society,
- developed their ability to critically examine social conditions and be able to see the consequences of various alternatives,
- developed their ability to reason and express their standpoint, as well as a belief in their own ability to actively take part in society and influence its development.

In upper secondary school, where Civics A is one of the core subject courses, the school should aim to ensure that students:
- understand and practise the fundamental values of democracy and understand how different perspectives and ideologies provide different ways of viewing society,
- develop their ability to critically examine social conditions, as well as their ability to see the consequences of various action alternatives for themselves and for society,
- develop their ability to formulate issues, discuss and express standpoints, as well as develop their own ability to actively take part in society and influence its development,
- develop their ability to use different methods when working with societal issues, and develop an increasingly scientific approach.

An increasing demand on literacy skills
Since there is greater emphasis on abilities and competences and less on a specific subject content, literacy now plays an increasing role for study success, particularly when students are assessed.
The list below is compiled from the syllabuses for core subject and vocational courses at the upper secondary media programme. It clearly illustrates the kind of literacy skills a student has to master in order to succeed.

• analyze
• argue
• comment
• compare
• convey
• exemplify
• describe
• discuss
• document
• evaluate
• express (values)
• form an opinion
• give background to
• inform
• instruct
• interpret
• motivate
• plan
• present
• put in perspective
• reflect
• relate
• retell
• structure
• summarize

It is worth noticing that the media programme is vocational, attracting many students who are not very experienced “academically”. Nevertheless they are expected to develop and prove their individual abilities and knowledge through a wide range of literacy skills - regardless of the content of a specific course. For the students the demands are explicit. For the teacher the same demands are more implicit. We are expected to scaffold the students through their learning process before assessing the results, but this might not be evident for all teachers at first sight.

Positive aspects
There are many positive aspects of the recent changes in the Swedish school system. The open goals and process orientation in the steering documents have given both students and teachers opportunities and inspiration to work with new methods. Schools have also been encouraged to work thematically and some students have become more independent learners. Many compulsory and upper secondary schools have left set timetables in exchange for problem based learning,
where the students work with cases rather than prepare for tests. Study motivated students have been able to expand their knowledge in a way that was hardly possible within in the old, more regulated, system.

A radical change for the better is that all students, regardless of interests and background, are encouraged to study at a higher level. As a result many students at vocational upper secondary programs come to realize that studying at a more demanding level is something they can master. Through the core subjects and the common goals to attain, each student is also, at least in theory, better equipped for future learning.

The same compulsory core subject courses give all students who pass a basic eligibility for academic studies. An individual student can also choose a more study-oriented profile within the frame of any of the upper secondary programmes. This is done through the individual choice of courses which make up about 10% of an exam. The decision about whether to continue studying or not is no longer made at the age of 15.

In the new upper secondary school a student completes a number of courses per year. Some students find it easier to concentrate their studies like this and therefore reach better results than they would have done in the previous system, where almost all subjects were studied for three years before they were graded.

To sum up - many students who are both study motivated and confidently literate have more opportunities and challenges than before. The rapid growth of ICT has helped in that process and the state has invested a huge amount of money in computerizing schools at all levels in order to guarantee equal opportunities.

Negative aspects
The positive aspects of the new system are often connected to the fact that the more open framework encourages learning in new ways. The more negative aspects concern worrying results from what students actually learn, and that the system seems to marginalize certain groups of students.

Results from international surveys like PISA, PIRLS and TIMSS show that Swedish students now lag behind. The former top position in reading literacy is lost, and results in maths and natural science are far from satisfactory. The situation is particularly alarming for boys with a working class background and for some students with an immigrant background.

A similar picture is shown in the National Evaluation of Compulsory School -
which was published in the autumn of 2004. The results show that the overall level of knowledge has deteriorated in subjects like Swedish (reading literacy), Mathematics, Social and Natural Sciences.

Skolverket - The National Agency of Education - points to the risk that the subject content become trivialized due to the ‘open’, and more generally oriented goals of the syllabuses. The fact that the learning process, rather than the subject contents, is now emphasized has resulted in a severe lack of basic knowledge.

In upper secondary school the course system, where approximately 30 courses are studied and assessed during three years - contribute to the difficulties in developing general literacy skills further. The fact that learning at a more advanced level also takes more time is not enough accounted for. Skolverket is therefore preparing a minor reform for upper secondary school, aiming at reducing the number of courses. The reformed system will be introduced in 2007.

Furthermore the National Evaluation of Compulsory School 2003 shows that the polarisation between schools as well as between students, has increased during the last ten years. The differences are still small compared to the international picture but there is a clear tendency that students from a non-academic or poor socioeconomic background underachieve. Too many of the new working methods take both advanced literacy skills and the students’ ability to work independently for granted. Research has also shown that it is the ambitious students who manage to attract the teacher’s attention when students work with individual projects.

Recently Skolverket pointed at research that show the importance of teachers communicating high expectations to their students. This is particularly important for students from a poor socioeconomic background, since it helps strengthening their self confidence and increase their motivation. It is therefore worrying that Swedish students with that kind of background have low self esteem compared to students from other nations.

But not only students from a non-academic background risk becoming underachievers in the new system. Research has shown that few of the study motivated students manage to accomplish texts of high quality when working independently with ‘research projects’. They do not know what questions to ask, and have difficulties in finding and interpreting relevant material on their own. Too many projects are put together simply by cutting and pasting from various sources and quite naturally show few traces of independent thinking as well as a lack of depth.

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44 Skolverket (2004c)
45 Skolverket (2005)
46 Dovemark
47 Skolverket (2005)
48 Nilsson
The new role of the teacher

One very evident consequence of the interpretation of the steering document from 1994 was that many teachers withdrew in the class room. The modern teacher should tutor his or her students individually and was more or less discouraged to organise and lead class room work.

We think that this was a misinterpretation of the intentions behind the new curricula and syllabuses. What the writing in these documents really calls for is a more conscious or ‘predominant’ role of the teacher. In order to support students in the development of the skills and competences exemplified above, teachers must now scaffold and give models to a much larger extent than what has been common.

In order to develop both literacy skills and subject knowledge the students need frequent opportunities to practise the discussing, comparing and analyzing of various phenomena during lesson time. Today this is often outsourced as homework and as a result too many students are inexorably excluded.

All subject teachers must also teach the reading, writing and oral genres significant for their subject. Equally important is to help the student to learn and use subject-specific vocabulary and concepts, as it is through this vocabulary that much of the learning is demonstrated and assessed. If the teaching of literacy is left only to the mother tongue teacher students from a non-academic background will have a hard time reaching beyond the pass grade.

One thing that Skolverket emphasises is that teachers must be given back time to meet within their subject departments. During the last 10-15 years too much belief has been put in to what cross curricular team work can accomplish. These discussions tend to be about student social issues, rather than didactic ones; what to teach, why and how.

The aim of the upper secondary school reform of 1994 and new steering documents was to promote equal opportunity. Consequently students who needed more time to reach the goals should get it. But due to severe economic cut backs, many schools in reality cut down on lessons. Quite a few local politicians and some head teachers ‘excuse’ themselves by stressing the importance of students working independently. We mean that much too many students get less scaffolding and support from competent teachers than they are entitled to.

How much of the deterioration of study results among Swedish students that is linked to the way the new steering documents has been interpreted is of course hard to say. But we do know that the way many schools have worked during the past ten years have not contributed to helping students from non-academic backgrounds to succeed. Evidently this is an area of improvement and one of the most important of all challenges for a teacher in the contemporary Swedish society.

49 Skolverket (2005)
50 Marton, professor in pedagogics, discusses the issue in Lärare av i morgon
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